# LOGISTIC REGRESSION -APPLIED ANALYTICS-

APM Chapter 12.2, ISLR Chapter 4.3

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# Introductory example

#### AN INTRODUCTORY EXAMPLE

Suppose we work for a credit card company and we wish to identify people that are likely to default on their credit card debt

We have features (for 10,000 people):

- Student status
- Income
- Balance

Along with their default status:

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if person defaults} \\ 0 \text{ if person doesn't default} \end{cases}$$

Let's look at some plots.

### AN INTRODUCTORY EXAMPLE

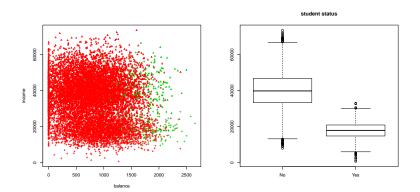
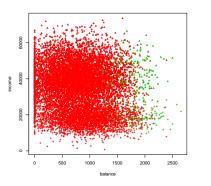
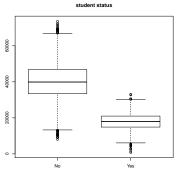


FIGURE: The red are people without defaults, green are defaults. The '+' are students, the ' $\Delta$ ' are not students.

### AN INTRODUCTORY EXAMPLE





#### Some comments:

- Income doesn't seem to be related to defaults
- Student status is also unrelated to defaults, but highly related to income
- Balance seems to strongly predict default status.

# An Introductory Example: Why not Use Regression?

Suppose for a moment we only consider balance. Then, we can run a simple linear regression of default status on balance

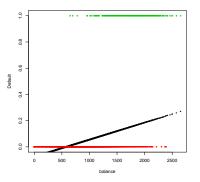
```
Y = rep(0,n)
Y[default == 'Yes'] = 1
out.lm = lm(Y~balance)
summary(out.lm)
```

R will happily do this.

## AN INTRODUCTORY EXAMPLE: WHY NOT

#### Use Regression?

Let's plot our data with the fitted values (black) and the training supervisor (red/green)



Not so great..

# Logistic regression

#### LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Logistic regression is a 'generalized linear model' (GLM)

The generalized means that the nature of the supervisor isn't naturally modeled as normal as it is in multiple linear regression:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_j + \epsilon$$

( $\epsilon$  is modeled as a zero mean, symmetric o the residuals should look similar)

If we model probabilities, then we are doing Logistic regression

#### LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Suppose for now that C=2,  $p_1=p$ , and  $p_2=1-p$  (The number of classes, and the probability that Y equals  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , respectively)

Then logistic regression models the probability as

$$p = \frac{\exp\{\beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_j\}}{1 + \exp\{\beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_j\}}.$$

This gets converted to something that looks like multiple regression via

$$\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_j$$

(This is the logit function)

#### Interpreting the parameters

We can interpret the parameters in either linear model:

• Multiple Linear regression.

$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p x_j \beta_j$$

"A one unit change in  $x_j$  is associated with a  $\beta_j$  change in the mean of Y, holding all other features constant"

• LOGISTIC REGRESSION.  $\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_j$  "A one unit change in  $x_j$  is associated with a  $\beta_j$  change in the log odds that  $Y = C_1$ , holding all other features constant"

or

"A one unit change in  $x_j$  is associated with a multiplicative  $\exp\{\beta_j\}$  change in the odds that  $Y=C_1$ , holding all other features constant"

In either case, a  $\beta_j>0$  denotes a positive relationship and  $\beta_j<0$  a negative one

#### ESTIMATION FOR LOGISTIC REGRESSION

With multiple regression, there is a closed form solution:

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbb{X}^{\top}\mathbb{X})^{-1}\mathbb{X}^{\top}Y$$

This was due to estimation via least squares

(This is also the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) under  $\epsilon$  being normally distributed)

To find the estimator  $\hat{\beta}$  for logistic regression, we have to use an iterative maximization technique

Let's begin to look at the output:

#### ESTIMATING LOGISTIC REGRESSION

```
out.glm = glm(default~balance,family='binomial')
> summary(out.glm)
Call:
glm(formula = default ~ balance, family = "binomial")
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-2.2697 -0.1465 -0.0589 -0.0221 3.7589
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 ***
. . .
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 8
```

### PREDICTIONS: PROBABILITY ESTIMATES

Once we have the  $\hat{\beta}$ , we can estimate the probabilities via

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{\exp\{\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{\beta}_j x_j\}}{1 + \exp\{\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{\beta}_j x_j\}}.$$

EXAMPLE: Suppose we want to predict the probability that someone with a balance of \$1,000 defaults

$$\hat{p}(1000) = \frac{\exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 1000\}}{1 + \exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 1000\}} = 0.0058$$

Maybe look at \$2,000 instead:

$$\hat{p}(2000) = \frac{\exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 2000\}}{1 + \exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 2000\}} = 0.586$$

#### PREDICTIONS: CLASSIFICATIONS

We need to turn the estimated probabilities:

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{\exp\{\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \hat{\beta}_j x_j\}}{1 + \exp\{\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \hat{\beta}_j x_j\}}.$$

into classifications

EXAMPLE: Using the threshold of 1/C = 0.5,

$$\hat{p}(1000) = \frac{\exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 1000\}}{1 + \exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 1000\}} = 0.0058$$

Thus, a balance of \$1000 would be classified as no default

Maybe look at \$2000 instead:

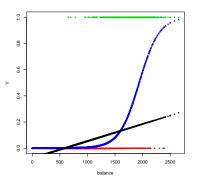
$$\hat{p}(2000) = \frac{\exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 2000\}}{1 + \exp\{-10.65 + 0.0055 * 2000\}} = 0.586.$$

A balance of \$2000 would be classified as default

#### A COMPARISON

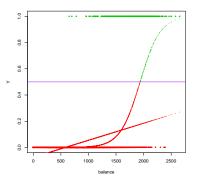
Let's plot our data with

- Simple Linear Regression (black)
- Logistic regression (blue)



#### A COMPARISON

#### Results of using a cut-off of 0.5



# Judging Model Performance

#### USING CARET

Let's get a training/test split as well, resulting in Xtrain, Xtest, Ytrain, and Ytest

 $\big( \mathsf{Use}\ \mathsf{createDataPartition} \big)$ 

#### GETTING PREDICTIONS

```
YhatTestProb = predict(outLogistic, Xtest, type = 'prob')
> head(YhatTestProb)
           Yes
                      No
1 0.0005292166 0.9994708
2 0.0025568958 0.9974431
3 0.0023380867 0.9976619
4 0.0205685913 0.9794314
5 0.0001117464 0.9998883
6 0.0007992407 0.9992008
YhatTest = predict(outLogistic, Xtest, type = 'raw')
> head(YhatTest)
[1] No No No No No No
Levels: Yes No
```

#### Well Calibrated Probabilities

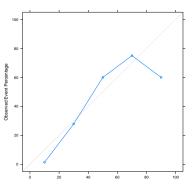
QUESTION: What is a calibration plot? What are well-calibrated probabilities?

#### Well Calibrated Probabilities

QUESTION: What is a calibration plot? What are well-calibrated probabilities?

```
calibProbs = calibration(Ytest~YhatTestProb$Yes, cuts = 5)
which(YhatTestProb$Yes > .8)
[1] 987 1004 1216 1735 2059
Ytest[which(YhatTestProb$Yes > .8)]
[1] Yes No No Yes Yes
```

#### Well Calibrated Probabilities



```
Ytest[which(YhatTestProb$Yes > .8)]
[1] Yes No No Yes Yes
```

These probability estimates are overall well calibrated

Rare 'Yes' events make the upper probability range unreliable

#### CONFUSION MATRICES

#### Using caret, we can report a lot of output

Accuracy : 0.9716

• • •

Kappa : 0.3911

. . .

Sensitivity: 0.289157 Specificity: 0.995033

. . .

'Positive' Class : Yes

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#### Adjusting the threshold

The caret package only allows us to use the 1/C threshold:

```
YhatTest = predict(outLogistic, Xtest, type = 'raw')
```

We can generate classifications out of the  $\hat{p}$  with a different threshold:

The relevel command is needed to keep the levels consistent

```
> levels(Ytest)
[1] "Yes" "No"
> levels(YhatTestThresh)
[1] "Yes" "No"
```

QUESTION: Do you expect sensitivity to go up or down?

#### CONFUSION MATRICES

```
For the threshold 0.2, we get:
```

Accuracy: 0.9628

• • •

Kappa : 0.4992

. . .

Sensitivity: 0.60241 Specificity: 0.97517

. . .

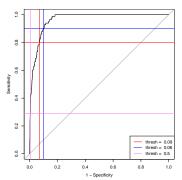
'Positive' Class : Yes

#### ROC CURVE

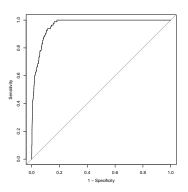
We can scan over all the available thresholds with the ROC curve

```
> levels(Ytest)
[1] "Yes" "No"
```

rocCurve = roc(relevel(Ytest,'No'), YhatTestProb\$Yes)



### AUC



The area under the curve (AUC) for this classifier is a one number summary of the ROC curve:

#### > rocCurve\$auc

#### [1] 0.952



This would be considered a very good AUC score