Contents

1	Log	ristic Regression
	1.1	The purpose of logistic regression
	1.2	Use of Binomial Probability Theory
	1.3	Variable Selection
	1.4	Assumptions of logistic regression
	1.5	Odds and Odds Ratio
	1.6	The Sigmoid Graph
		1.6.1 Hypothetical Example
		1.6.2 Log transformation
	1.7	Exercise Data Set

1 Logistic Regression

Logistic regression determines the impact of multiple independent variables presented simultaneously to predict membership of one or other of the two dependent variable categories.

1.1 The purpose of logistic regression

The crucial limitation of linear regression is that it cannot deal with Dependent Variabless that are *dichotomous* and categorical. Many interesting variables in the business world are dichotomous: for example, consumers make a decision to buy or not buy (*Buy/Don't Buy*), a product may pass or fail quality control (*Pass/Fail*), there are good or poor credit risks (*Good/Poor*), an employee may be promoted or not (*Promote/Don't Promote*).

A range of regression techniques have been developed for analysing data with categorical dependent variables, including logistic regression and discriminant analysis (Hence referred to as DA, which is the next section of course).

Logistical regression is regularly used rather than discriminant analysis when there are only two categories for the dependent variable. Logistic regression is also easier to use with SPSS than DA when there is a mixture of numerical and categorical Independent Variabless, because it includes procedures for generating the necessary dummy variables automatically, requires fewer assumptions, and is more statistically robust. DA strictly requires the continuous independent variables (though dummy variables can be used as in multiple regression). Thus, in instances where the independent variables are categorical, or a mix of continuous and categorical, and the DV is categorical, logistic regression is necessary.

1.2 Use of Binomial Probability Theory

Since the dependent variable is dichotomous we cannot predict a numerical value for it using logistic regression, so the usual regression least squares deviations criteria for best fit approach of minimizing error around the line of best fit is inappropriate.

Instead, logistic regression employs binomial probability theory in which there are only two values to predict: that probability (p) is 1 rather than 0, i.e. the event/person belongs to one group rather than the other. Logistic regression forms a best fitting equation or function using the maximum likelihood method (not part of course), which maximizes the probability of classifying the observed data into the appropriate category given the regression coefficients.

1.3 Variable Selection

Like ordinary regression, logistic regression provides a coefficient \mathbf{b} estimates, which measures each IVs partial contribution to variations in the response variables. The goal is to correctly predict the category of outcome for individual cases using the most parsimonious model.

To accomplish this goal, a model (i.e. an equation) is created that includes all predictor variables that are useful in predicting the response variable. Variables can, if necessary, be entered into the model in the order specified by the researcher in a stepwise fashion like regression.

There are two main uses of logistic regression:

• The first is the prediction of group membership. Since logistic regression calculates the probability of success over the probability of failure, the results of the analysis are in the form of an **odds ratio**.

• Logistic regression also provides knowledge of the relationships and strengths among the variables (e.g. playing golf with the boss puts you at a higher probability for job promotion than undertaking five hours unpaid overtime each week).

1.4 Assumptions of logistic regression

- Logistic regression does not assume a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables.
- The dependent variable must be a dichotomy (2 categories). (Remark: Dichotomous refers to two outcomes. Multichotomous refers to more than two outcomes).
- The independent variables need not be interval, nor normally distributed, nor linearly related, nor of equal variance within each group.
- The categories (groups) must be mutually exclusive and exhaustive; a case can only be in one group and every case must be a member of one of the groups.
- Larger samples are needed than for linear regression because maximum likelihood coefficients are large sample estimates. A minimum of 50 cases per predictor is recommended.

1.5 Odds and Odds Ratio

Logistic regression calculates changes in the log odds of the dependent, not changes in the dependent value as OLS regression does. For a dichotomous variable the odds of membership of the target group are equal to the probability of membership in the target group divided by the probability of membership in the other group. Odds value can range from 0 to infinity and tell you how much more likely it is that an observation is a member of the target group rather than a member of the other group. If the probability is 0.80, the odds are 4 to 1 or 0.80/0.20; if the probability is 0.25, the odds are .33 (0.25/0.75).

If the probability of membership in the target group is 0.50, the odds are 1 to 1 (0.50/0.50), as in coin tossing when both outcomes are equally likely.

Another important concept is the odds ratio (OR), which estimates the change in the odds of membership in the target group for a one unit increase in the predictor. It is calculated by using the regression coefficient of the predictor as the exponent. Suppose we were predicting exam success by a maths competency predictor with an estimate b = 2.69. Thus the odds ratio is $\exp(2.69)$ or 14.73. Therefore the odds of passing are 14.73 times greater for a student, for example, who had a pre-test score of 5, than for a student whose pre-test score was 4.

1.6 The Sigmoid Graph

While logistic regression gives each predictor (IV) a coefficient \mathbf{b} which measures its independent contribution to variations in the dependent variable, the dependent variable can only take on one of the two values: 0 or 1.

What we want to predict from a knowledge of relevant independent variables and coefficients is therefore not a numerical value of a dependent variable as in linear regression, but rather the probability (p) that it is 1 rather than 0 (belonging to one group rather than the other). But even to use probability as the dependent variable is unsound, mainly because numerical

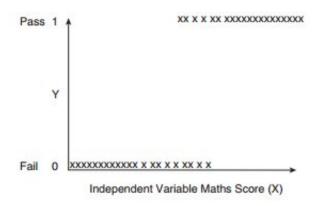


Figure 1: Accountancy Exam Results

predictors may be unlimited in range. If we expressed p as a linear function of investment, we might then find ourselves predicting that p is greater than 1 (which cannot be true, as probabilities can only take values between 0 and 1). Additionally, because logistic regression has only two y values in the category or not in the category a straight line best fit (as in linear regression) is not possible to draw.

1.6.1 Hypothetical Example

Consider the following hypothetical example: 200 accountancy first year students are graded on a pass-fail dichotomy on the end of the semester accountancy exam. At the start of the course, they all took a maths pre-test with results reported in interval data ranging from 050 the higher the pretest score the more competency in maths. Logistic regression is applied to determine the relationship between maths pretest score (IV or predictor) and whether a student passed the course (DV). Students who passed the accountancy course are coded 1 while those who failed are coded 0.

We can see from Figure 1 of the plotted xs that there is somewhat greater likelihood that those who obtained above average to high score on the maths test passed the accountancy course, while below average to low scorers tended to fail. There is also an overlap in the middle area. But if we tried to draw a straight (best fitting) line, as with linear regression, it just would not work, as intersections of the maths results and pass/fail accountancy results form two lines of xs, as in Figure 1.

The solution is to convert or transform these results into probabilities. We might compute the average of the Y values at each point on the X axis. We could then plot the probabilities of Y at each value of X and it would look something like the wavy graph line superimposed on the original data in Figure 2. This is a smoother curve, and it is easy to see that the probability of passing the accountancy course (Y axis) increases as values of X increase. What we have just done is transform the scores so that the curve now fits a cumulative probability curve, i.e. adding each new probability to the existing total. As you can see, this curve is not a straight line; it is more of an s-shaped curve (A sigmoid curve).

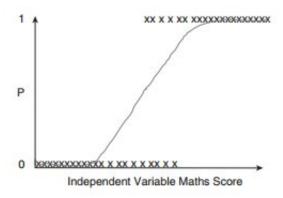


Figure 2: Accountancy Exam Results - Fitted Curve

Predicted values are interpreted as probabilities and are now not just two conditions with a value of either 0 or 1 but continuous data that can take any value from 0 to 1. The slope of the curve in Figure 2 is low at the lower and upper extremes of the independent variable and greatest in the middle where it is most sensitive. In the middle, of course, are a number of cases that are out of order, in the sense that there is an overlap with average maths scores in both accountancy pass and fail categories, while at the extremes are cases which are almost universally allocated to their correct group. The outcome is not a prediction of a Y value, as in linear regression, but a probability of belonging to one of two conditions of Y, which can take on any value between 0 and 1 rather than just 0 and 1 in Figure 1.

1.6.2 Log transformation

Unfortunately a further mathematical transformation a log transformation is needed to normalize the distribution. Transformations, such as log transformations and square root transformations transform non-normal/skewed distributions closer to normality.

This log transformation of the p values to a log distribution enables us to create a link with the normal regression equation. The log distribution (or logistic transformation of p) is also called the logit of p or logit(p).

1.7 Exercise Data Set

The exercise data set comes from a survey of home owners conducted by an electricity company about an offer of roof solar panels with a 50% subsidy from the state government as part of the states environmental policy. The variables involve household income measured in units of a thousand dollars, age, monthly mortgage, size of family household, and as the dependent variable, whether the householder would take or decline the offer. The purpose of the exercise is to conduct a logistic regression to determine whether family size and monthly mortgage will predict taking or declining the offer.

For the first demonstration, we will use 'family size and 'mortgage only. For the options, select Classification Plots, Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness Of Fit, Casewise Listing Of Residuals and select Outliers Outside 2sd. Retain default entries for probability of stepwise, classification cutoff and maximum iterations.

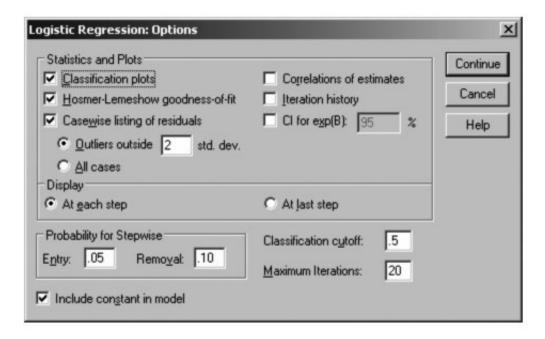


Figure 3: Selected Options for Exercises

We are not using any categorical variables this time. If there are categorical variables, use the *categorical* option. For most situations, choose the indicator coding scheme (it is the default).