

# Generalized Linear Model & Logistic Regression

## Fundamental Techniques in Data Science



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# Outline

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Generalized Linear Model

Logistic Regression

Classification



# General Linear Model

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So far, we've been discussing models with this form:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p X_p + \varepsilon$$

This type of model is known as the *general linear model*.

- All flavors of linear regression are general linear models.
  - SLR, MLR
  - t-test, ANOVA, ANCOVA
  - Multilevel linear regression models



# Components of the General Linear Model

We can break our model into pieces:

$$\eta = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p X_p$$

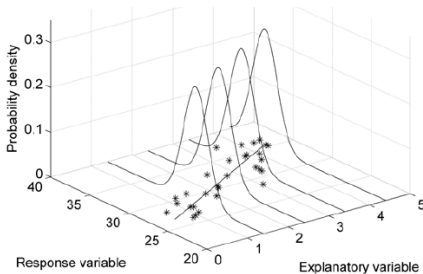
$$Y = \eta + \varepsilon$$

$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , so we can also write:

$$Y \sim N(\eta, \sigma^2)$$

Where:

- $\eta$  is the *systematic component* of the model (AKA, the *linear predictor*).
- The normal distribution,  $N(\cdot, \cdot)$ , is the model's *random component*.



# Components of the General Linear Model

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The purpose of general linear modeling (i.e., regression modeling) is to build a model of the outcome's mean,  $\mu_Y$ .

- In this case,  $\mu_Y = \eta$ .
- The systematic component defines the mean of  $Y$ .

The random component quantifies variability around  $\mu_Y$  (i.e., error variance).

- In the general linear model, we assume that this error variance follows a normal distribution.



# GENERALIZED LINEAR MODEL



# Extending the General Linear Model

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We can generalize the models we've been using in two important ways:

1. Allow for random components other than the normal distribution.
2. Allow for more complicated relations between  $\mu_Y$  and  $\eta$ .
  - Allow:  $g(\mu_Y) = \eta$

These extensions lead to the class of *generalized linear models* (GLMs).



# Components of the Generalized Linear Model

The random component in a GLM can be any distribution from the so-called *exponential family*.

- The exponential family contains many popular distributions:
  - Normal
  - Binomial
  - Poisson
  - Many others...

The systematic component of a GLM is exactly the same as it is in general linear models:

$$\eta = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p X_p$$





# Link Functions

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In GLMs,  $\eta$  does not directly describe  $\mu_Y$ .

- We first transform  $\mu_Y$  via a *link function*.
- $g(\mu_Y) = \eta$

The link function performs two important functions.

1. Linearize the association between  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $Y$ .
  - Nonlinear:  $\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mu_Y$
  - Linear:  $\mathbf{X} \rightarrow g(\mu_Y)$
2. Allows GLMs for outcomes with restricted ranges without requiring any restrictions on the range of the  $\{X_p\}$ .
  - In many cases,  $\mu_Y$  has a limited range.
    - Counts:  $\mu_Y > 0$
    - Probabilities:  $\mu_Y \in [0, 1]$
  - When correctly specified,  $g(\mu_Y)$  can take any value on the real line.



# Intuition of Link Functions

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Suppose you uncover a burgeoning conspiracy to insight widespread civil unrest through a coordinated campaign of loud mobile phone conversations on public transit.

- If you want to predict the potential size of this terrorist cell, you could use a simple model of exponential growth.

$$\mu = n_0(1 + n_1)^t$$

Where:

- $\mu$  is the group size at time  $t$
- $n_0$  is the initial group size
- $n_1$  is the number of new members each conspirator recruits in a unit of time



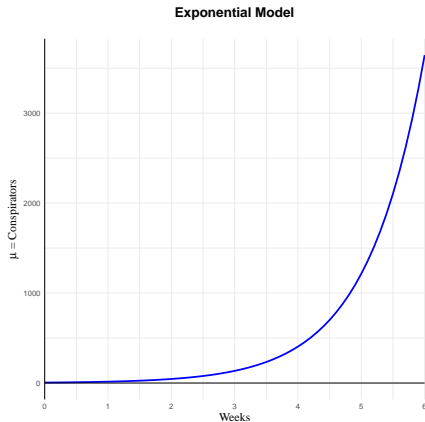
# Intuition of Link Functions

For this example, let's assume:

- The group has five members when you start tracking them.
- Every conspirator recruits two new members per week.

Then, the number of aural assailants at Week  $t$  is given by:

$$\mu = 5(1 + 2)^t$$



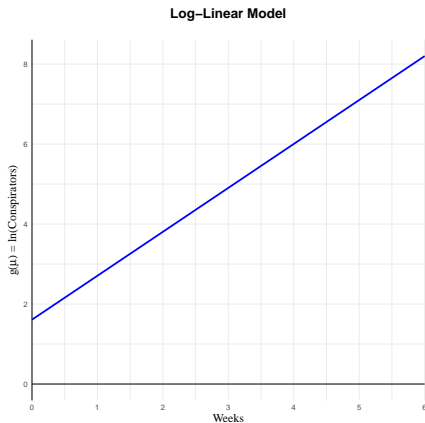
# Intuition of Link Functions

We can linearize the model by using the natural log as a link function.

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(\mu) &= \ln [n_0(1 + n_1)^t] \\ &= \ln(n_0) + \ln(1 + n_1)t\end{aligned}$$

For our example problem, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(\mu) &= \ln [5(1 + 2)^t] \\ &= \ln(5) + \ln(3)t\end{aligned}$$



# Intuition of Link Functions

We can use the linearized model to estimate the  $n_0$  and  $n_1$  parameters with standard linear modeling techniques.

t	mu
0	5.00
1	15.00
2	45.00
3	135.00
4	405.00
5	1215.00
6	3645.00

```
# Estimate a log-linear model of group size:
out <- lm(log(mu) ~ t, data = dat3)

# Extract the estimated regression weights:
(beta <- coef(out))

(Intercept)          t
  1.609438      1.098612

# Convert the weights to a counts scale:
exp(beta)

(Intercept)          t
          5          3
```

# Components of the Generalized Linear Model

Every GLM is built from three components:

1. The systematic component,  $\eta$ .
  - A linear function of the predictors,  $\{X_p\}$ .
  - Describes the association between  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $Y$ .
2. The link function,  $g(\mu_Y)$ .
  - Linearizes the relation between  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $Y$ .
  - Transforms  $\mu_Y$  so that it can take any value on the real line.
3. The random component,  $P(Y|g^{-1}(\eta))$ 
  - The distribution of the observed  $Y$ .
  - Quantifies the error variance around  $\eta$ .



# General Linear Model as a Special Case

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The general linear model is a special case of GLM.

1. Systematic component:

$$\eta = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p X_p$$

2. Link function:

$$\mu_Y = \eta$$

3. Random component:

$$Y \sim N(\eta, \sigma^2)$$



# Example

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```
data(iris)

## General linear model:
lmFit <- lm(Petal.Length ~ Petal.Width + Species, data = iris)

## Generalized linear model:
glmFit <- glm(Petal.Length ~ Petal.Width + Species,
              family = gaussian(link = "identity"),
              data = iris)
```



# Example

---

```
partSummary(lmFit, 3)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	1.21140	0.06524	18.568	< 2e-16
Petal.Width	1.01871	0.15224	6.691	4.41e-10
Speciesversicolor	1.69779	0.18095	9.383	< 2e-16
Speciesvirginica	2.27669	0.28132	8.093	2.08e-13

```
partSummary(glmFit, 2)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	1.21140	0.06524	18.568	< 2e-16
Petal.Width	1.01871	0.15224	6.691	4.41e-10
Speciesversicolor	1.69779	0.18095	9.383	< 2e-16
Speciesvirginica	2.27669	0.28132	8.093	2.08e-13

# LOGISTIC REGRESSION



# Logistic Regression

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So why do we care about the GLM when linear regression models have worked thus far?

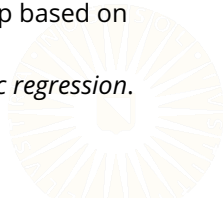
- In a word: Classification.

In the classification task, we have a discrete, qualitative outcome.

- We will begin with the situation of two-level outcomes.
  - Alive or Dead
  - Pass or Fail
  - Pay or Default

We want to build a model that predicts class membership based on some set of interesting features.

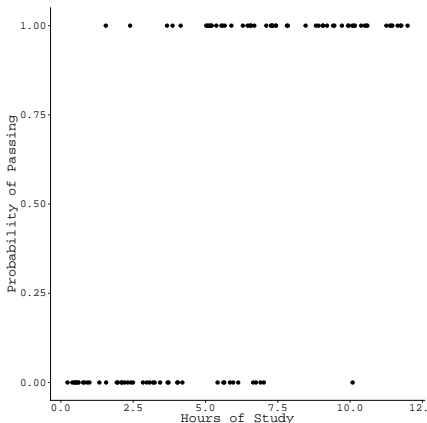
- To do so, we will use a very useful type of GLM: *logistic regression*.



# Classification Example

Suppose we want to know the effect of study time on the probability of passing an exam.

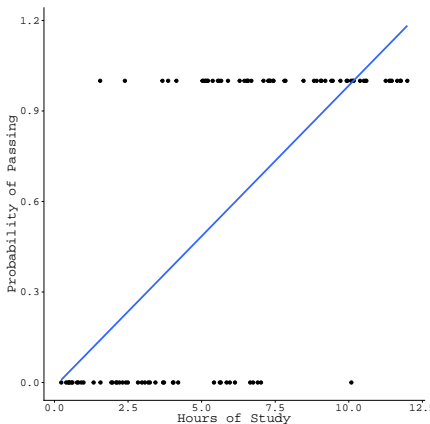
- The probability of passing must be between 0 and 1.
- We care about the probability of passing, but we only observe absolute success or failure.
  - $Y \in \{1, 0\}$



# Linear Regression for Binary Outcomes?

What happens if we try to model these data with linear regression?

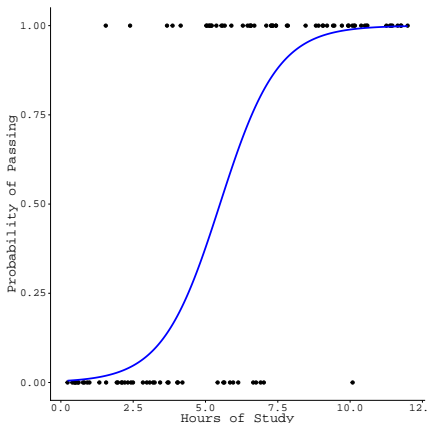
- Hmm...notice any problems?



# Logistic Regression Visualized

We get a much better model using logistic regression.

- The link function ensures legal predicted values.
- The sigmoidal curve implies fluctuation in the effectiveness of extra study time.
  - More study time is most beneficial for students with around 5.5 hours of study.



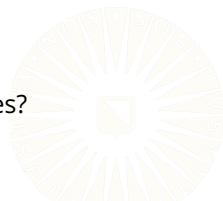
# Probabilities, Odds, & Odds-Ratios

In 2017, 2535 people participated in the *Ultra-Trail du Mont-Blanc*, but only 66.55% finished the race.

- Below, you can find a cross-tabulation of finishing status and sex.

Sex	Finish	
	No	Yes
Female	95	147
Male	753	1540

- What is the *probability* of finishing for each sex?
- What are the *odds* of finishing for each sex?
- What is the *odds ratio* of finishing for males vs. females?



# Defining the Logistic Regression Model

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In logistic regression problems, we are modeling binary data:

- Usual coding:  $Y \in \{1 = \text{"Success"}, 0 = \text{"Failure"}\}$ .

The *Binomial* distribution is a good way to represent this kind of data.

- The systematic component in our logistic regression model will be the binomial distribution.

The mean of the binomial distribution (with  $N = 1$ ) is the "success" probability,  $\pi = P(Y = 1)$ .

- We are interested in modeling  $\mu_Y = \pi$ :

$$g(\pi) = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p X_p$$

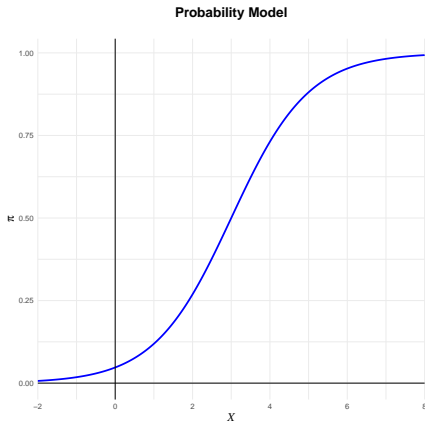




# Link Function for Logistic Regression

Because  $\pi$  is bounded by 0 and 1 and not linear related to  $\mathbf{X}$ , we cannot model it directly—we must apply an appropriate link function.

- Logistic regression uses the *logit link*.

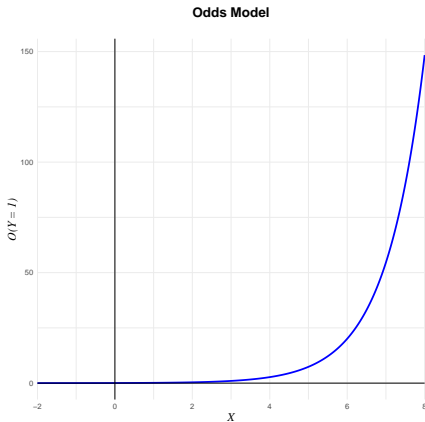


# Link Function for Logistic Regression

Given  $\pi$ , we can define the *odds* of success as:

$$O_s = \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}$$

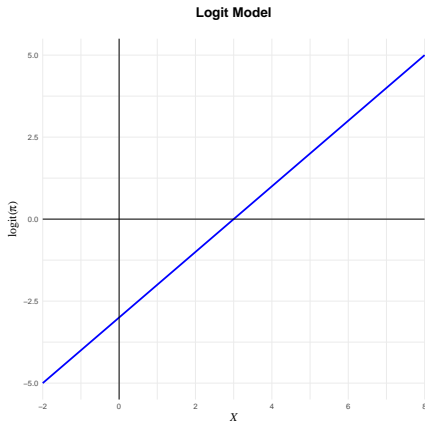
- Because  $\pi \in [0, 1]$ , we know that  $O_s \geq 0$ .



# Link Function for Logistic Regression

We take the natural log of the odds as the last step to fully map  $\pi$  to the real line.

$$\text{logit}(\pi) = \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}\right)$$



# Fully Specified Logistic Regression Model

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Our final logistic regression model is:

$$Y \sim \text{Bin}(\pi, 1)$$
$$\text{logit}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p X_p$$

The fitted model can be represented as:

$$\text{logit}(\hat{\pi}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \hat{\beta}_p X_p$$

The fitted coefficients,  $\{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_p\}$ , are interpreted in units of *log odds*.



# Logistic Regression Example

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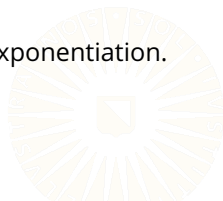
If we fit a logistic regression model to the test-passing data plotted above, we get:

$$\text{logit}(\hat{\pi}_{\text{pass}}) = -3.414 + 0.683X_{\text{study}}$$

- A student who does not study at all has -3.414 log odds of passing the exam.
- For each additional hour of study, a student's log odds of passing increase by 0.683 units.

Log odds do not lend themselves to interpretation.

- We can convert the effects back to an odds scale by exponentiation.
- $\hat{\beta}$  has log odds units, but  $e^{\hat{\beta}}$  has odds units.



# Interpretations

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Exponentiating the coefficients also converts the additive effects to multiplicative effects.

- We can interpret  $\hat{\beta}$  as we would in linear regression:
  - A unit change in  $X_p$  produces an expected change of  $\hat{\beta}_p$  units in  $\text{logit}(\pi)$ .
- After exponentiation, however, unit changes in  $X_p$  imply multiplicative changes in  $O_s = \pi/(1 - \pi)$ .
  - A unit change in  $X_p$  results in multiplying  $O_s$  by  $e^{\hat{\beta}_p}$ .



# Interpretations

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Exponentiating the coefficients in our toy test-passing example produces the following interpretations:

- A student who does not study is expected to pass the exam with odds of 0.033.
- For each additional hour a student studies, their odds of passing increase by 1.98 *times*.
  - Odds of passing are *multiplied* by 1.98 for each extra hour of study.



# Interpretations

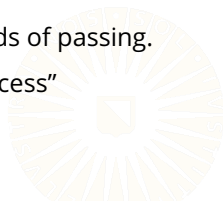
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Exponentiating the coefficients in our toy test-passing example produces the following interpretations:

- A student who does not study is expected to pass the exam with odds of 0.033.
- For each additional hour a student studies, their odds of passing increase by 1.98 *times*.
  - Odds of passing are *multiplied* by 1.98 for each extra hour of study.

Due to the confusing interpretations of the coefficients, we often focus on the valance of the effects:

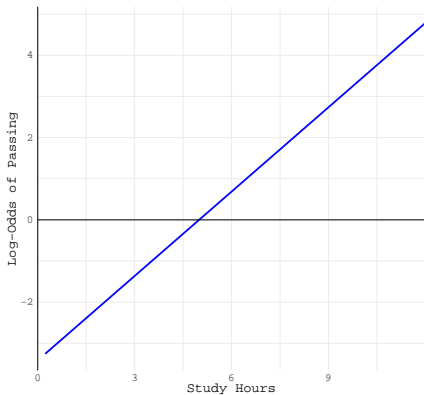
- Additional study time is associated with increased odds of passing.
- $\hat{\beta}_p > 0$  = "Increased Success",  $e^{\hat{\beta}_p} > 1$  = "Increased Success"



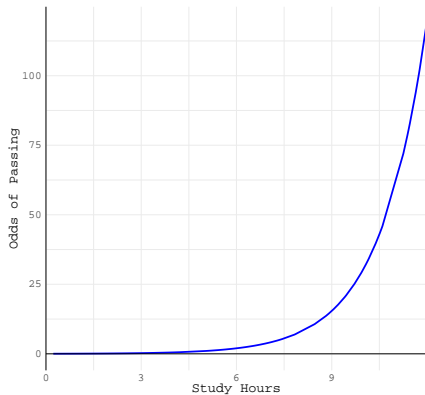


# Visualizing Interpretations

Logit Model

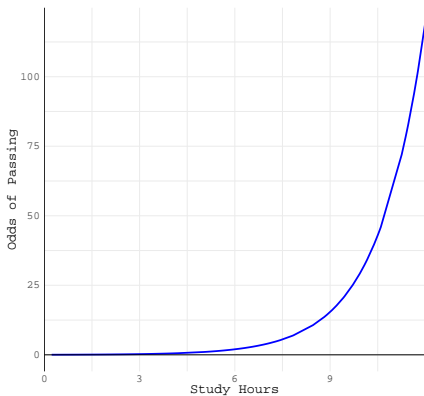


Odds Model

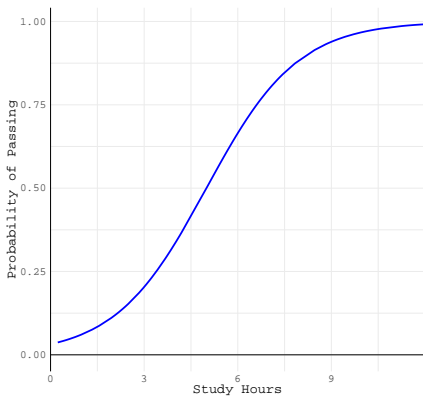


# Visualizing Interpretations

Odds Model



Probability Model



# Example

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Let's use logistic regression to compute the odds of finishing the UTMB.

```
## Read the UTMB data:  
utmb <- readRDS(here::here(dataDir, "utmb_finish_2017.rds"))
```

We use the `glm()` function to estimate generalized linear models.

- To get a logistic regression model, we need to do two things:
  1. Specify a binary outcome variable
  2. Specify the `family = 'binomial'` argument.

```
## Estimate the logistic regression model:  
fit <- glm(Finish ~ Sex, family = binomial(link = "logit"), data = utmb)
```

# Example

---

```
partSummary(fit, -1)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
(Intercept)	0.4366	0.1316	3.316	0.000912
SexMale	0.2789	0.1389	2.007	0.044712

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 3231.3 on 2534 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 3227.3 on 2533 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 3231.3

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

# Interpretation

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## INTERCEPT

The expected log-odds of a female finishing the race are 0.44.

## SLOPE

A runner's sex significantly predicts their probability of finishing the race ( $\beta = 0.28$ ,  $z = 2.01$ ,  $p = 0.045$ ).

- The expected log-odds of males finishing the race are 0.28 units higher than expected log-odds of females finishing the race.

# Interpretation

---

The raw coefficient estimates are in units of log-odds.

- We need to exponentiate the estimates to get odds ratios.

```
library(dplyr)
```

```
coef(fit) |> exp()
```

(Intercept)	SexMale
1.547368	1.321697

## INTERCEPT

The expected odds of a female finishing the race are 1.55.

## SLOPE

The expected odds of males finishing the race are 1.32 times the expected odds of females finishing the race.

# Multiple Logistic Regression

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The preceding example was a *simple logistic regression*.

- Including multiple predictor variables in the systematic component leads to *multiple logistic regression*.
- The relative differences between simple logistic regression and multiple logistic regression are the same as those between simple linear regression and multiple linear regression.
  - The only important complication is that the regression coefficients become partial effects.



# Example

---

Let's use logistic regression to predict the chances that Titanic passengers survived the sinking based on their age, sex, and ticket class.

```
## Read the data:  
titanic <- readRDS(here::here(dataDir, "titanic.rds"))  
  
## Estimate the logistic regression model:  
fit <- glm(survived ~ age + sex + class,  
           data = titanic,  
           family = "binomial")
```



# Example

---

```
partSummary(fit, -1)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
(Intercept)	3.63492	0.37045	9.812	< 2e-16
age	-0.03427	0.00716	-4.787	1.69e-06
sexmale	-2.58872	0.18701	-13.843	< 2e-16
class2nd	-1.19911	0.26158	-4.584	4.56e-06
class3rd	-2.45544	0.25322	-9.697	< 2e-16

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 1182.77 on 886 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 801.59 on 882 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 811.59

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5

# Interpretation

---

## INTERCEPT

The expected log-odds of survival for a zero-year-old female passenger in first class are 3.63.

## AGE EFFECT

A passenger's age significantly predicts their probability of survival, after controlling for their gender and ticket class ( $\beta = -0.03$ ,  $z = -4.79$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

- For each additional year of age, the expected log-odds of survival decrease by 0.03 units, after controlling for gender and ticket class.

# Interpretation

---

## GENDER EFFECT

A passenger's gender significantly predicts their probability of survival, after controlling for their age and ticket class ( $\beta = -2.59$ ,  $z = -13.84$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

- The expected log-odds of survival are 2.59 units lower for men/boys than for women/girls, after controlling for age and ticket class.

# Interpretation

---

## CLASS EFFECT

After controlling for age and gender, there is a significant difference in predicted survival probability between passengers in second class and passengers in first class ( $\beta = -1.2$ ,  $z = -4.58$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and between passengers in third class and passengers in first class ( $\beta = -2.46$ ,  $z = -9.7$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

- The expected log-odds of survival are 1.2 units lower for passengers in second class than for passengers in first class, after controlling for age and gender.
- The expected log-odds of survival are 2.46 units lower for passengers in third class than for passengers in first class, after controlling for age and gender.

# Example

---

Compute odds ratios.

```
(or <- coef(fit) |> exp())
```

(Intercept)	age	sexmale	class2nd	class3rd
37.8988400	0.9663058	0.0751161	0.3014609	0.0858252

Odds ratios smaller than 1.0 can be difficult to explain.

- We can ease interpretation by reciprocating the estimates.

```
1 / or
```

(Intercept)	age	sexmale	class2nd	class3rd
0.02638603	1.03486914	13.31272574	3.31717996	11.65158920

# Example

---

To convince ourselves that the above operation is sensible, we can compare the inverse odds ratios to the odds ratios we get from predicting the chances of dying.

```
library(magrittr)

fit2 <- titanic |>
  mutate(died = relevel(survived, ref = "yes")) %$%
  glm(died ~ age + sex + class, family = "binomial")
```

# Example

---

```
partSummary(fit2, -1)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
(Intercept)	-3.63492	0.37045	-9.812	< 2e-16
age	0.03427	0.00716	4.787	1.69e-06
sexmale	2.58872	0.18701	13.843	< 2e-16
class2nd	1.19911	0.26158	4.584	4.56e-06
class3rd	2.45544	0.25322	9.697	< 2e-16

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 1182.77 on 886 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 801.59 on 882 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 811.59

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5

# Example

---

We get the same odds ratios that we derived through reciprocation.

```
coef(fit2) |> exp()
```

(Intercept)	age	sexmale	class2nd	class3rd
0.02638603	1.03486914	13.31272574	3.31717996	11.65158920

1 / or

(Intercept)	age	sexmale	class2nd	class3rd
0.02638603	1.03486914	13.31272574	3.31717996	11.65158920



# Interpretation

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## INTERCEPT

- The expected odds of survival for a zero-year-old female passenger in first class are 37.9.
- The expected odds of death for a zero-year-old female passenger in first class are 0.03.

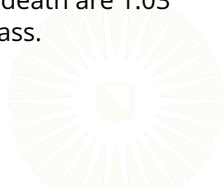


# Interpretation

---

## AGE EFFECT

- For each additional year of age, the expected odds of survival change by a factor of 0.97 times, after controlling for gender and ticket class.
- For any two passengers with a one year age difference, the expected odds of the older passenger surviving are 0.97 times the expected odds of the younger passenger surviving, after controlling for their genders and ticket classes.
- For each additional year of age, the expected odds of death are 1.03 times higher, after controlling for gender and ticket class.



# Interpretation

---

## GENDER EFFECT

- The expected odds of survival for men/boys are 0.08 times the expected odds of survival for women/girls, after controlling for age and ticket class.
- The expected odds of death are 13.31 times higher for men/boys than for women/girls, after controlling for age and ticket class.



# Interpretation

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## CLASS EFFECT

- The expected odds of survival for passengers in second class are 0.3 times the expected odds of survival for passengers in first class, after controlling for gender and age.
- The expected odds of death are 3.32 times higher for passengers in second class than for passengers in first class, after controlling for gender and age.
- The expected odds of survival for passengers in third class are 0.09 times the expected odds of survival for passengers in first class, after controlling for gender and age.
- The expected odds of death are 11.65 times higher for passengers in third class than for passengers in first class, after controlling for gender and age.



# Model Comparison

---

```
## Estimate a restricted model:
```

```
fit0 <- update(fit, ". ~ . - class")
```

```
## Check the result:
```

```
partSummary(fit0, 1:3)
```

Call:

```
glm(formula = survived ~ age + sex, family = "binomial", data = titanic)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
(Intercept)	1.113881	0.208401	5.345	9.05e-08
age	-0.002060	0.005865	-0.351	0.725
sexmale	-2.500001	0.167772	-14.901	< 2e-16

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

# Model Comparison

We don't have an  $R^2$  statistic for logistic regression models, so we need to use a *likelihood ratio test* to compare nested models.

```
anova(fit0, fit, test = "LRT")
```

Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: survived ~ age + sex

Model 2: survived ~ age + sex + class

	Resid. Df	Resid. Dev	Df	Deviance	Pr(>Chi)
1	884	916.00			
2	882	801.59	2	114.41	< 2.2e-16 ***

---

Signif. codes:

0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

# Model Comparison

---

We can also use information criteria.

```
AIC(fit0, fit)
```

	df	AIC
fit0	3	921.9989
fit	5	811.5940

```
BIC(fit0, fit)
```

	df	BIC
fit0	3	936.3624
fit	5	835.5333

# CLASSIfication





# Predictions from Logistic Regression

Given a fitted logistic regression model, we can get predictions for new observations of  $\{X_p\}$ ,  $\{X'_p\}$ .

- Directly applying  $\{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_p\}$  to  $\{X'_p\}$  will produce predictions on the scale of  $\eta$ :

$$\hat{\eta}' = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \hat{\beta}_p X'_p$$

- By applying the inverse link function,  $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ , to  $\hat{\eta}'$ , we get predicted success probabilities:

$$\hat{\pi}' = g^{-1}(\hat{\eta}')$$



# Predictions from Logistic Regression

---

In logistic regression, the inverse link function,  $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ , is the *logistic function*:

$$\text{logistic}(X) = \frac{e^X}{1 + e^X}$$

So, we convert  $\hat{\eta}'$  to  $\hat{\pi}'$  by:

$$\hat{\pi}' = \frac{e^{\hat{\eta}'}}{1 + e^{\hat{\eta}'}} = \frac{\exp\left(\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \hat{\beta}_p X'_p\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \hat{\beta}_p X'_p\right)}$$



# Classification with Logistic Regression

---

Once we have computed the predicted success probabilities,  $\hat{\pi}'$ , we can use them to classify new observations.

- By choosing a threshold on  $\hat{\pi}'$ , say  $\hat{\pi}' = t$ , we can classify the new observations as "Successes" or "Failures":

$$\hat{Y}' = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\pi}' \geq t \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{\pi}' < t \end{cases}$$



# Classification Example

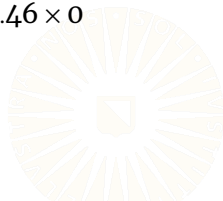
---

Say we want to classify a hypothetical passenger as either having died or survived the sinking.

- Assume this passenger has the following characteristics:
  - They are 17 years old
  - They are male
  - They are a second class passenger

First we plug their predictor data into the fitted model to get their model-implied  $\eta$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\eta}_{died} &= -3.63 + 0.03 \times 17 + 2.59 \times 1 + 1.2 \times 1 + 2.46 \times 0 \\ &= 0.736\end{aligned}$$



# Classification Example

---

Next we convert the predicted  $\eta$  value into a model-implied success probability by applying the logistic function:

$$\frac{e^{0.736}}{1 + e^{0.736}} = 0.676$$

Finally, to make the classification, assume a threshold of  $\hat{\pi}' = 0.5$  as the decision boundary.

- Because  $0.676 > 0.5$  we would classify this passenger as having died.

