

计算机数学建模

第七讲 统计回归模型(1)

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数学建模的基本方法

机理分析

测试分析

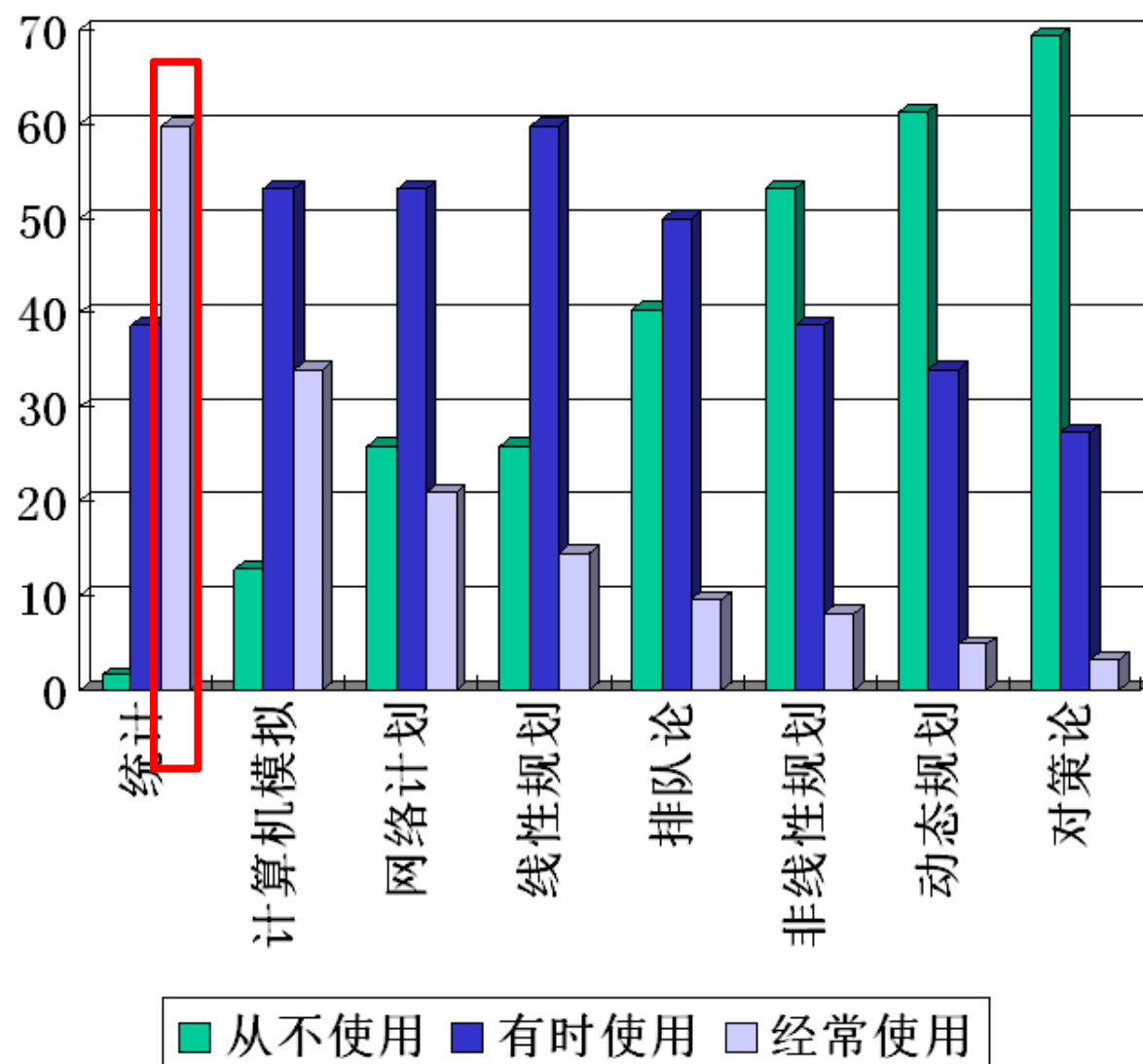
由于客观事物内部规律的复杂及人们认识程度的限制，无法分析实际对象内在的因果关系，建立合乎机理规律的数学模型。

通过对数据的统计分析，找出与数据拟合最好的模型

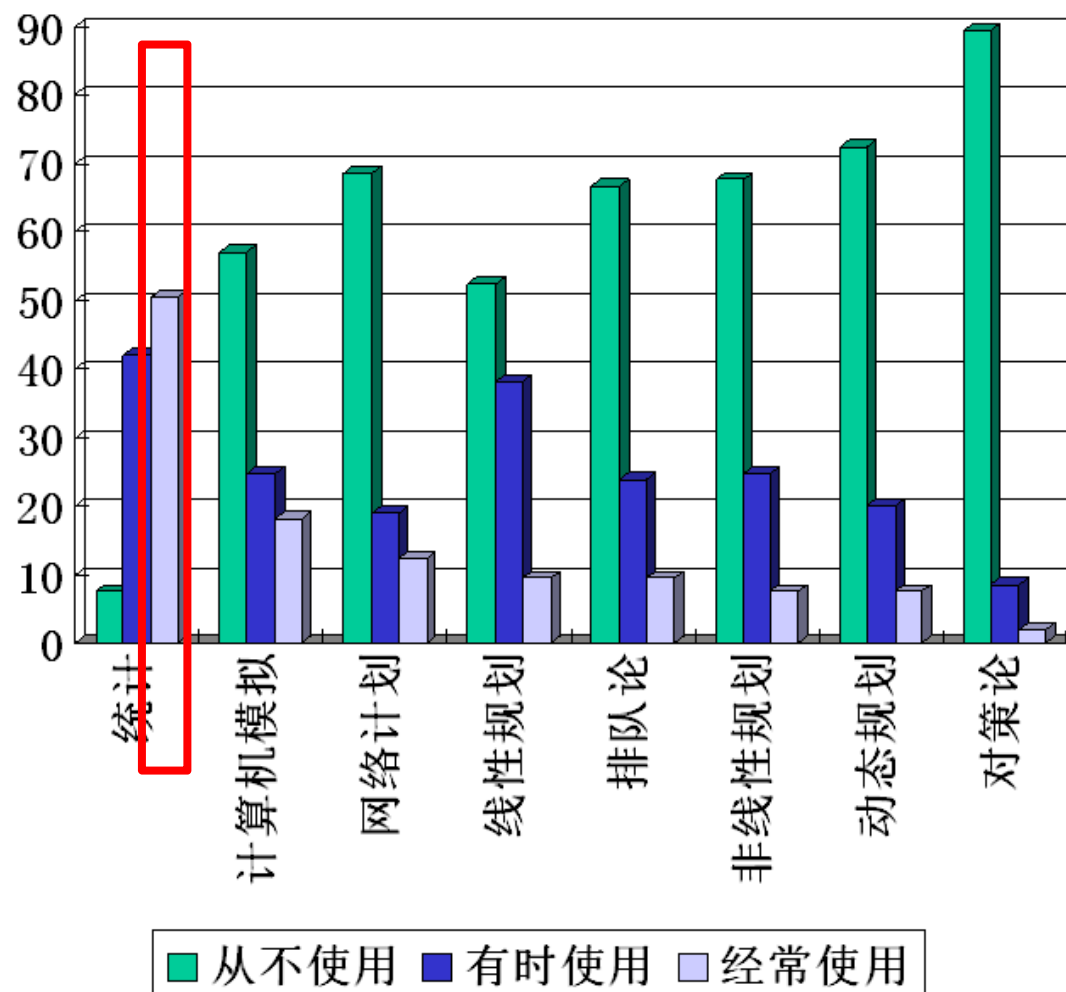
回归模型是用统计分析方法建立的最常用的一类模型

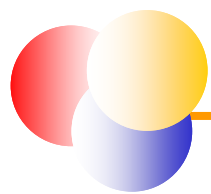
- 只简单涉及回归分析的数学原理和方法
- 通过实例讨论如何选择不同类型的模型
- 对软件得到的结果进行分析，对模型进行改进

运筹学方法使用情况(美1983) (%)



运筹学方法在中国使用情况(随机抽样) (%)





课程内容

1. 数学概念与模型
2. 实际案例与分析
3. 计算机典型应用



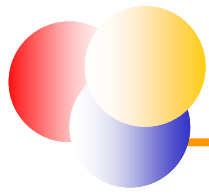
1. 数学概念与模型

① 描述性统计

② 线性回归

③ Logistic回归





描述性统计: Location

1. Mean

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

2. Median

$$Md = \begin{cases} X_{(\frac{n+1}{2})} & , n \in odd \\ \frac{1}{2} [X_{(\frac{n}{2})} + X_{(\frac{n}{2}+1)}] & , n \in even \end{cases}$$

3. Mode

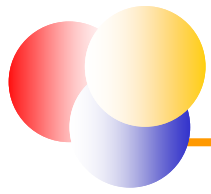
Example:

Observations : (1, 11, 10, 2, 7, 5)

Mean : $(1+11+10+2+7+5)/6 = 6$

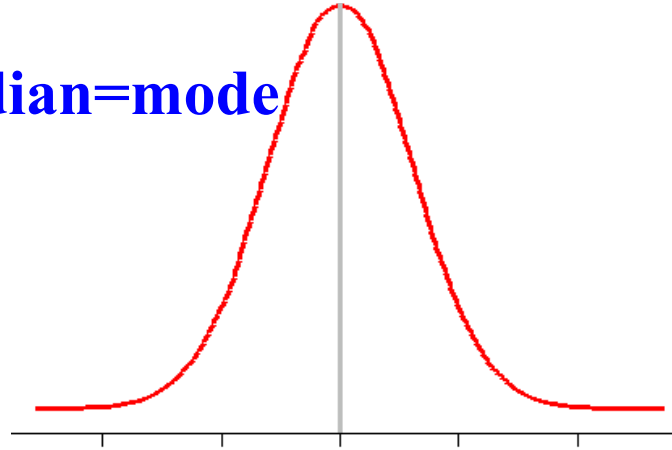
Median : $(X_{(3)} + X_{(4)})/2 = (5+7)/2 = 6$



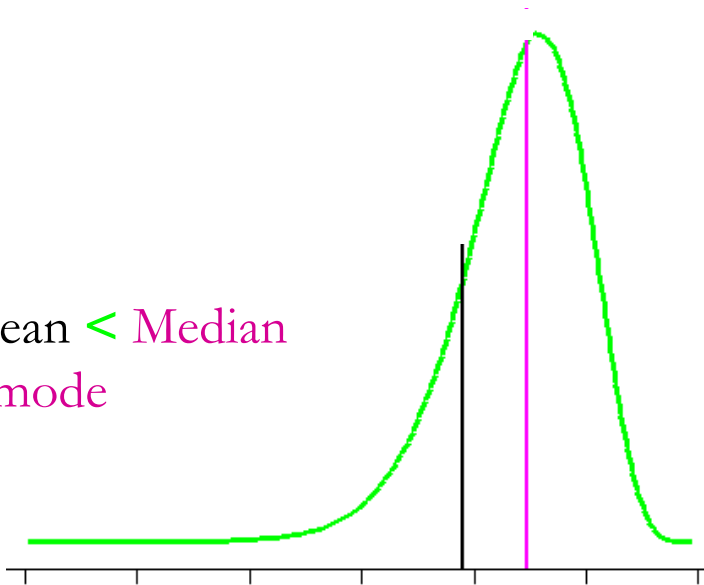


描述性统计: Mean v.s. Median

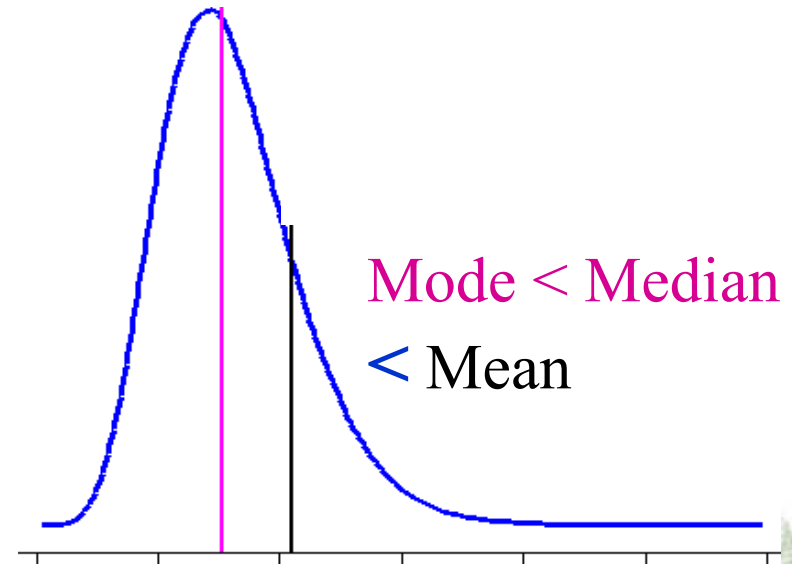
Mean = Median = mode

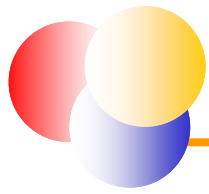


Mean < Median
< mode



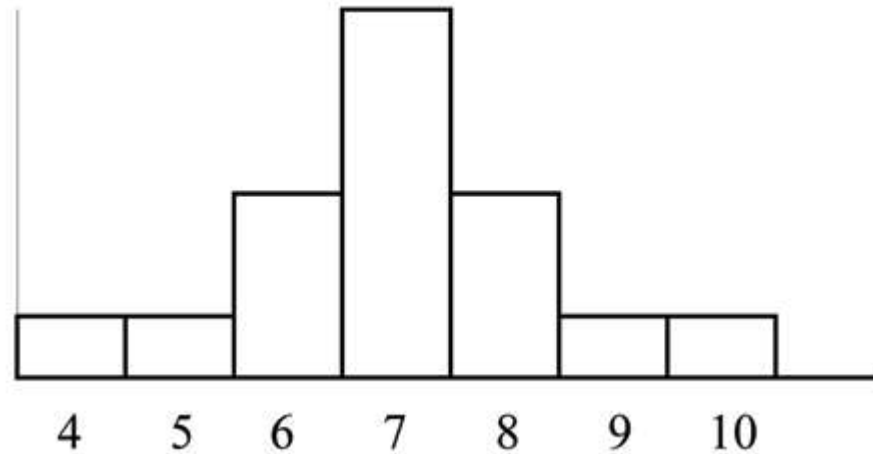
Mode < Median
< Mean





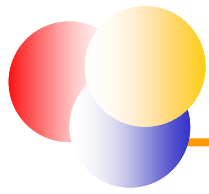
描述性统计: Mean v.s. Median

4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 6 ; 6 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 8 ; 8 ; 8 ; 9 ; 10



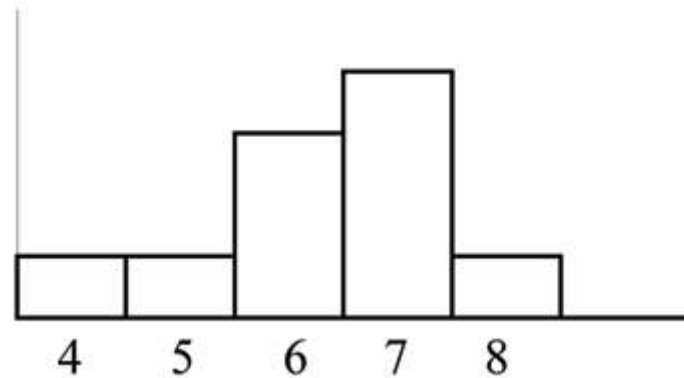
Mean = Median = Mode = 7





描述性统计: Mean v.s. Median

4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 6 ; 6 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 8

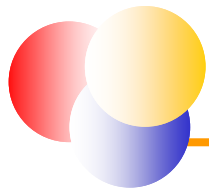


Mean = 6.3

Median = 6.5

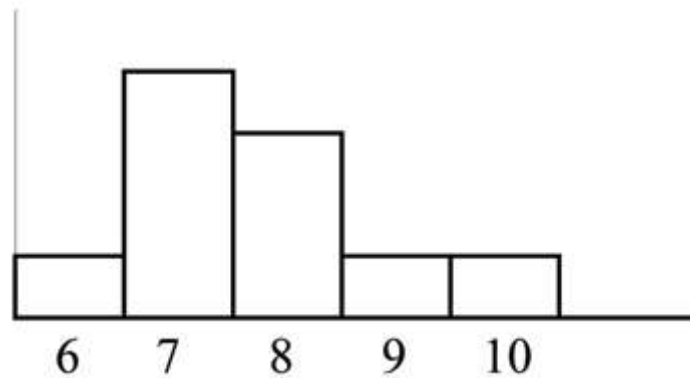
Mode = 7





描述性统计: Mean v.s. Median

6 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 7 ; 8 ; 8 ; 8 ; 9 ; 10

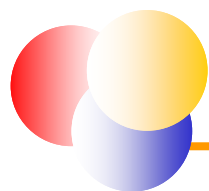


Mean = 7.7

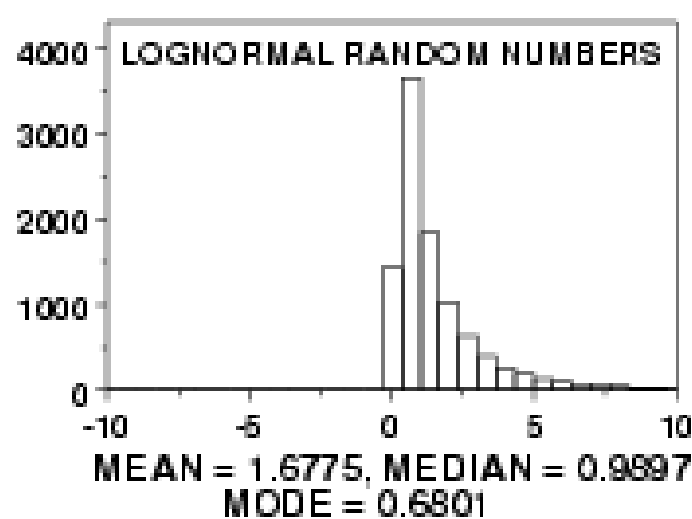
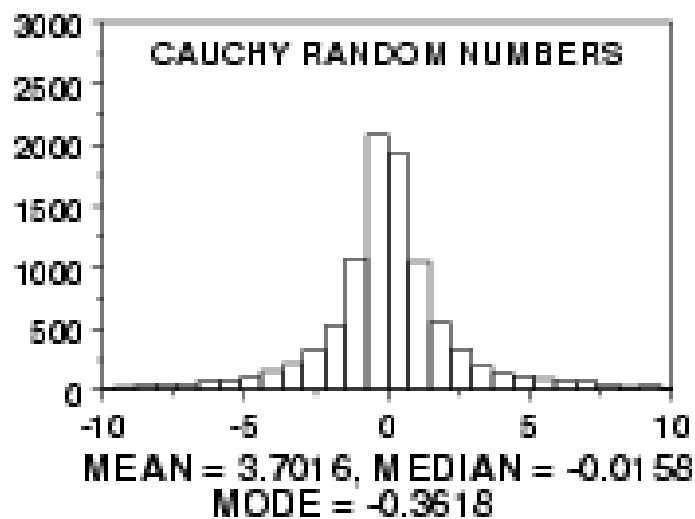
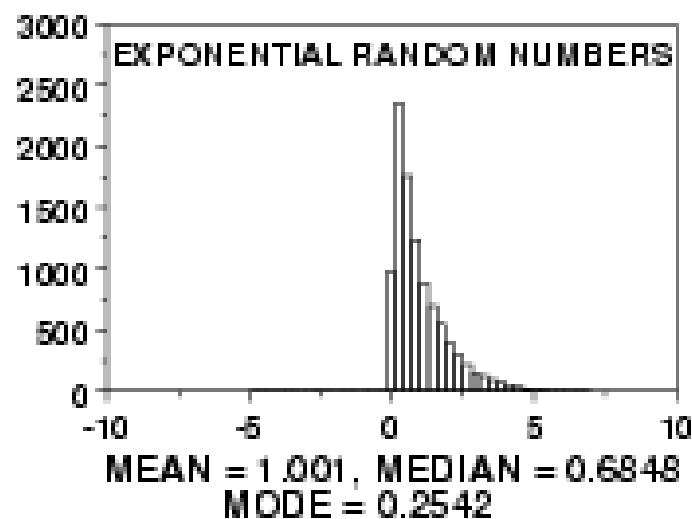
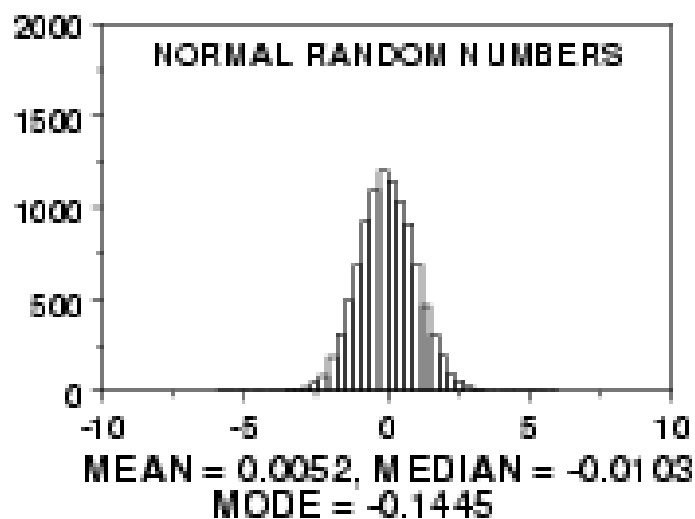
Median = 7.5

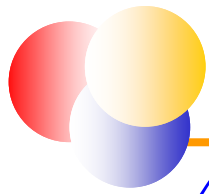
Mode = 7





描述性统计: Mean v.s. Median





描述性统计: Location (cont'd)

4. k-th Percentile

$$P_k = \begin{cases} X_{([i]+1)} & , i \notin Z \\ \frac{1}{2}[X_{(i)} + X_{(i+1)}] & , i \in Z \end{cases} \quad \text{where } i = \frac{k}{100}n$$

Example:

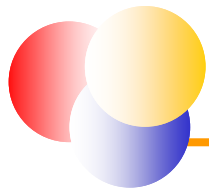
Observations : (1, 11, 10, 2, 7, 5)

Order statistics : (1, 2, 5, 7, 10, 11)

$$P_{25} = X_{(1+1)} = X_{(2)} = 2, \quad i = \frac{25}{100}6 = 1.5$$

$$P_{50} = \frac{1}{2}[X_{(3)} + X_{(4)}] = \frac{1}{2}[5 + 7] = 6, \quad i = \frac{50}{100}6 = 3$$

$$P_{75} = X_{(4+1)} = X_{(5)} = 10, \quad i = \frac{75}{100}6 = 4.5$$



描述性统计: Location (cont'd)

Remarks:

1⁰. $P_{50} = \text{Md}$ (median)

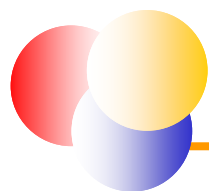
2⁰. Quartile: 3 cut points

$Q_1 = P_{25}$ (25th-percentile),

$Q_2 = \text{Md (Median)} = P_{50}$ (50th-percentile),

$Q_3 = P_{75}$ (75th-percentile)

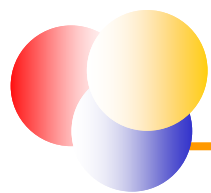




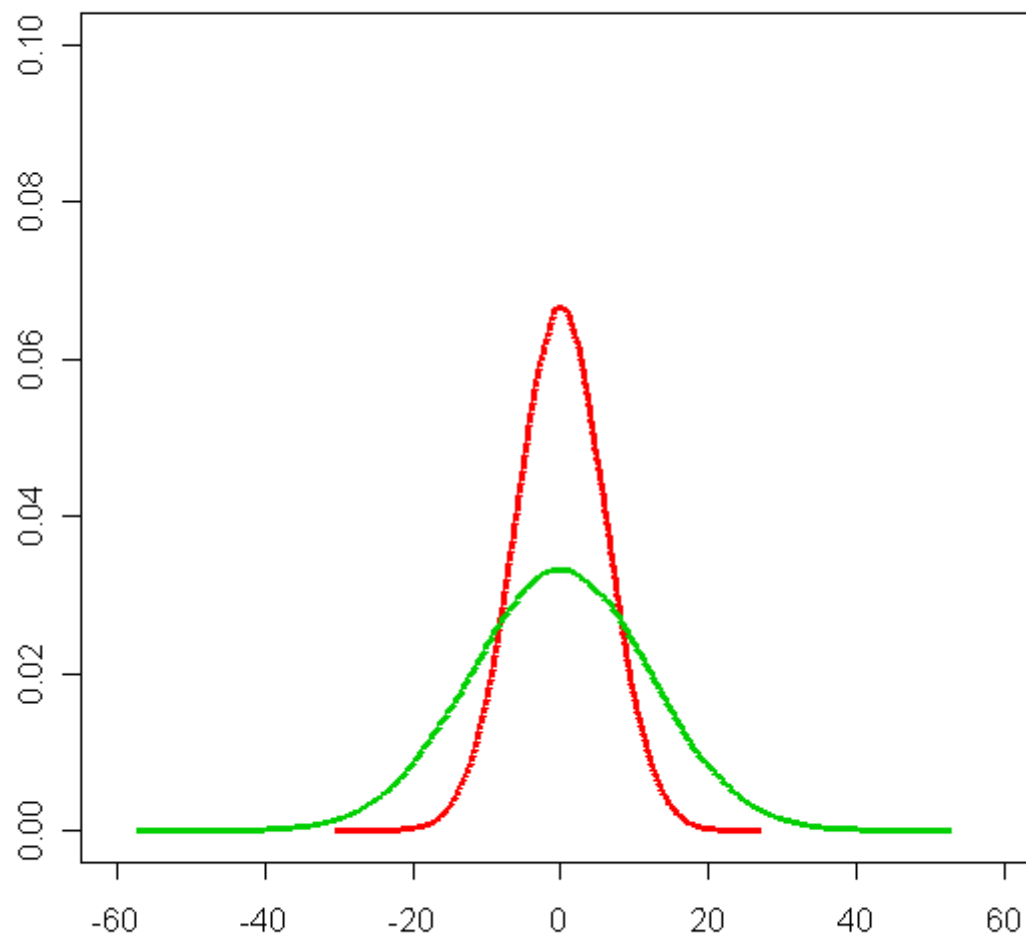
描述性统计: Location (cont'd)

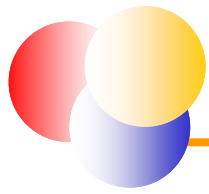
Order	Value	Boundary
1	27.75	
2	37.35	
3	38.35	
4	38.35	
5	38.75	
Second Quartile		39.250
6	39.75	
7	40.50	
8	41.00	
9	41.15	
10	42.55	
Third Quartile		42.725
11	42.90	
12	43.60	
13	43.85	
14	47.30	
15	47.90	
Fourth Quartile		48.025
16	48.15	
17	49.86	
18	51.25	
19	51.50	
20	56.00	
Data Table divided into quartiles		





描述性统计: Dispersion





描述性统计: Dispersion (cont'd)

1. **Range:** $R = X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$

2. **Interquartile-range:**

$$IQR = Q_3 - Q_1 = P_{75} - P_{25}$$

3. **Quartile deviation:** $Q.D. = IQR/2$

Example:

Observations : (1, 11, 10, 2, 7, 5)

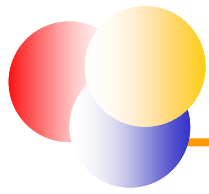
Order statistics : (1, 2, 5, 7, 10, 11)

$$R = X_{(6)} - X_{(1)} = 11 - 1 = 10$$

$$IQR = Q_3 - Q_1 = 10 - 2 = 8$$

$$Q.D. = IQR/2 = 8/2 = 4$$





描述性统计: Dispersion (cont'd)

4. Mean Absolute Deviation

$$MAD = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |X_i - \bar{X}| \quad (\text{统计量}), \quad MAD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |X_i - \mu| \quad (\text{参数})$$

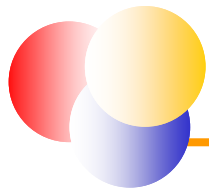
5. Variance

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \quad (\text{统计量}), \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu)^2 \quad (\text{参数})$$

6. Standard Deviation

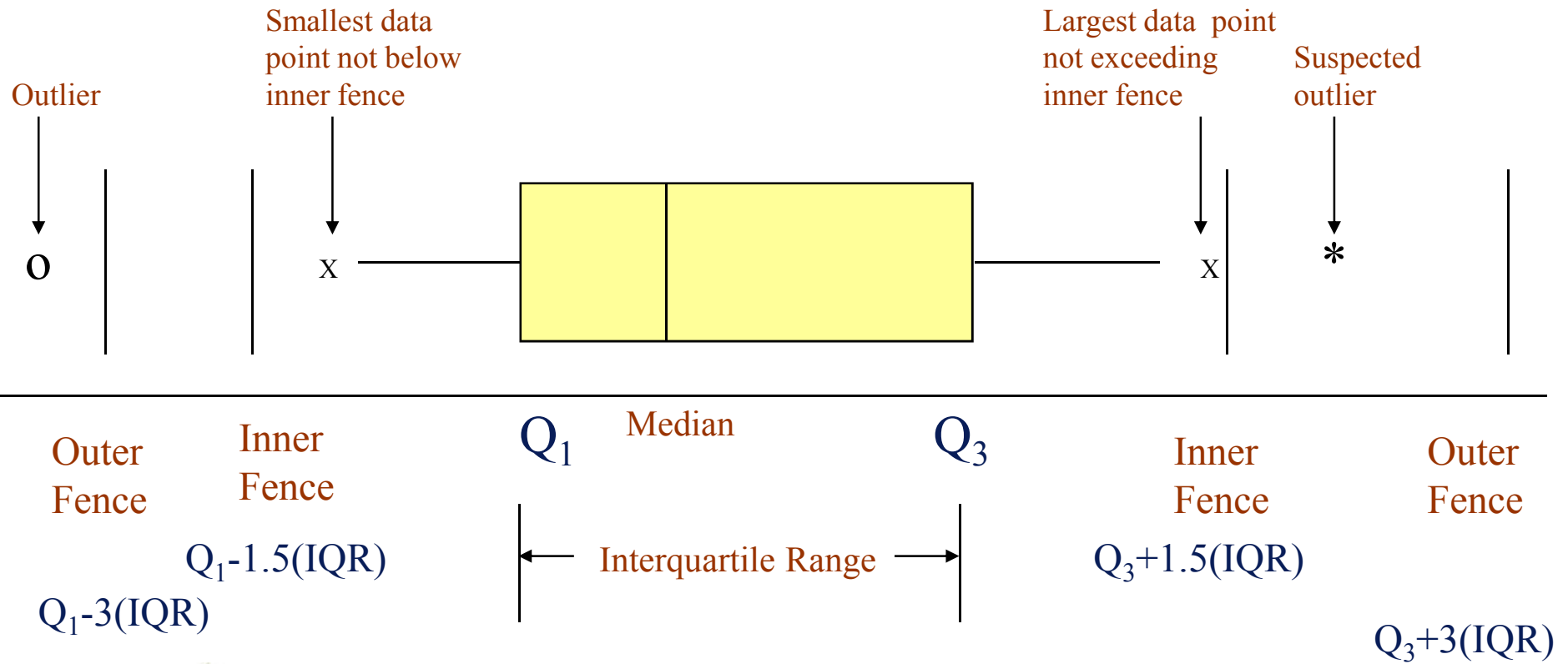
$$S = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - n\bar{X}^2 \right]} \quad (\text{统计量})$$

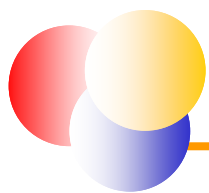
$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i^2 - \mu^2} \quad (\text{参数})$$



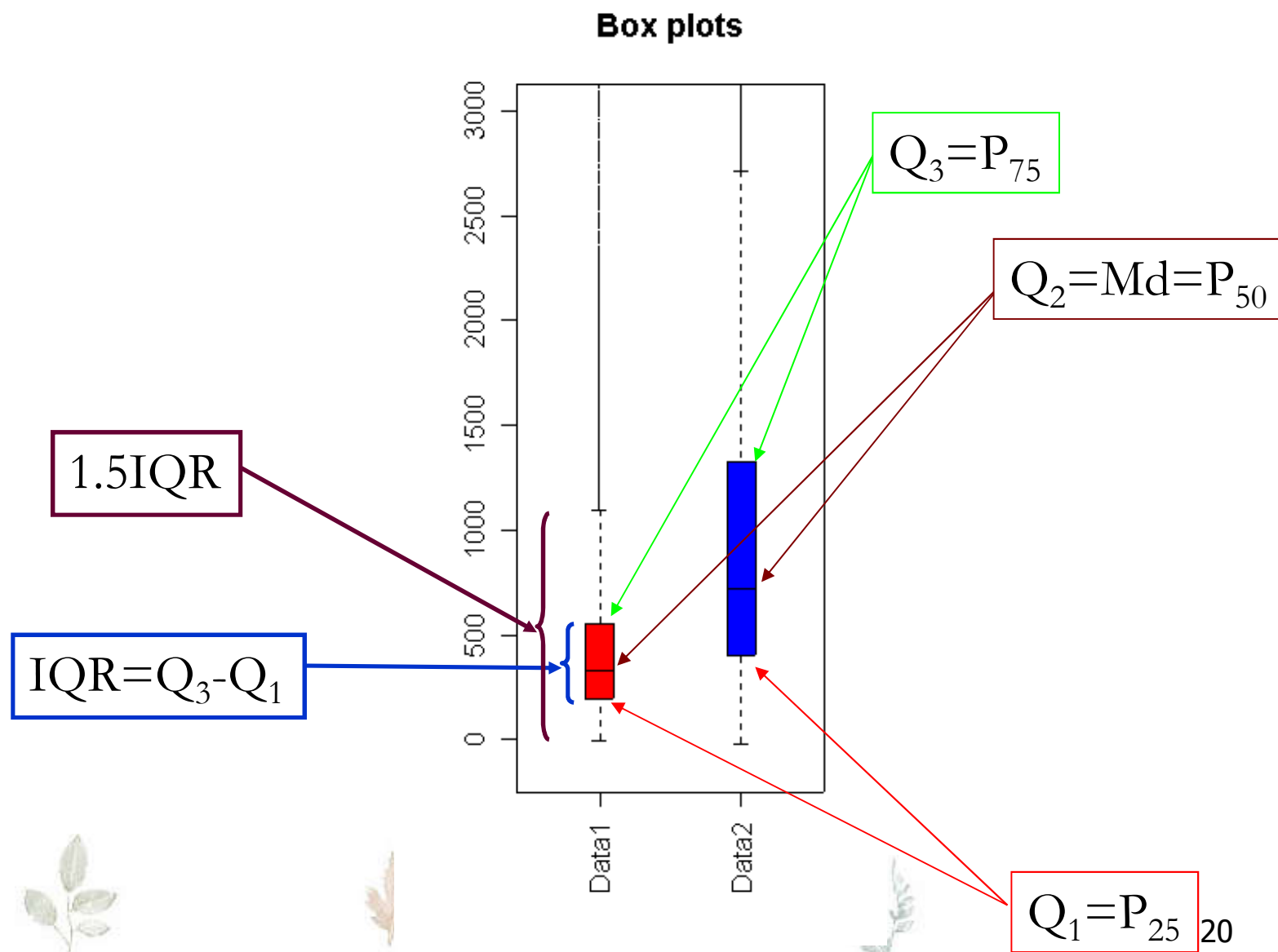
描述性统计: Box plot

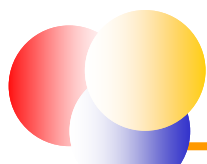
Elements of a Box Plot



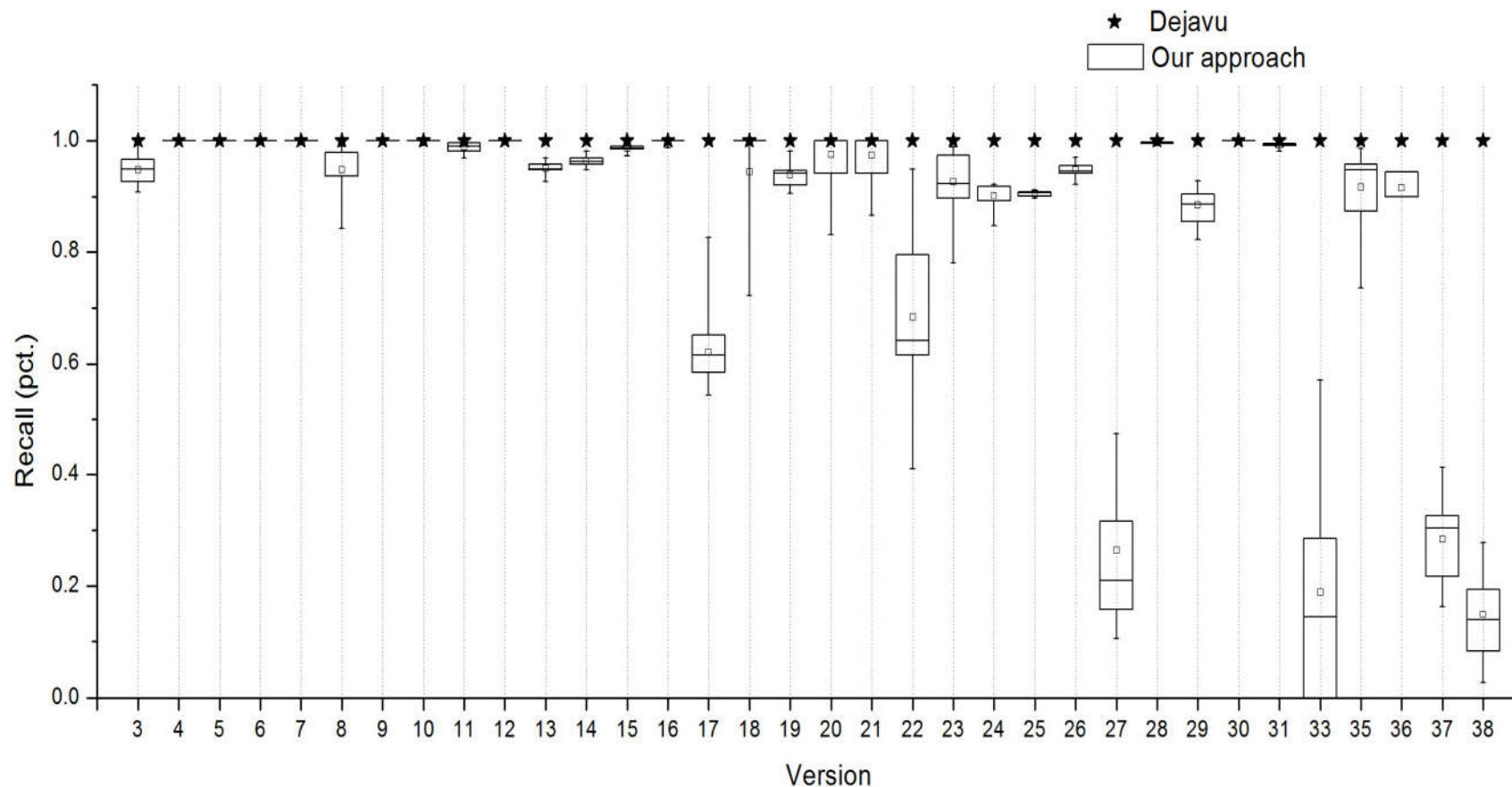


描述性统计: Box plot

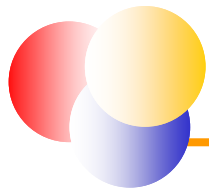




描述性统计: Box plot



Comparison of recall between our approach when FR=0.3 and Dejavu



描述性统计: Skewness and Kurtosis

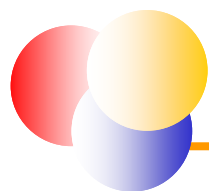
1. **Skewness**: a measure of symmetry, or more precisely, the lack of symmetry

$$skewness = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^3}{(n-1)S^3}$$

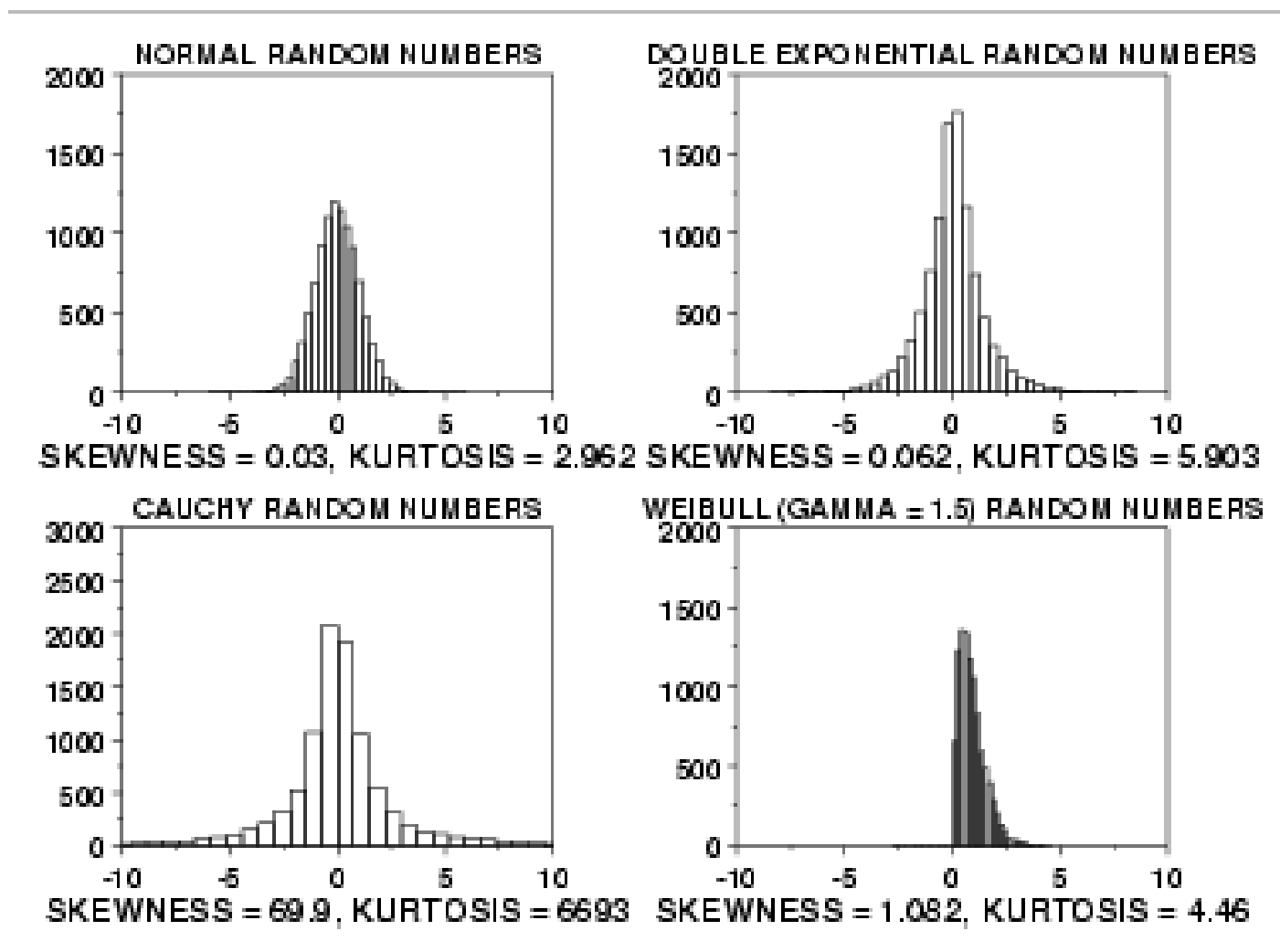
2. **Kurtosis**: a measure of whether the data are peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution

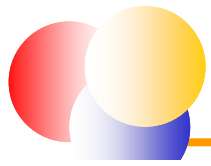
$$kurtosis = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^4}{(n-1)S^4} - 3$$



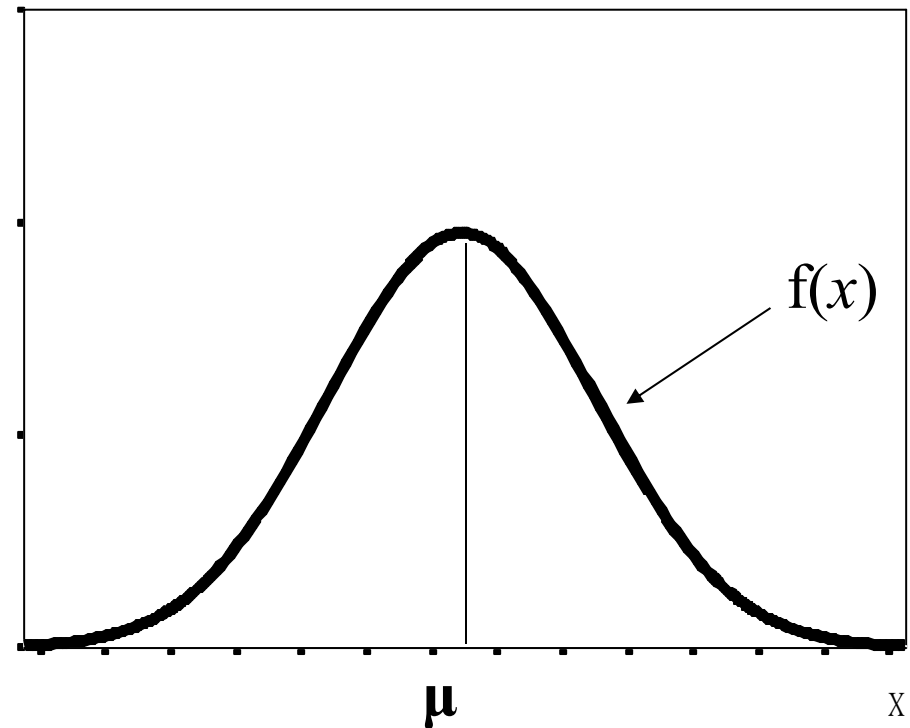
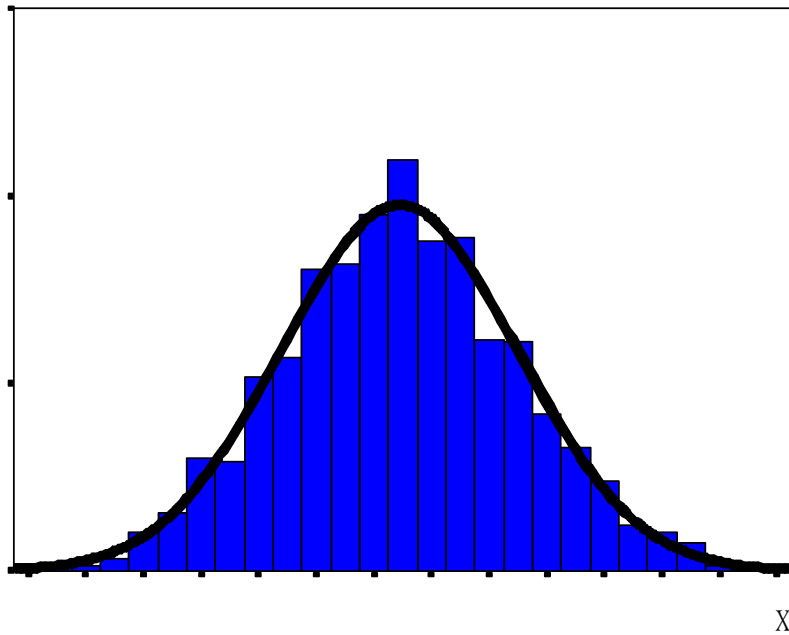


描述性统计: Skewness and Kurtosis





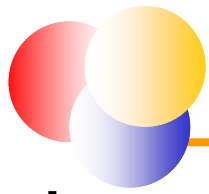
描述性统计: Normal distribution



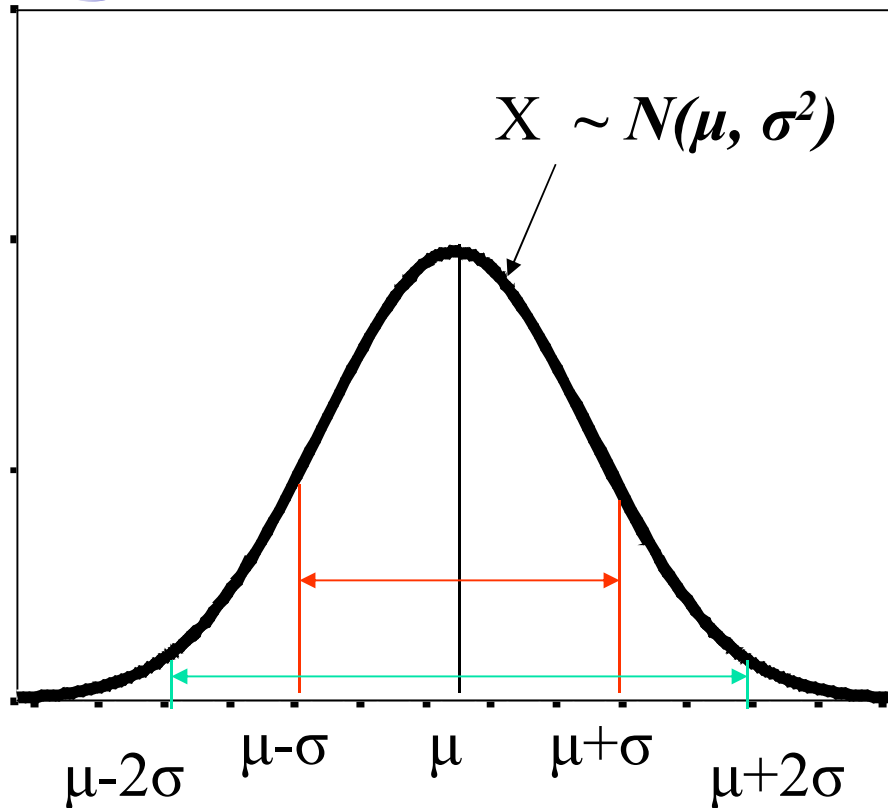
r.v. $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

the pdf for X is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$, $x \in R, -\infty < \mu < \infty, \sigma > 0$

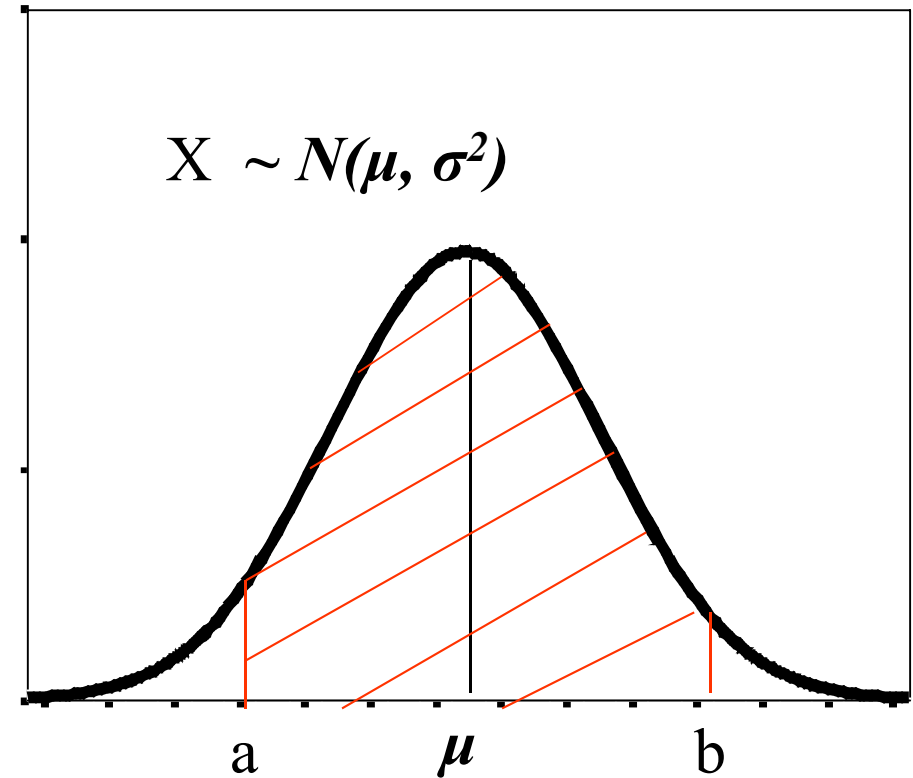
$$E(X) = \mu, \quad Var(X) = \sigma^2$$



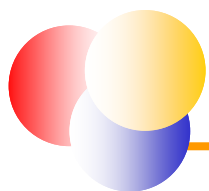
描述性统计: Normal distribution



$$\begin{aligned}P(\mu - \sigma \leq X \leq \mu + \sigma) &= 0.683 \\P(\mu - 2\sigma \leq X \leq \mu + 2\sigma) &= 0.954 \\P(\mu - 3\sigma \leq X \leq \mu + 3\sigma) &= 0.997\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}P(a \leq X \leq b) &= F(b) - F(a) \\&= \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx = ??\end{aligned}$$



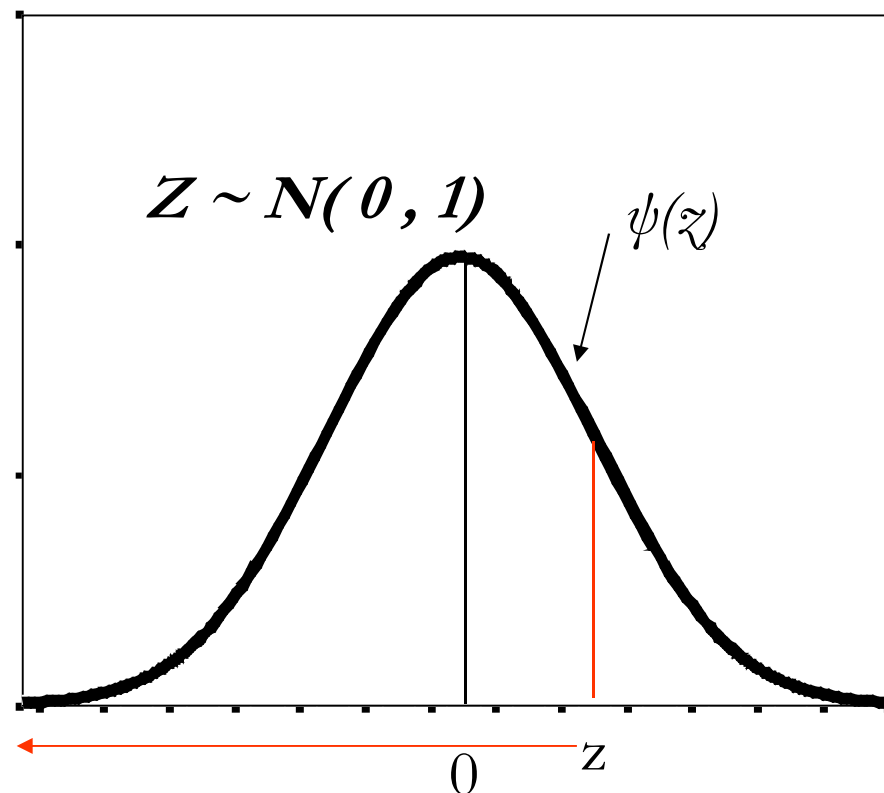
描述性统计: Normal distribution

- $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ standardized $Z \sim N(0, 1)$

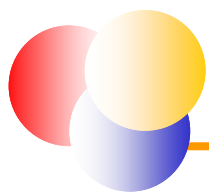
$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- the pdf for Z is

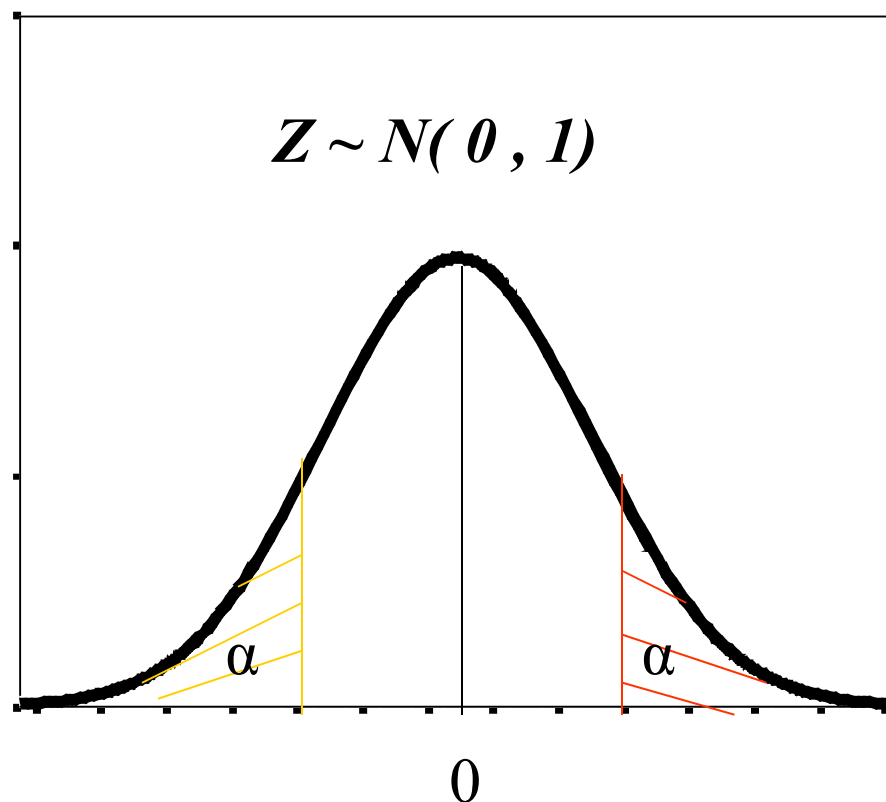
$$\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}},$$
$$-\infty < z < \infty$$



$$P(Z \leq z) = \Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \phi(z) dz = \int_{-\infty}^z \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz = ?? \quad (\text{查表})$$



描述性统计: Normal distribution



- $P(Z \geq z_\alpha) = P(Z \leq -z_\alpha) = \alpha$
- $\Phi(z_\alpha) = 1 - \Phi(-z_\alpha) \Rightarrow \Phi(z_\alpha) + \Phi(-z_\alpha) = 1$

例: $z_{0.025} = 1.96$, $z_{0.05} = 1.645$

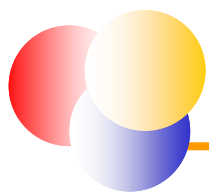
Example

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Classes

Metric	N	Max.	75%	Median	25%	Min.	Mean	Std. dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
LCOM1	4830	171850	87	23	8	0	174.247	2615.348	59.225	3851.002
LCOM2	4830	168390	60	13	1	0	151.022	2508.804	60.757	3997.301
LCOM3	4830	492	7	4	2	1	8.250	11.841	19.300	674.415
LCOM4	4830	282	4	2	1	1	3.300	6.798	24.413	825.727
Co	4830	1	0.333	0.089	-0.017	-2	0.026	0.609	-1.195	2.946
Co ²	4830	1	0.5	0.308	0.167	0	0.338	0.308	0.922	-0.149
LCOM5	3735	2	0.933	0.833	0.667	0	0.764	0.294	-0.603	2.380
Coh	3735	1	0.458	0.267	0.150	0	0.338	0.249	1.085	0.600
TCC	4417	1	1	0.5	0.167	0	0.503	0.410	0.071	-1.642
LCC	4417	1	1	0.672	0.2	0	0.562	0.425	-0.195	-1.688
ICH	4938	2976	17	4	0	0	16.115	73.573	22.495	722.809

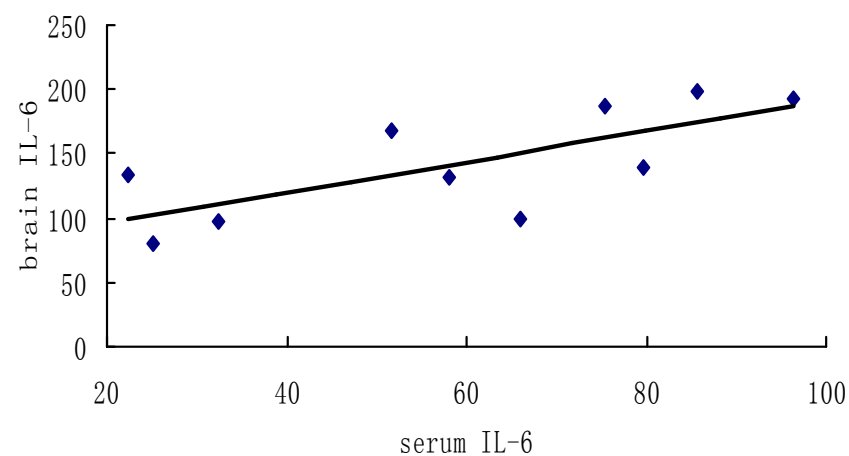
Copied from: Yuming Zhou, et al. Examining the potentially confounding effect of class size on Associations between object-oriented metrics. IEEE Transactions on Software Engineering, 2009, 35(5): 607-623.

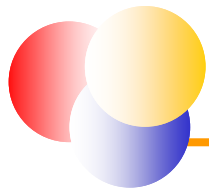




线性回归：单变量回归

Pati ent i	Serum IL-6 (pg/ml) x	Brain IL-6 (pg/ml) y
1	22.4	134.0
2	51.6	167.0
3	58.1	132.3
4	25.1	80.2
5	65.9	100.0
6	79.7	139.1
7	75.3	187.2
8	32.4	97.2
9	96.4	192.3
10	85.7	199.4





线性回归: 单变量回归

The population simple linear regression model:

$$y = \alpha + \beta x + \varepsilon \quad \text{or} \quad m_{y|x} = \alpha + \beta x$$

Nonrandom or Random
Systematic Component
Component

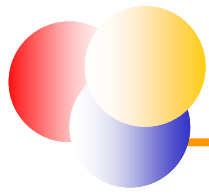
Where y is the **dependent** (response) **variable**, the variable we wish to explain or predict; x is the **independent** (explanatory) **variable**, also called the **predictor variable**; and ε is the **error term**, the only random component in the model, and thus, the only source of randomness in y .

$m_{y/x}$ is the mean of y when x is specified, all called the **conditional mean** of Y .

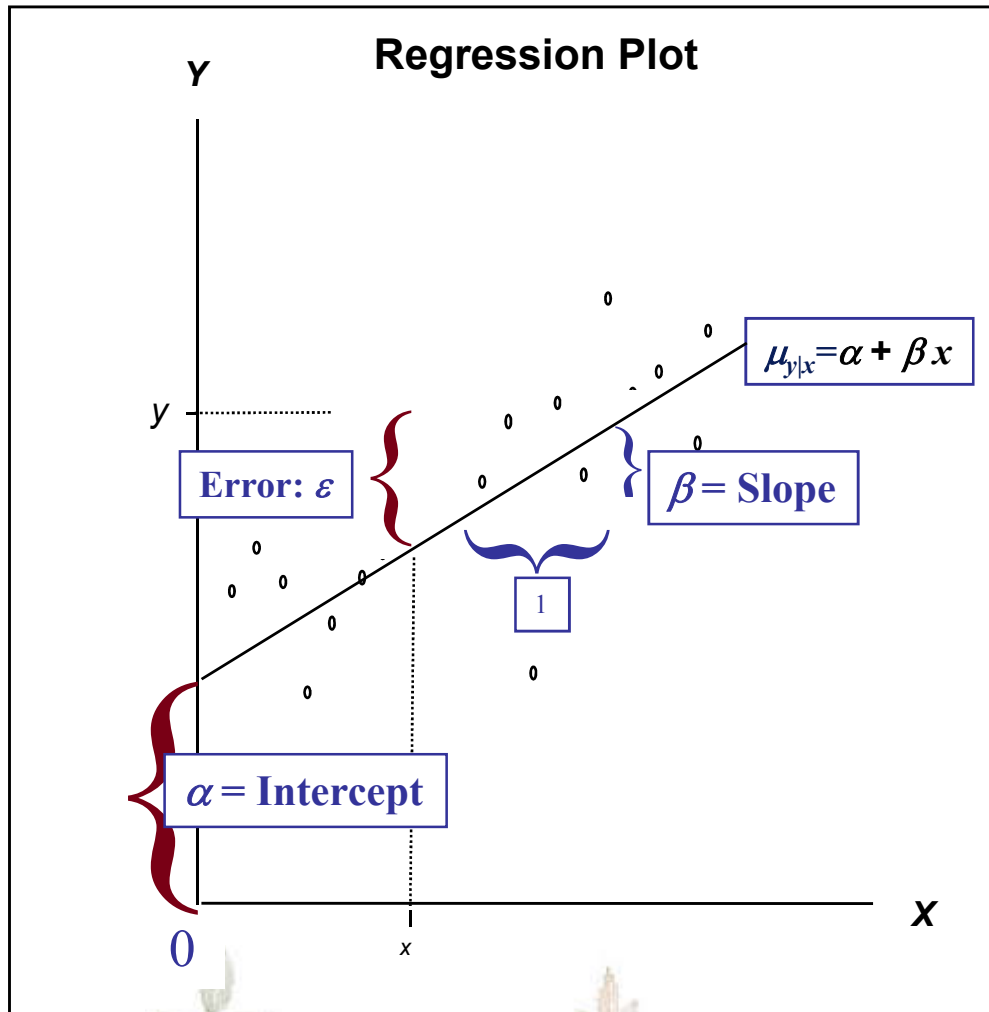
α is the **intercept** of the systematic component of the regression relationship.

β is the **slope** of the systematic component.





线性回归: 单变量回归

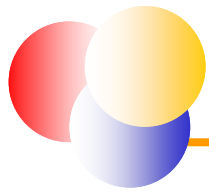


The simple linear regression model posits an exact linear relationship between the **expected** or average value of Y , the dependent variable Y , and X , the independent or predictor variable:

$$m_{y/x} = \alpha + \beta x$$

Actual observed values of Y (y) differ from the expected value ($m_{y/x}$) by an unexplained or random error(ε):

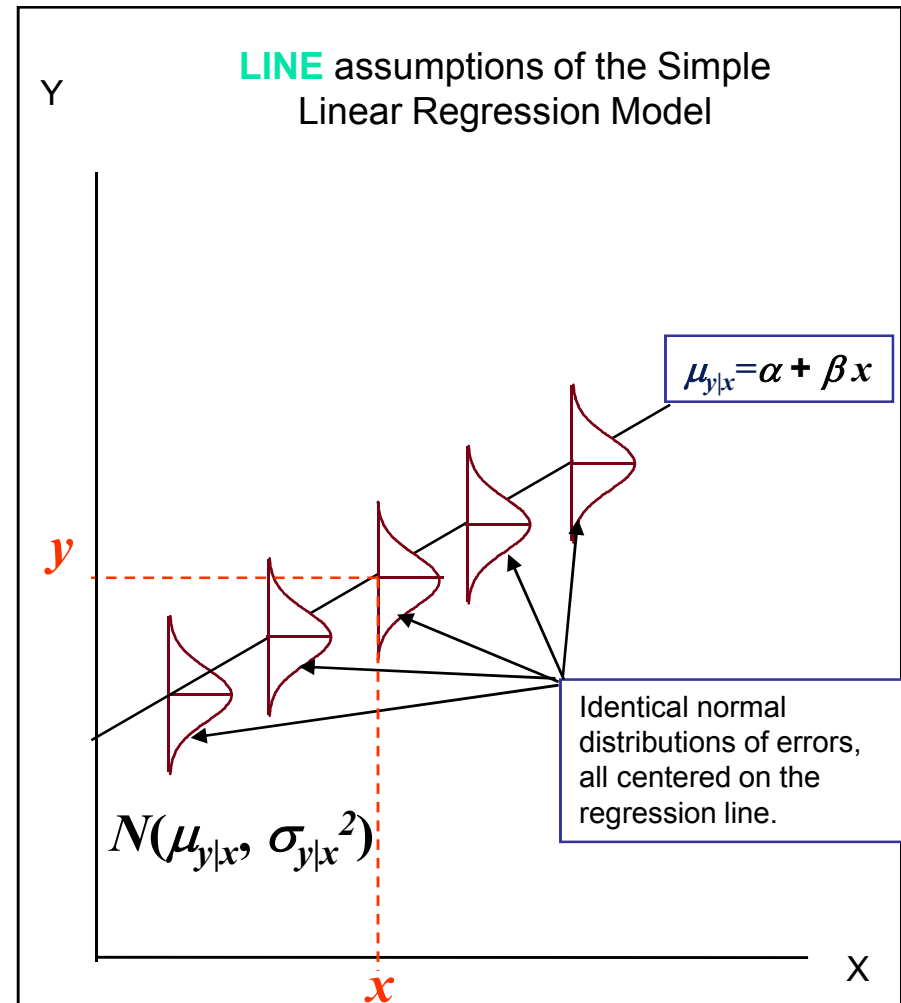
$$\begin{aligned} y &= m_{y/x} + \varepsilon \\ &= \alpha + \beta x + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

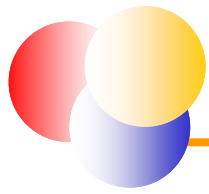


线性回归: 单变量回归

Assumptions of the Simple Linear Regression Model

- The relationship between X and Y is a straight-Line (linear) relationship.
- The values of the independent variable X are assumed fixed (not random); the only randomness in the values of Y comes from the error term ε_i .
- The errors ε_i are uncorrelated (i.e. **Independent**) in successive observations. The errors ε_i are **Normally** distributed with mean 0 and variance σ^2 (**Equal variance**). That is: $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$





线性回归: 单变量回归

Estimation: The Method of Least Squares

Estimation of a simple linear regression relationship involves finding estimated or predicted values of the intercept and slope of the linear regression line.

The **estimated regression equation**:

$$y = a + bx + e$$

where ***a*** estimates the ***intercept*** of the population regression line, α ;

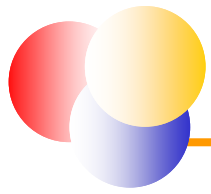
b estimates the ***slope*** of the population regression line, β ;

and ***e*** stands for the observed errors ----- the residuals from fitting the estimated regression line $a + bx$ to a set of n points.

The estimated regression line:

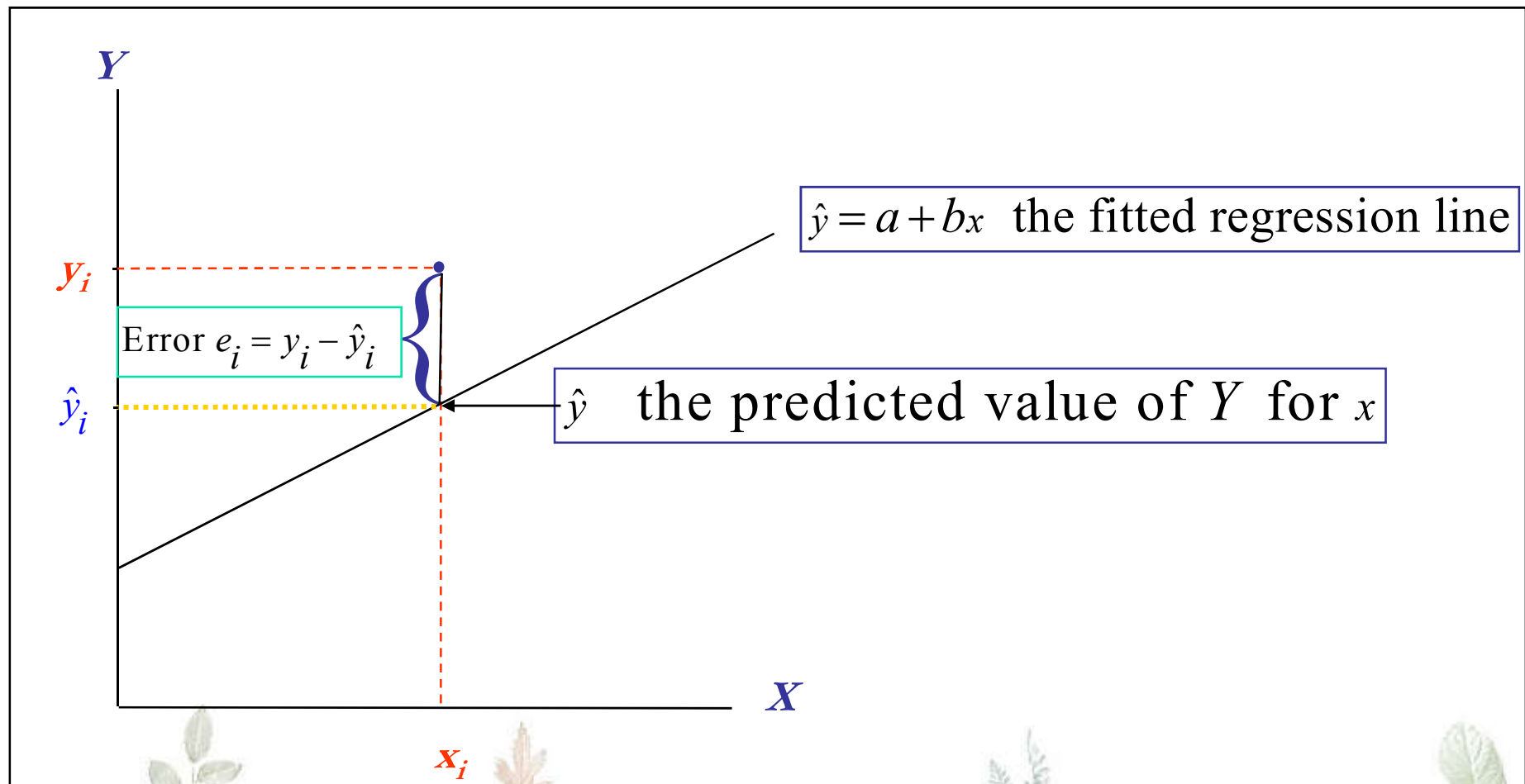
$$\hat{y} = a + b x$$

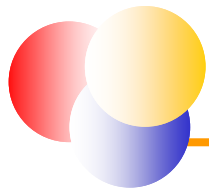
where \hat{y} (y - hat) is the value of Y lying on the fitted regression line for a given value of X .



线性回归: 单变量回归

Errors in Regression





线性回归：单变量回归

Least Squares Regression

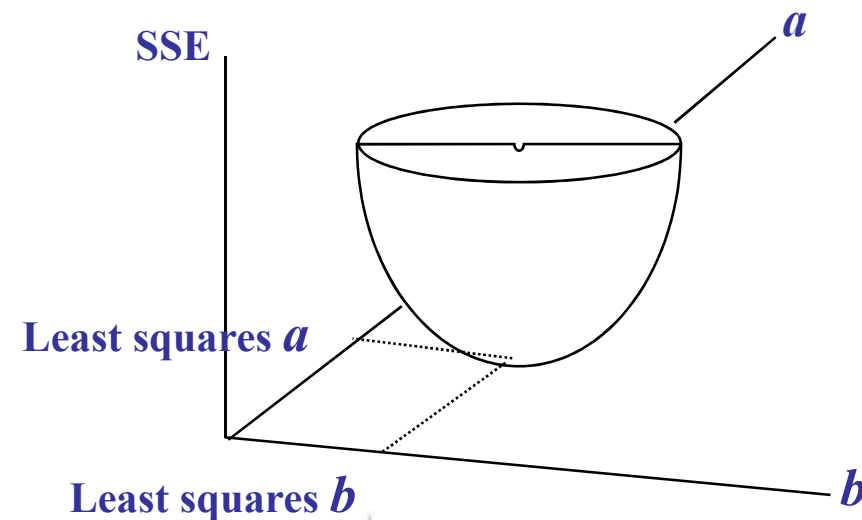
The sum of squared errors in regression is:

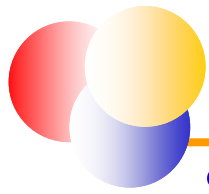
$$\text{SSE} = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

SSE: sum of squared errors

The **least squares regression line** is that which *minimizes* the SSE with respect to the estimates ***a*** and ***b***.

Parabola function





线性回归: 单变量回归

Sums of Squares, Cross Products, and Least Squares Estimators

Sums of Squares and Cross Products:

$$l_{xx} = \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}$$

$$l_{yy} = \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum y_i)^2}{n}$$

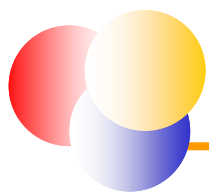
$$l_{xy} = \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \sum x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{n}$$

Least - squares regression estimators:

$$b = \frac{l_{xy}}{l_{xx}}$$

$$\hat{y} = a + bx$$

$$a = \bar{y} - b \bar{x}$$



线性回归：单变量回归

Patient	x	y	x^2	y^2	$x \times y$
1	22.4	134.0	501.76	17956.0	3001.60
4	25.1	80.2	630.01	6432.0	2013.02
8	32.4	97.2	1049.76	9447.8	3149.28
2	51.6	167.0	2662.56	27889.0	8617.20
3	58.1	132.3	3375.61	17503.3	7686.63
5	65.9	100.0	4342.81	10000.0	6590.00
7	75.3	187.2	5670.09	35043.8	14096.16
6	79.7	139.1	6352.09	19348.8	11086.27
10	85.7	199.4	7344.49	39760.4	17088.58
9	96.4	192.3	9292.96	36979.3	18537.72
Total	592.6	1428.7	41222.14	220360.5	91866.46

regression equation:

$$\hat{y} = 72.96 + 1.18x$$

$$l_{xx} = \sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n} = 41222.14 - \frac{592.6^2}{10} = 6104.66$$

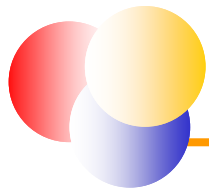
$$l_{yy} = \sum y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum y_i)^2}{n} = 220360.47 - \frac{1428.70^2}{10} = 16242.10$$

$$l_{xy} = \sum x_i y_i - \frac{\sum x_i \sum y_i}{n} = 91866.46 - \frac{592.6 \times 1428.70}{10} = 7201.70$$

$$b = \frac{l_{xy}}{l_{xx}} = \frac{7201.70}{6104.66} = 1.18$$

$$a = \bar{y} - b\bar{x} = \frac{1428.7}{10} - (1.18) \left(\frac{592.6}{10} \right) = 72.96$$

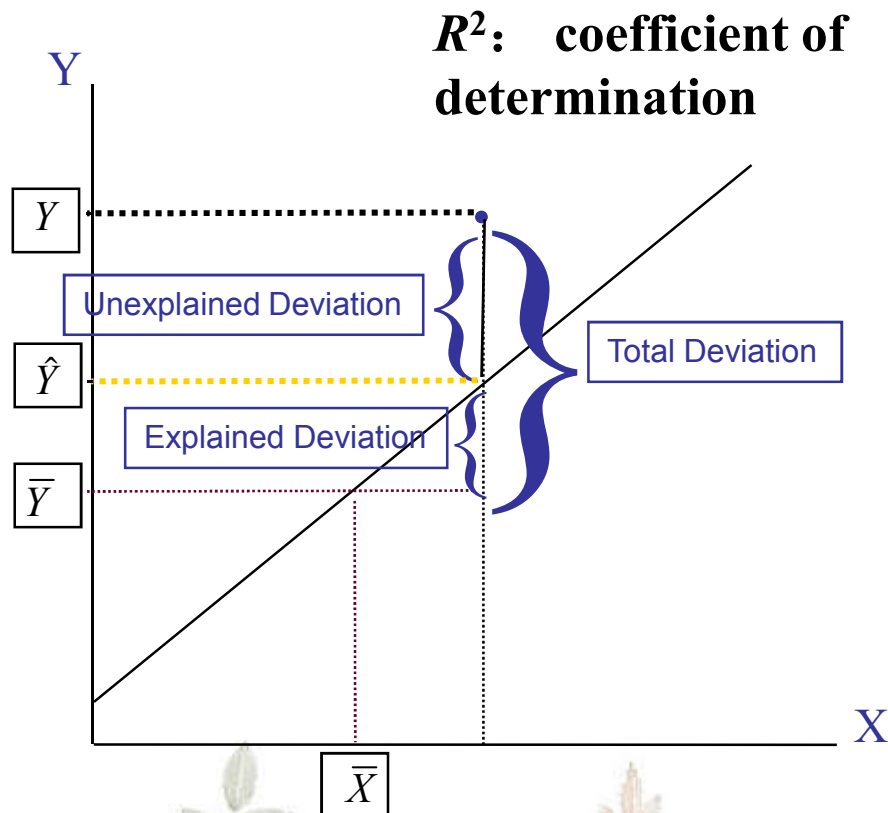




线性回归：单变量回归

How Good is the Regression?

The **coefficient of determination**, R^2 , is a descriptive measure of the strength of the regression relationship, a measure how well the regression line fits the data.

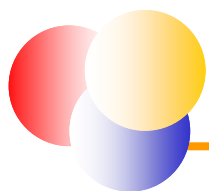


$$\begin{array}{rcl} (y - \bar{y}) & = & (y - \hat{y}) + (\hat{y} - \bar{y}) \\ \text{Total} & = & \text{Unexplained} + \text{Explained} \\ \text{Deviation} & & \text{Deviation} \quad \text{Deviation} \\ & & \text{(Error)} \quad \text{(Regression)} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \sum (y - \bar{y})^2 & = & \sum (y - \hat{y})^2 + \sum (\hat{y} - \bar{y})^2 \\ \text{SST} & = & \text{SSE} + \text{SSR} \end{array}$$

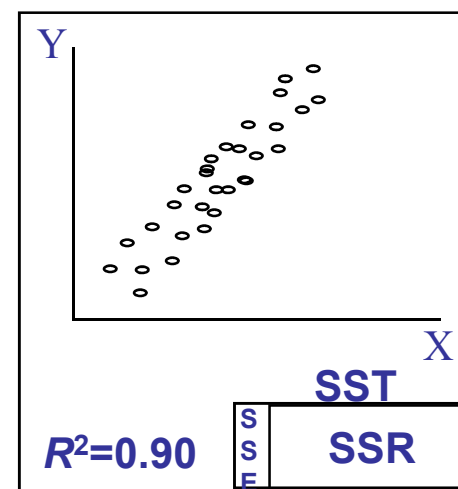
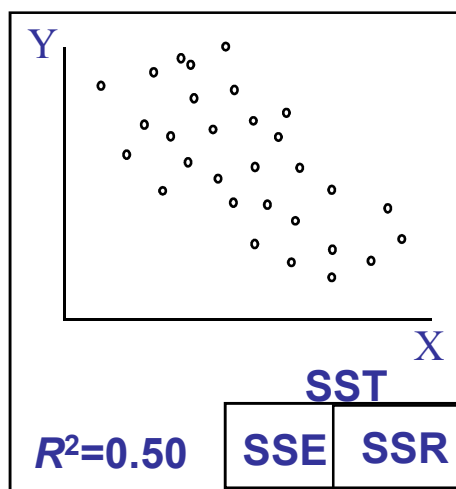
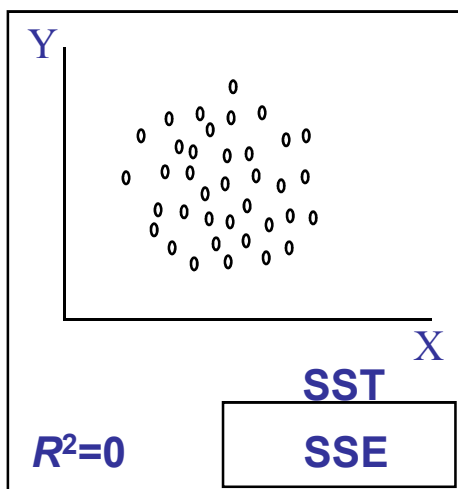
$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

Percentage of
total variation
explained by the
regression.



线性回归: 单变量回归

The Coefficient of Determination



$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{bl_{xy}}{l_{yy}} = \frac{1.180 \times 7201.70}{16242.10}$$

$$= 0.5231 = 52.31\%$$

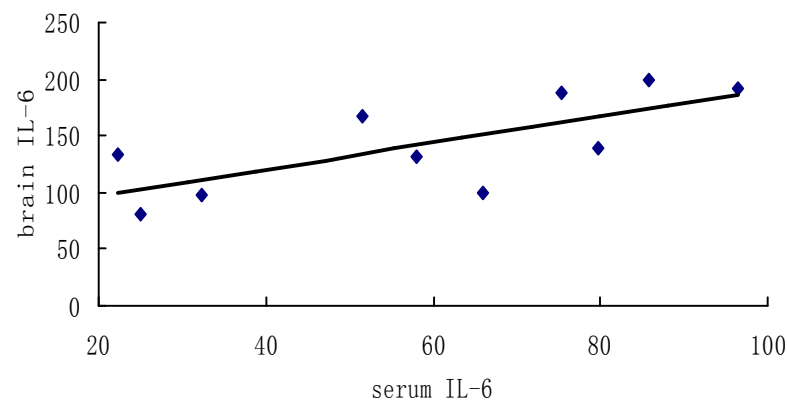
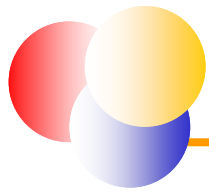


Figure18.1 Regression line between serum IL-6 and brain IL-6

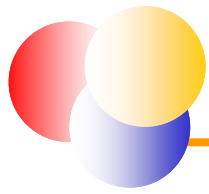


线性回归: 单变量回归

Assumptions of Regression

- Homoscedasticity(等方差)
 - The probability distribution of the errors has constant variance
- Independence of Errors
 - Error values are statistically independent
- Normality of Error
 - Error values (ε) are normally distributed for any given value of X



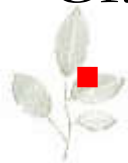


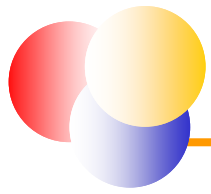
线性回归: 单变量回归

Residual Analysis

$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

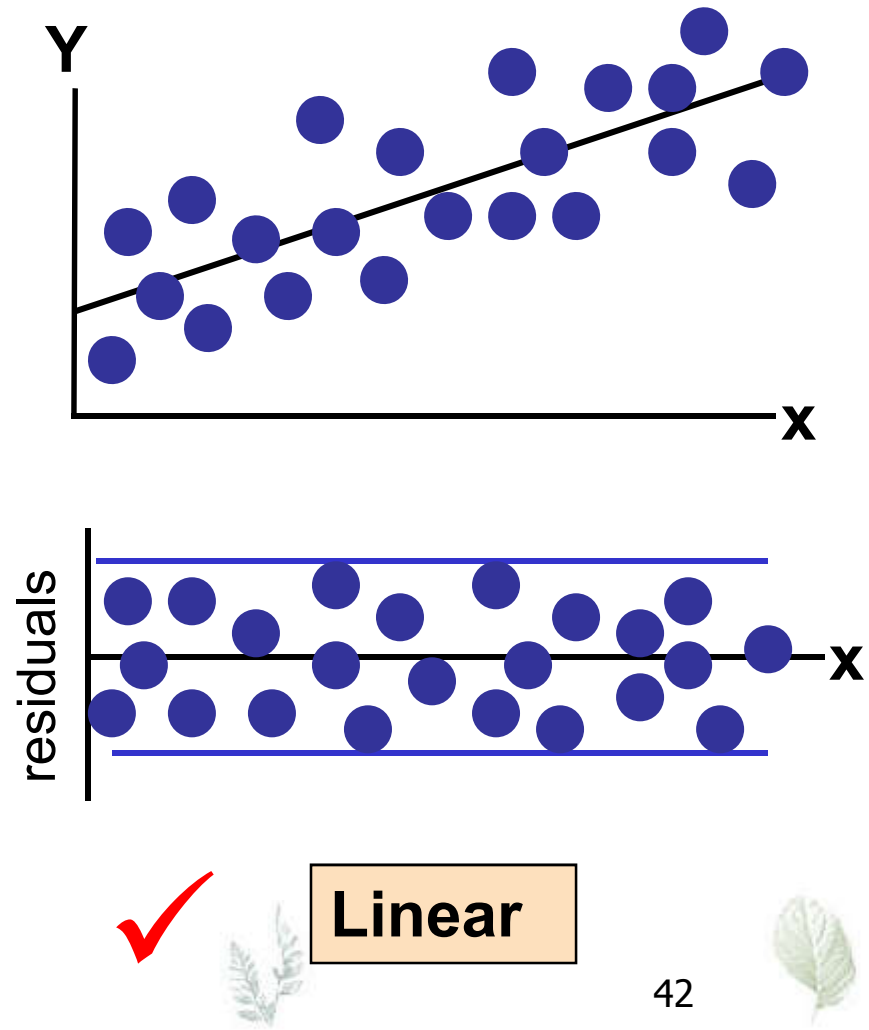
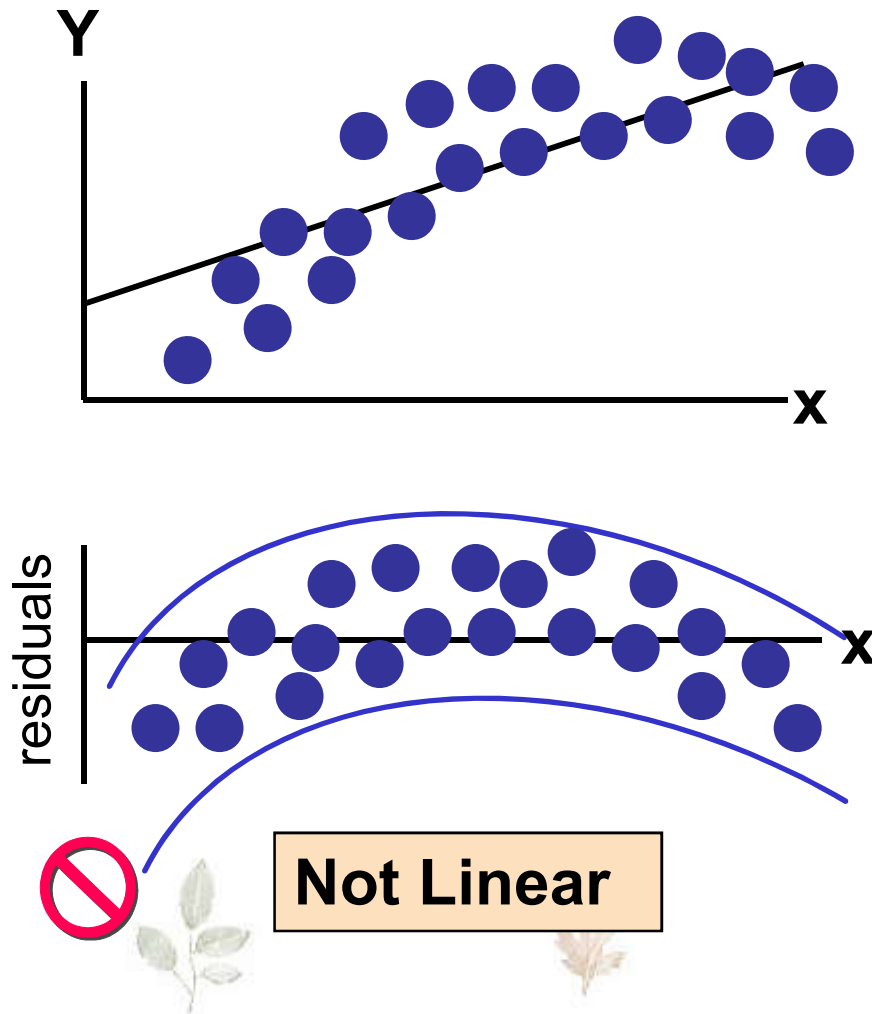
- The residual for observation i , e_i , is the difference between its observed and predicted value
- Check the assumptions of regression by examining the residuals
 - Examine for **linearity assumption**
 - Examine for **constant variance** for all levels of X (homoscedasticity)
 - Evaluate **independence assumption**
 - Evaluate **normal distribution assumption**
- Graphical Analysis of Residuals
 - Can plot residuals vs. X

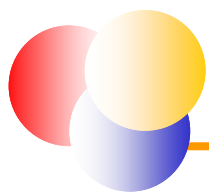




线性回归: 单变量回归

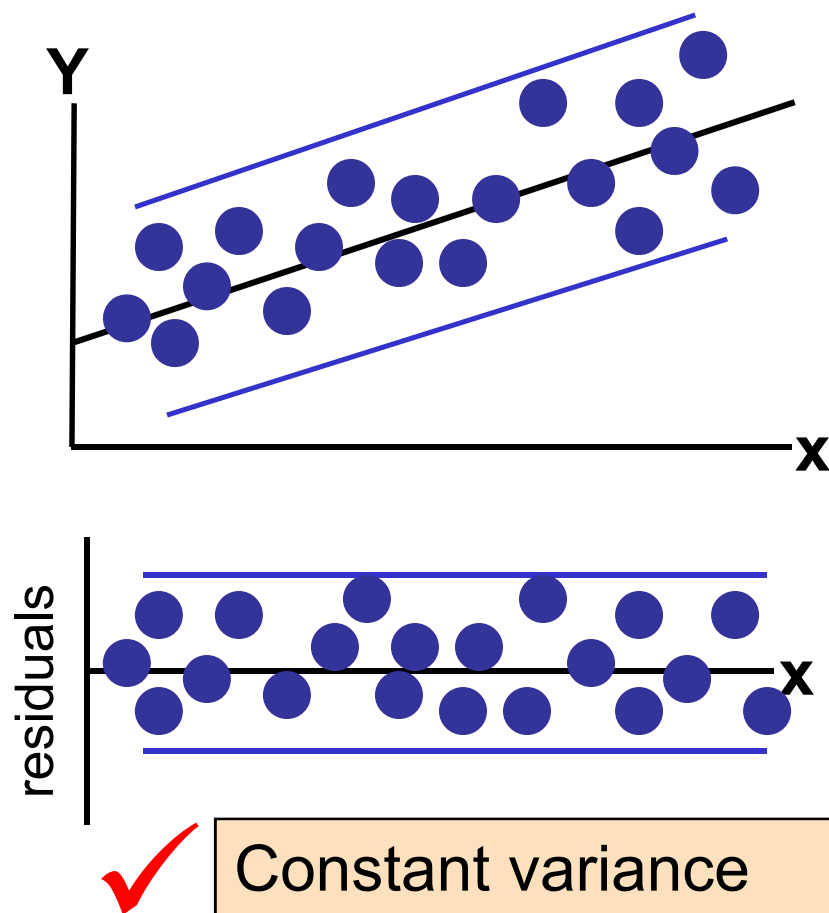
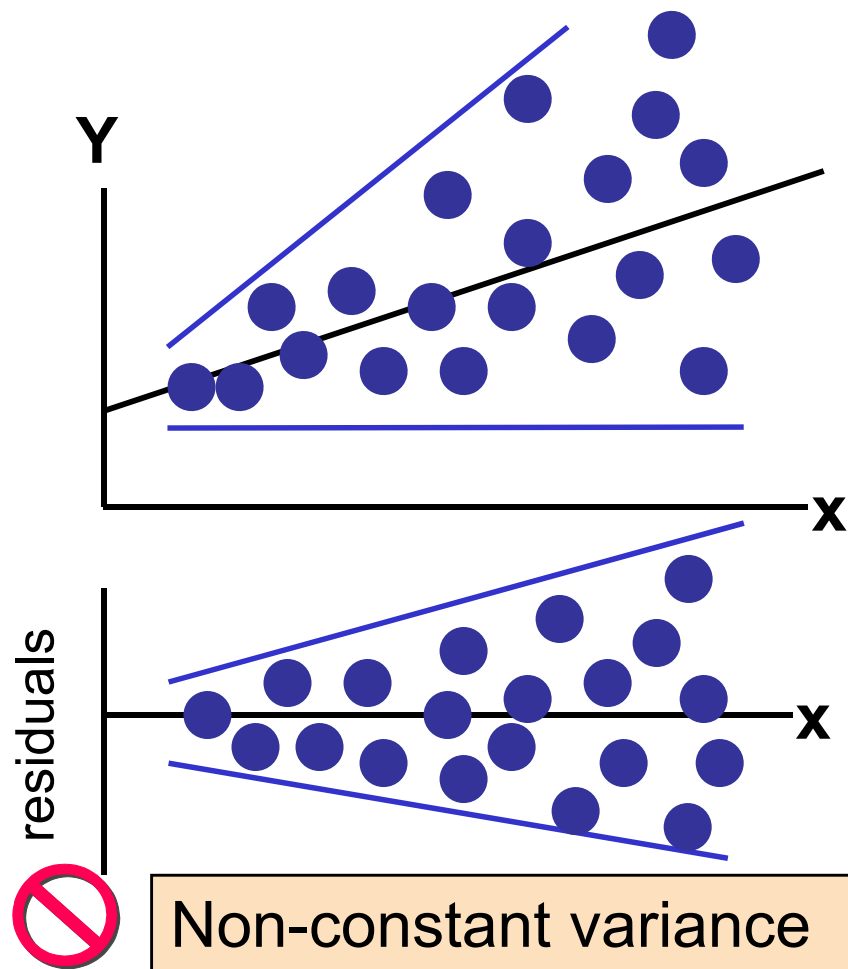
Residual Analysis for Linearity

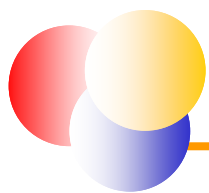




线性回归：单变量回归

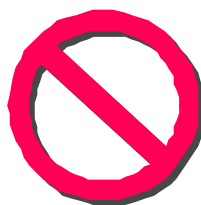
Residual Analysis for Homoscedasticity



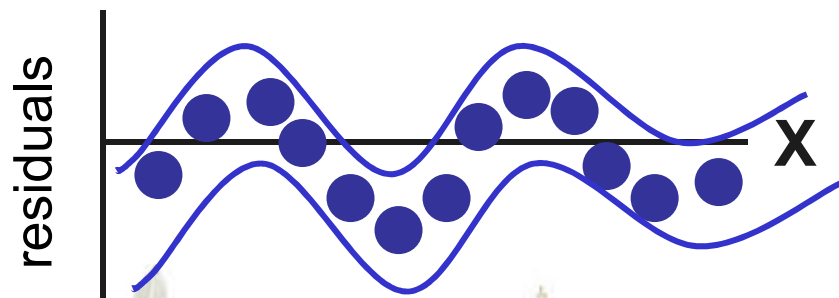
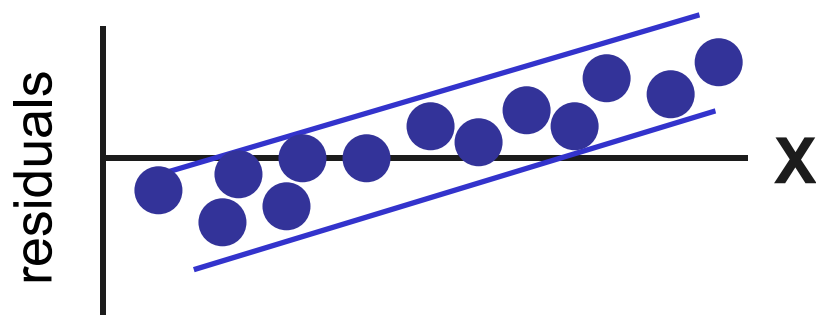


线性回归: 单变量回归

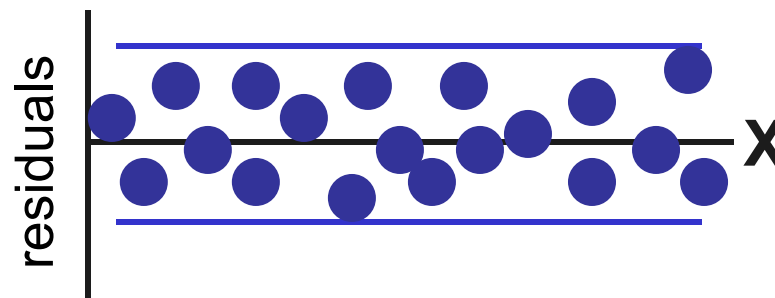
Residual Analysis for Independence

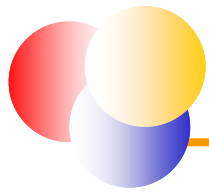


Not Independent



Independent



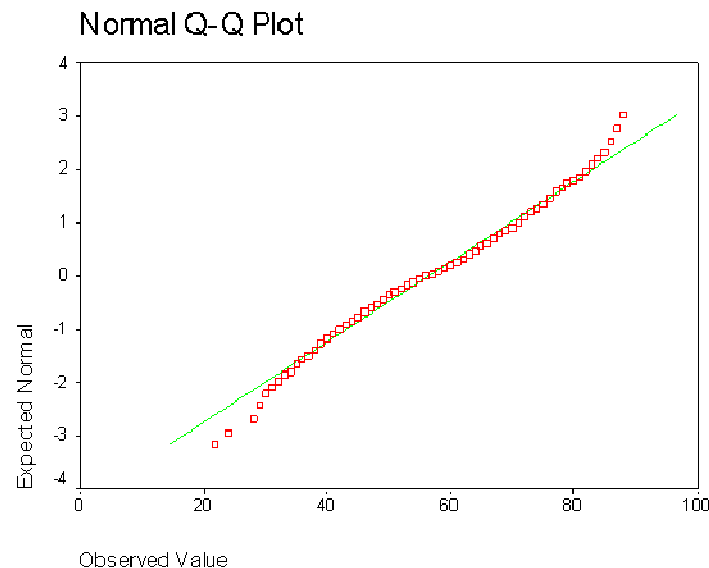


线性回归：单变量回归

Residual Analysis for Normality

How do you know the residuals are normally distributed?

Plot the residuals in Q-Q plot, which is a way to test normality. The idea of the Q-Q plot is that it plots the actual data along the y-axis, and the values that the data would have if they were exactly the percentiles of a normal curve (bell curve). So if the data is approximately like that of a bell curve, the line should look fairly close to straight. If not, it should be off.



Solution to non-normality:
Transformation of the
dependent variable.

R语言：QQ图/PP图
SPSS：QQ图/PP图



R语言：QQ图/PP图

```
n = 100
```

```
a = rnorm(n)    #产生100个正态随机变量
```

```
t = rank(a) / n  #求观察累积概率，即百分位
```

```
q = qnorm(t)     #求百分位对应的数值（正态分布下）
```

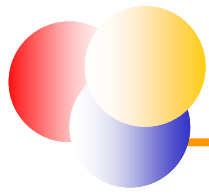
```
plot(a, q)       #画Q-Q图
```

```
#####
```

```
p = pnorm(a)     #求正态分布函数值（正态累积概率）
```

```
plot(p, t)       #画P-P图
```



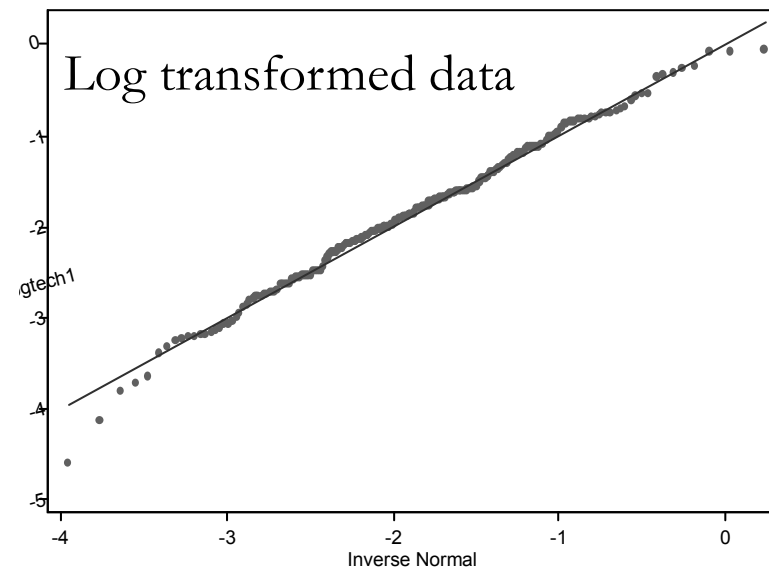
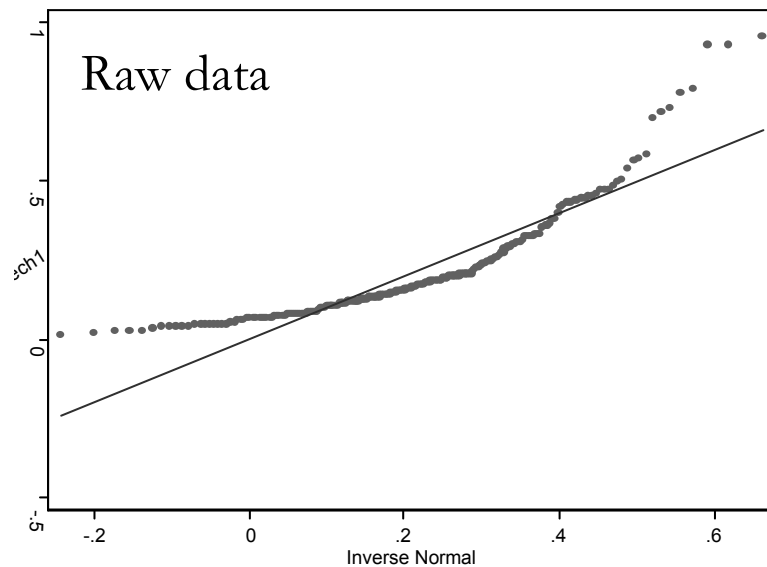


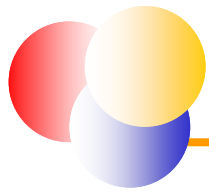
线性回归: 单变量回归

Residual Analysis for Normality

Solution to non-normality:
Transformation of the dependent variable.

Example: log transformation

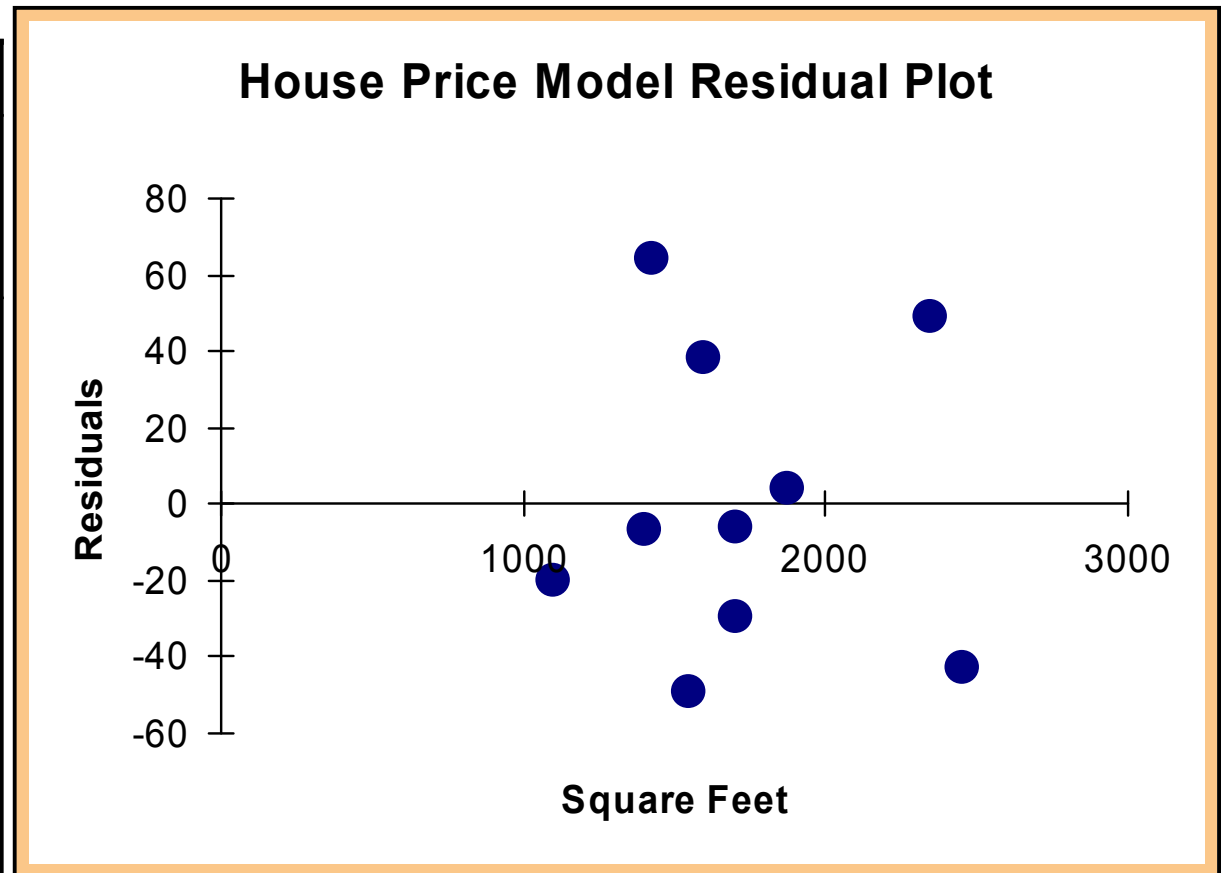




线性回归: 单变量回归

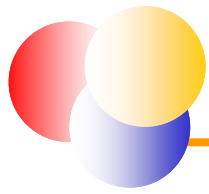
Excel Residual Output

RESIDUAL OUTPUT		
	<i>Predicted House Price</i>	<i>Residuals</i>
1	251.92316	-6.923162
2	273.87671	38.12329
3	284.85348	-5.853484
4	304.06284	3.937162
5	218.99284	-19.99284
6	268.38832	-49.38832
7	356.20251	48.79749
8	367.17929	-43.17929
9	254.6674	64.33264
10	284.85348	-29.85348



Does not appear to violate
any regression assumptions 48



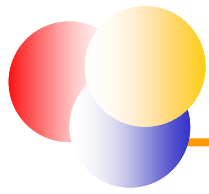


线性回归: 单变量回归

Measuring Autocorrelation: The Durbin-Watson Statistic

- Used when data are collected over time to detect if autocorrelation is present
- Autocorrelation exists if residuals in one time period are related to residuals in another period



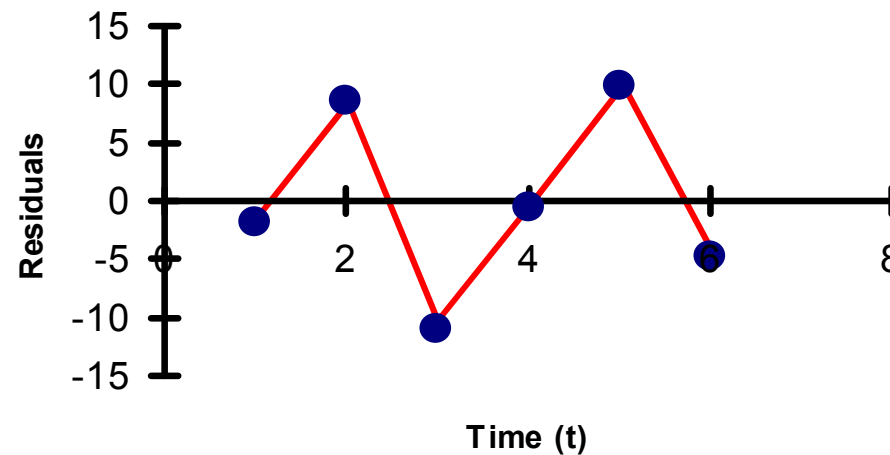


线性回归：单变量回归

Autocorrelation

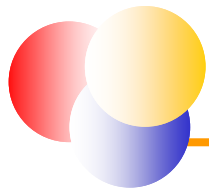
- Autocorrelation is correlation of the errors (residuals) over time

Time (t) Residual Plot



- Here, residuals show a cyclic pattern, not random

- Violates the regression assumption that residuals are random and independent



线性回归：单变量回归

The Durbin-Watson Statistic

- The Durbin-Watson statistic is used to test for autocorrelation

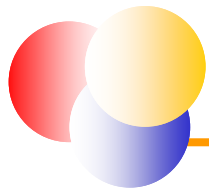
H_0 : residuals are not correlated

H_1 : autocorrelation is present

$$D = \frac{\sum_{i=2}^n (e_i - e_{i-1})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}$$

- The possible range is $0 \leq D \leq 4$
- D should be close to 2 if H_0 is true
- D less than 2 may signal positive autocorrelation, D greater than 2 may signal negative autocorrelation



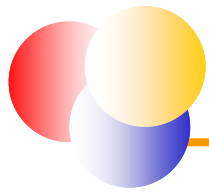


线性回归: 单变量回归

Summary

1. **Regression analysis** is applied for prediction while control effect of independent variable X .
2. The principle of least squares in solution of regression parameters is to **minimize the residual sum of squares**.
3. The coefficient of determination, R^2 , is a descriptive measure of the strength of the regression relationship.
4. There are two confidence bands: one for mean predictions and the other for individual prediction values
5. **Residual analysis** is used to check goodness of fit for models

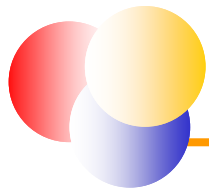




Logistic回归: 单变量回归

- Relate one or more independent (predictor) variables to a dependent (outcome) variable
 - Ordinary linear regression
 - **Continuous outcome variable**
 - Determine the relationship between a continuous outcome variable and the predictor variable(s)
 - Logistic regression
 - **Binary outcome variable**
 - Determine the relationship between **the probability of the outcome occurring** and the predictor variable(s)



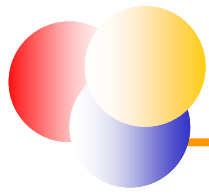


Logistic回归: 单变量回归

An example: faulty or not faulty

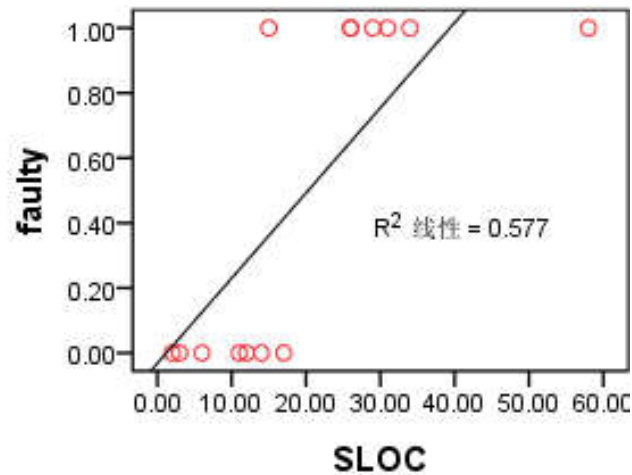
Module id	Faulty?	SLOC
1	0	3
2	1	34
3	0	17
4	0	6
5	0	12
6	1	15
7	1	26
8	1	29
9	0	14
10	1	58
11	0	2
12	1	31
13	1	26
14	0	11

- We will be interested then in inference about the probability of having faults
- Were we to use linear regression, we would postulate:
$$Prob (Faulty=1) = \alpha + \beta * SLOC + u$$



Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Linear Probability Models



模型	非标准化系数		标准系数	t	Sig.
	B	标准误差	试用版		
1 (常量)	-.032	.162		-.197	.847
SLOC	.026	.006	.759	4.044	.002

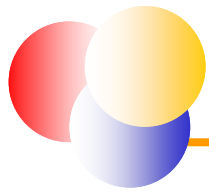
a. 因变量: faulty

$$Prob (Faulty=1) = -0.32 + 0.026*SLOC$$

- The results suggest that an increase in 1 SLOC increases the probability of having faults, on average, by approx. 0.026 or 2.6%.
- So what would the model predict if a module has **100 SLOC**?

$$\begin{aligned} Prob (Faulty=1) &= -0.32 + 0.026*100 \\ &= 2.28 \end{aligned}$$



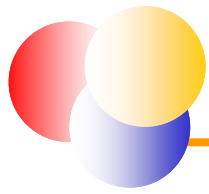


Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Linear Probability Models: What is wrong?

- Basically, the linear relation we had postulated before between X and Y is not appropriate when our dependent variable is dichotomic. Predictions for the probability of the event occurring would lie **outside the $[0,1]$ interval**, which is unacceptable.
- Other two subtle problems:
 - Distribution of u_i is **not normal** as we wished it to be
 - The variance of u_i is **not constant** (problem of heteroscedasticity)



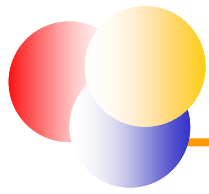


Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Non Linear Probability Models

- We want to be able to model the probability of the event occurring with an explanatory variable 'X', but we want the predicted probability to remain within the $[0,1]$ bounds.
 - There is a threshold above which the probability hardly increases as a reaction to changes in the explanatory variable
- Many functions meet these requirements (non-linearity and being bounded within the $[0,1]$ interval)
- We will focus on the Logistic





Logistic回归: 单变量回归

The Logit Model

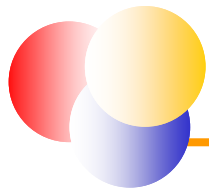
- A Logit Model states that:

- $\text{Prob}(Y=1) = F(a + bX)$
- $\text{Prob}(Y=0) = 1 - F(a + bX)$

$$F(a + bX) = P(Y = 1 | X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(a+bX)}}$$

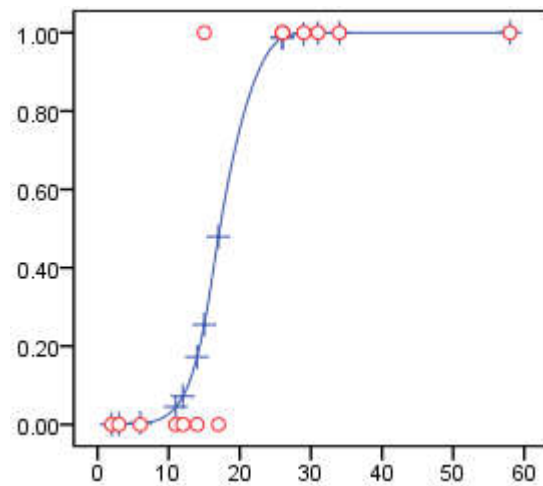
- Where $F(.)$ is the ‘Logistic Function’.
- So, the probability of the event occurring is a *logistic function* of the independent variables





Logistic回归: 单变量回归

The Logit Model



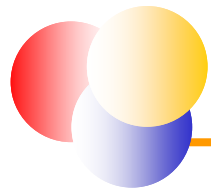
方程中的变量

		B	S.E.	Wals	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
步骤 1 ^a	SLOC	.495	.384	1.660	1	.198	1.640
	常量	-8.496	6.016	1.994	1	.158	.000

a. 在步骤 1 中输入的变量: SLOC.

$$P(\text{faulty} = 1 | SLOC) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-8.496 + 0.495 * SLOC)}}$$





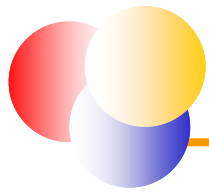
Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Evaluating Logit Regressions

Statistics for comparing alternative logit models:

- Percent Correct Predictions
- Pseudo- R^2





Logistic回归: 单变量回归

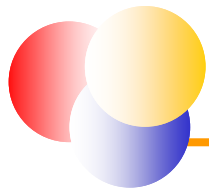
Percent Correct Predictions

分类表^a

已观测			已预测		
			Faulty		百分比校正
			.00	1.00	
步骤 1	Faulty	.00	7	0	100.0
		1.00	1	6	85.7
总计百分比					92.9

a. 切割值为 .500

- The "Percent Correct Predictions" statistic assumes that if the estimated p is greater than or equal to .5 then the event is expected to occur and not occur otherwise.
- By assigning these probabilities 0s and 1s and comparing these to the actual 0s and 1s, the % correct Yes, % correct No, and overall % correct scores are calculated.
- Note: subgroups for the % correctly predicted is also important, especially if most of the data are 0s or 1s



Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Pseudo- R^2 Values

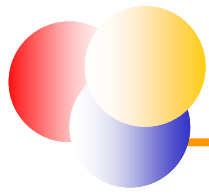
模型汇总

步骤	-2 对数似然值	Cox & Snell R 方	Nagelkerke R 方
1	4.729 ^a	.650	.866

a. 因为参数估计的更改范围小于 .001，所以估计在迭代次数 9 处终止。

- There are psuedo- R^2 statistics that make adjustment for the (0,1) nature of the actual data: two are listed above
- Their computation is somewhat complicated but yield measures that vary between 0 and (somewhat close to) 1 much like the R^2 in a LP model.





Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Odds Ratio

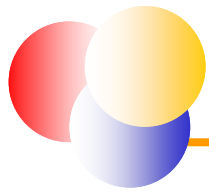
- Interpretation of Regression Coefficient (b):
 - In linear regression, the slope coefficient is the change in the mean response as x increases by 1 unit
 - In logistic regression, we can show that:

$$Odds(Y = 1 | X) = \frac{\Pr(Y = 1 | X)}{1 - \Pr(Y = 1 | X)} = e^{a+bX}$$

$$OR_{X, X+1}(Y = 1) = \frac{Odds(Y = 1 | X + 1)}{Odds(Y = 1 | X)} = e^b$$

e^b represents the change in the odds of the outcome
(multiplicatively) by increasing x by 1 unit





Logistic回归: 单变量回归

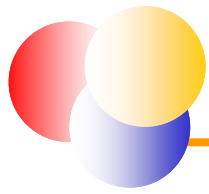
Magnitude of association

$$\Pr(Y = 1) = \frac{e^{a+bX}}{1 + e^{a+bX}}$$

$$OR_{X, X+1}(Y = 1) = \frac{Odds(Y = 1 | X + 1)}{Odds(Y = 1 | X)} = e^b$$

$$OR_{X, X+\sigma}(Y = 1) = \frac{Odds(Y = 1 | X + \sigma)}{Odds(Y = 1 | X)} = e^{b\sigma}$$



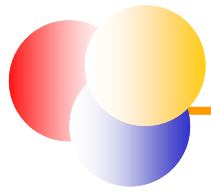


Logistic回归: 单变量回归

Assumptions

- The only “real” limitation on logistic regression is that the outcome must be discrete
- Linearity in the logit – the regression equation should have a linear relationship with the logit form of the DV. There is no assumption about the predictors being linearly related to each other
- No outliers
- Independence of errors





小结

- 描述性统计
- 线性回归
- Logistic回归



Thanks for your time and attention!

