Lecture 7 Logistic Regression I

Inference

ECE 625: Data Analysis and Knowledge Discovery

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Introduction

Introduction

Logistic Regression

Inference

Summary and Remark

Inference

Regression is for quantitative response

Qualitative Response

For classification

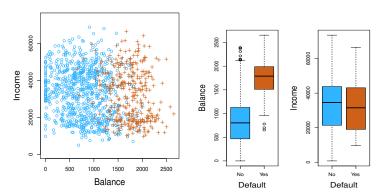
► There are many qualitative response taking values in an unordered set C such as

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eye color \in {brown; blue; green}.
```

- ▶ Given a feature vector X and a qualitative response Y taking values in the set C, the classification task is to build a function C(X) (learn a rule) that takes as input the feature vector X and predicts its value for Y; i.e. $C(X) \in C$.
- Often we are more interested in estimating the probabilities that X belongs to each category in C.
- For example, it is more valuable to have an estimate of the probability that an insurance claim is fraudulent, than a classification fraudulent or not.



Cedit Card Default



Individuals who defaulted in a given month in orange, and did not in blue.

Linear Regression Model

Suppose for the Default classification task that we code

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if Yes} \\ 0 & \text{if No} \end{cases}.$$

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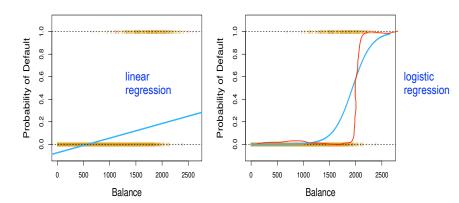
Can we simply perform a linear regression of Y on X and classify as Yes if $\hat{Y} > 0.5$?

- ► In this case of a binary outcome, linear regression does a good job as a classifier, and is equivalent to linear discriminant analysis which we discuss later.
- Since in the population E(Y|X=x) = Pr(Y=1|X=x), we might think that regression is perfect for this task.
- ► However, linear regression might produce probabilities less than zero or bigger than one. Logistic regression is more appropriate.

February 2, 2021

6/13

Credit data example



The orange marks indicate the response Y, either 0 or 1. Linear regression does not estimate Pr(Y = 1|X) well. Logistic regression seems well suited to the task.

Logistic Regression

$$1-p(X) = Pr(Y=0|X)$$

▶ Denote p(X) = Pr(Y = 1|X) consider using balance to predict default. Logistic regression uses the form

$$\Pr(ext{Y=1|X}) = p(X) = rac{oldsymbol{arrho_0 + eta_1 X}}{1 + e^{eta_0 + eta_1 X}}$$
 . We have a linear model here

- It is easy to see that no matter what values β_0 , β_1 or X take, p(X) will have values between 0 and 1.
- ► A bit of rearrangement gives

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

This monotone transformation is called the \log odds or \log transformation of p(X).



Training samples: (x1, 0), (x2, 1), (x3, 1), (x4, 0), ... likelihood under (beta0, beta1): (1-p(x1)) p(x2) p(x3) (1-p(x4))...

Estimation

▶ We use maximum likelihood to estimate the parameters.

$$l(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \prod_{i: y_i = 1} p(x_i) \prod_{i: y_i = 0} (1 - p(x_i)).$$

This likelihood gives the probability of the observed zeros and ones in the data. We pick β_0 and β_1 to maximize the likelihood of the observed data. Let $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1)^T$. The log-likelihood is training samples

$$\log \ell(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ y_i \log p(x_i; \beta) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p(x_i; \beta)) \right\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ y_i \beta^\mathsf{T} x_i - \log(1 + e^{\beta^\mathsf{T} x_i}) \right\}$$

which is concave. Setting the derivative to zero, we get

$$\partial \ell(\beta)/\partial \beta = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i (y_i - p(x_i; \beta)) = 0.$$

Estimation

- Can use Newton's Method to solve for the roots in the above nonlinear equations. or use hill climbing
- Most statistical packages can fit linear logistic regression models by maximum likelihood.
- In R we use the glm function. to do logistic regression response must be 0/1
 > glm.fit=glm(default-balance, data=defaultData, family=binomial)
 > summary(glm.fit) means logistic regression
 Coefficients:

 Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

```
(Intercept) -1.065e+01 3.612e-01 -29.49 <2e-16 ***
balance 5.499e-03 2.204e-04 24.95 <2e-16 ***
```

small p-value will reject null hypothesis: this variable is useful

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Interpretation

- Interpreting what β_1 means is not very easy with logistic regression, simply because we are predicting Pr(Y = 1|X) and 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 so does the probability that Y = 1.
- ▶ If β_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. increase in the middle is always steeper than a linear regression see the figure on page 6



Hypothesis Testing

We still want to perform a hypothesis test to see whether we can be sure that are β_0 and β_1 significantly different from zero.

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- ▶ We use a z test instead of a t test, but of course that doesn't change the way we interpret the *p*-value
- \blacktriangleright Here the p-value for balance is very small, and β_1 is positive, so we are sure that if the balance increase, then the probability of default will increase as well.

```
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -1.065e+01 3.612e-01 -29.49 < 2e-16 ***
balance
           5.499e-03 2.204e-04 24.95 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 ?***? 0.001 ?**? 0.05 ?.? 0.1 ? ? 1
```

Prediction

► What is our estimated probability of default for someone with a balance of 1000?

$$\hat{p}(X) = \frac{e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X}}{1 + e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X}} = \frac{e^{-10.5613 + 0.0055 \times 1000}}{1 + e^{-10.5613 + 0.0055 \times 1000}} = 0.006.$$
 Final classification is 0

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- ► The predicted probability of default for an individual with a balance of \$1000 is less than 1%.
- For a balance of \$2000, the probability is much higher, and equals to 0.586(58.6%).

$$\hat{p}(X) = \frac{e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X}}{1 + e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X}} = \frac{e^{-10.5613 + 0.0055 \times 2000}}{1 + e^{-10.5613 + 0.0055 \times 2000}} = 0.586.$$
 if >0.5, classify to 1

Summary and Remark

- Introduction
- Logistic regression and estimation
- Hypothesis testing and prediction
- Read textbook Chapter 4 and R code
- ► Do R lab

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