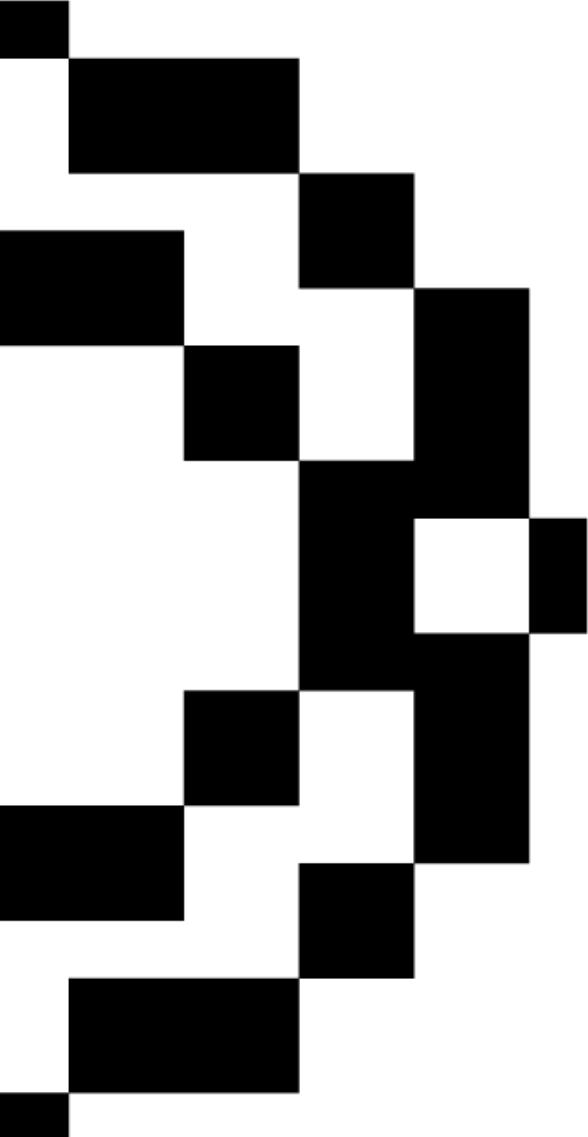


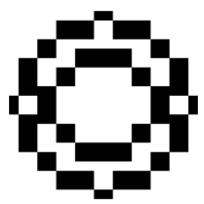
# Linear and Logistic Regression

Master in Data Science and Advanced  
Analytics  
BA and DS

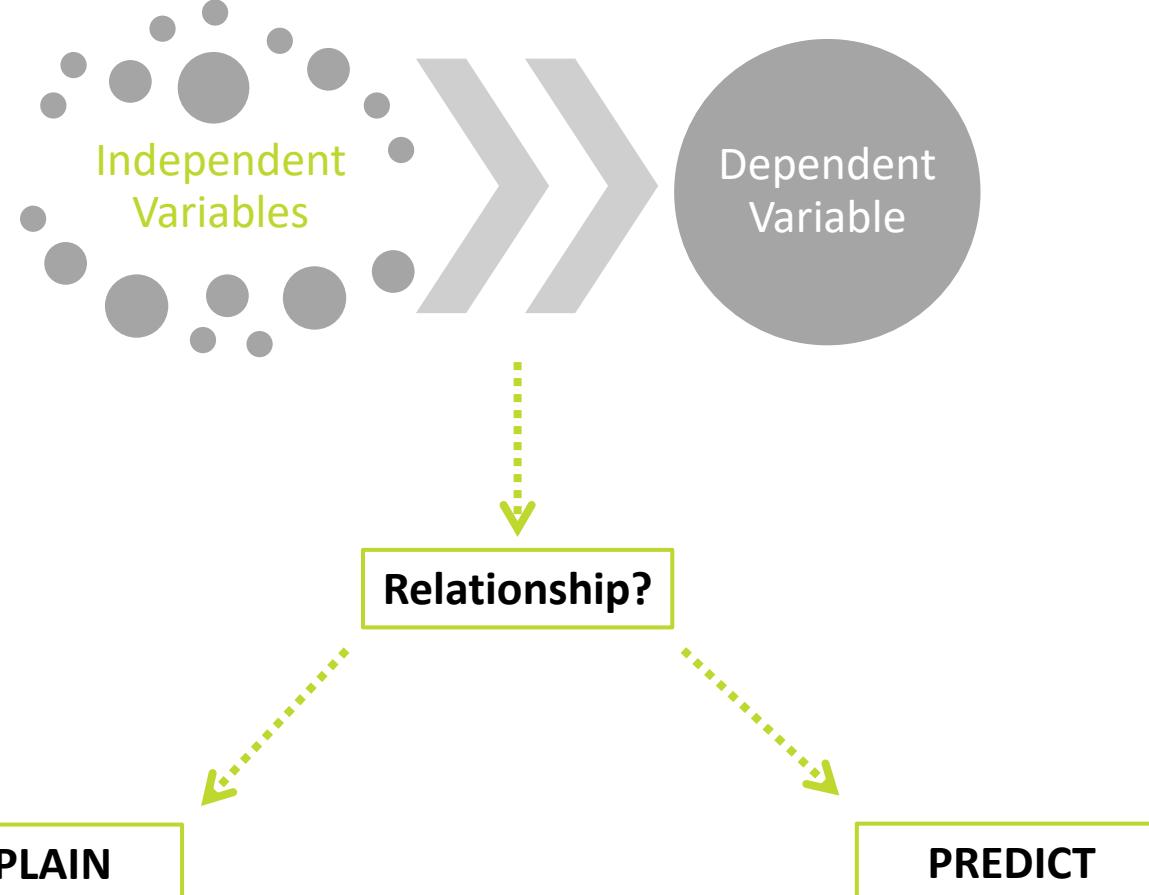
Roberto Henriques

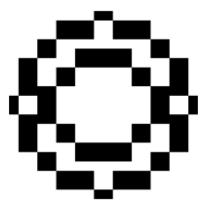


# Linear Regression



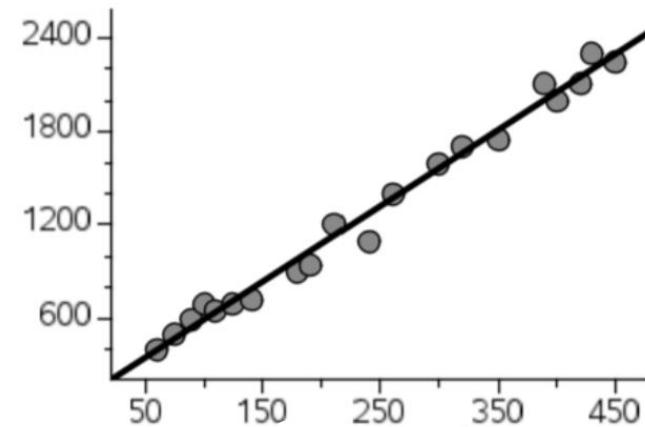
# Regression Analysis

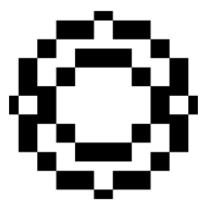




# <sup>4</sup> Linear Regression

- Use least-squares to fit a line to our data
- Calculate  $R^2$
- Calculate a  $p$ -value for  $R^2$
- Examples:
  - Predict sales amount
  - Predict the growth of the economy
  - Predict the price of a house



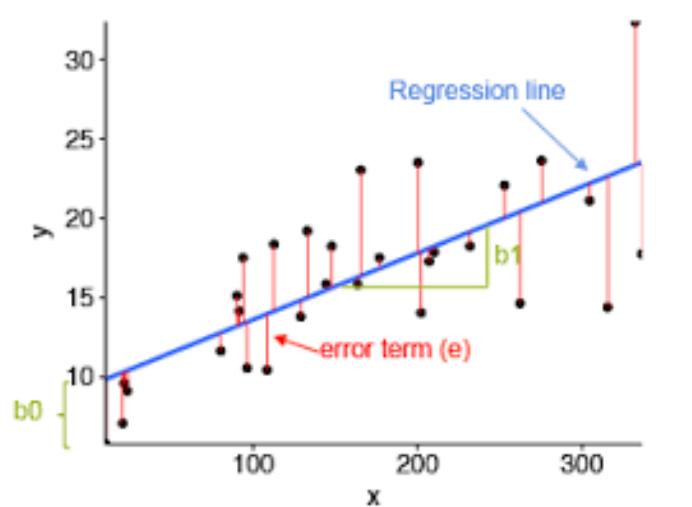


# Simple and Multiple Linear Regression

## Simple Linear Regression

A linear regression model with a single explanatory variable

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

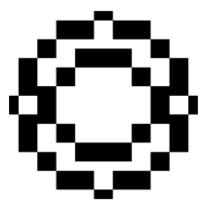


- Random Error / Residual
- Predictor (present in data)
- Coefficient (estimated by regression)
- Intercept (estimated by regression)
- Predicted value (calculated from  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$  and  $X_1$ )

## Multiple Linear Regression

A linear regression model with two or more explanatory variables

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n$$

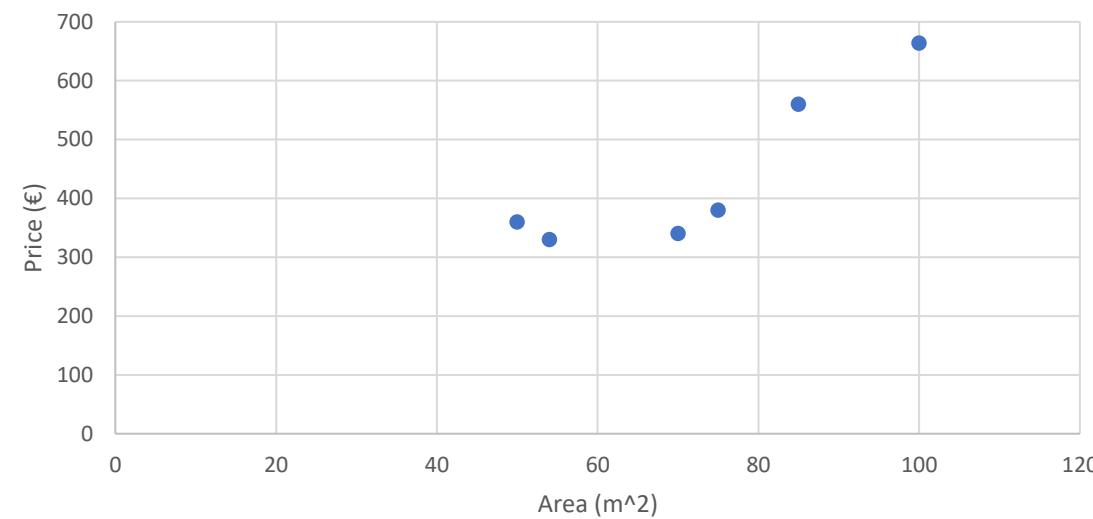


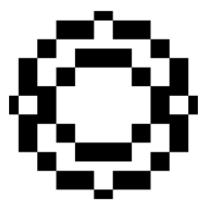
## Example

- Let us examine the linear dependency of the house prices based on their size (square meters).

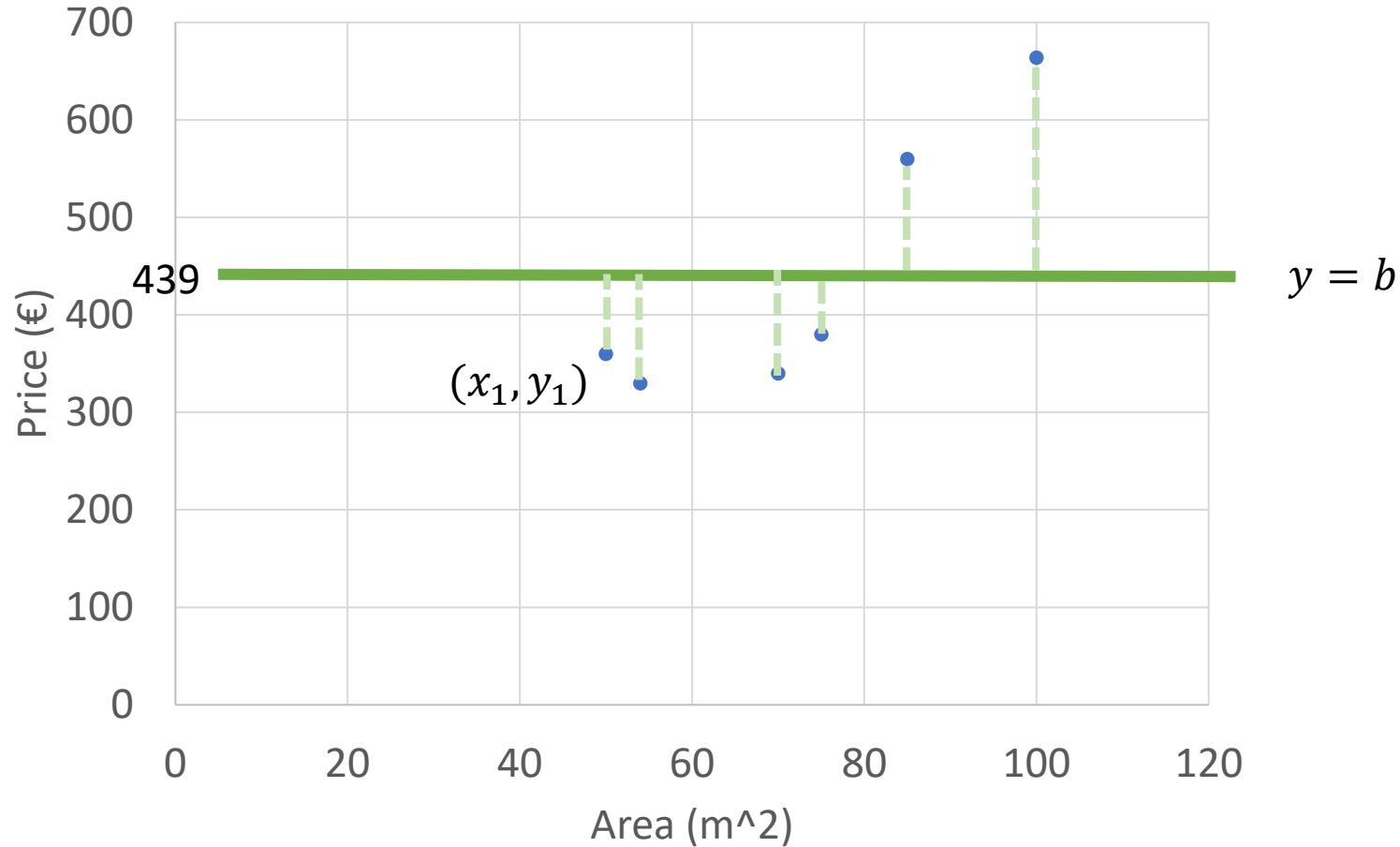
With this sample of 6 houses, find the equation of the straight line that best fits the data.

ID	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	Price (€)
1	50	360
2	70	340
3	100	664
4	54	330
5	85	560
6	75	380

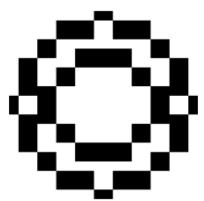




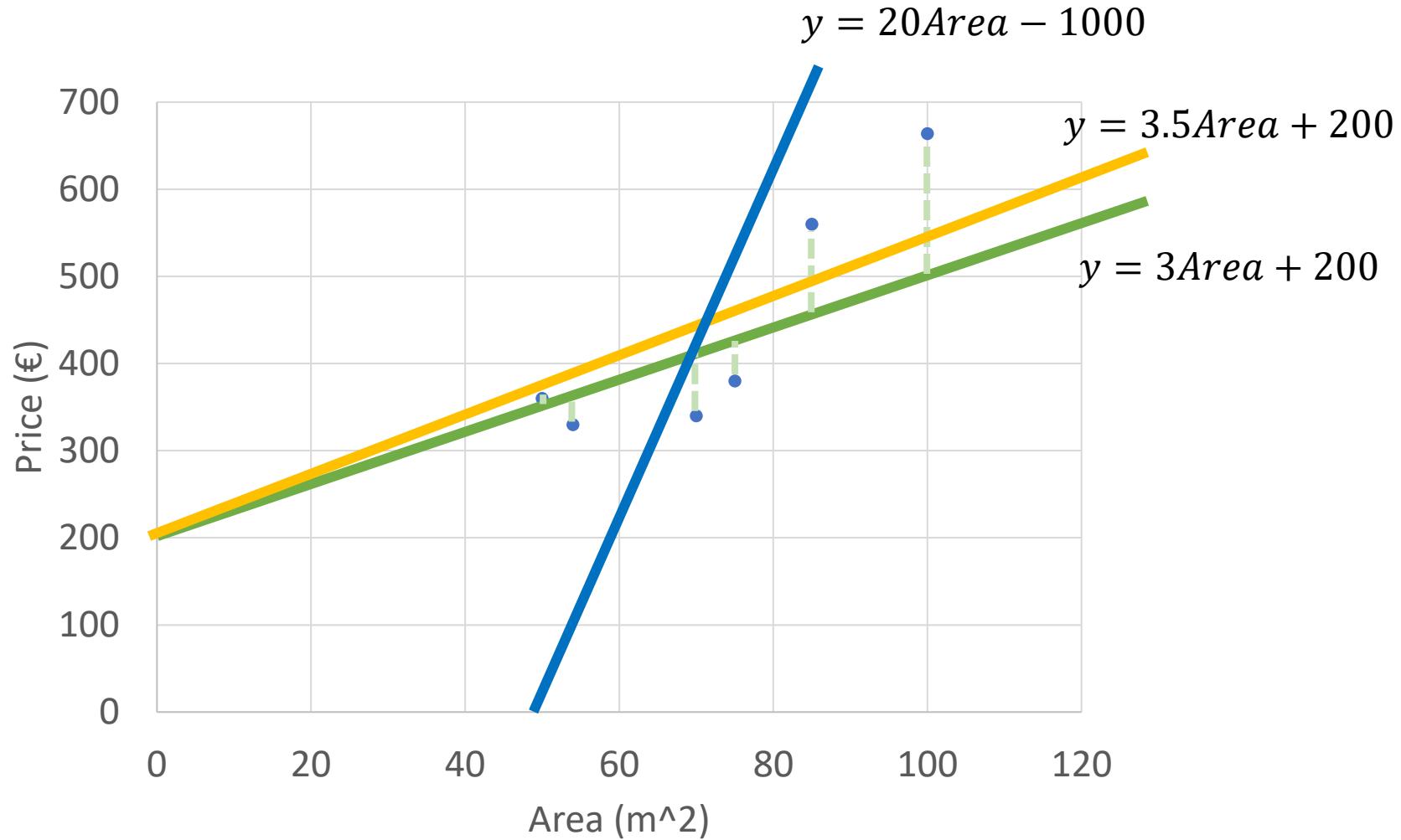
## Example



$$\begin{aligned} \text{sum of Residuals}^2 &= (b - y_1)^2 + (b - y_2)^2 + (b - y_3)^2 + (b - y_4)^2 + (b - y_5)^2 + (b - y_6)^2 \\ \text{sum of Residuals}^2 &= 96670 \end{aligned}$$



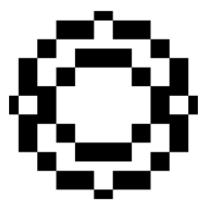
## Example



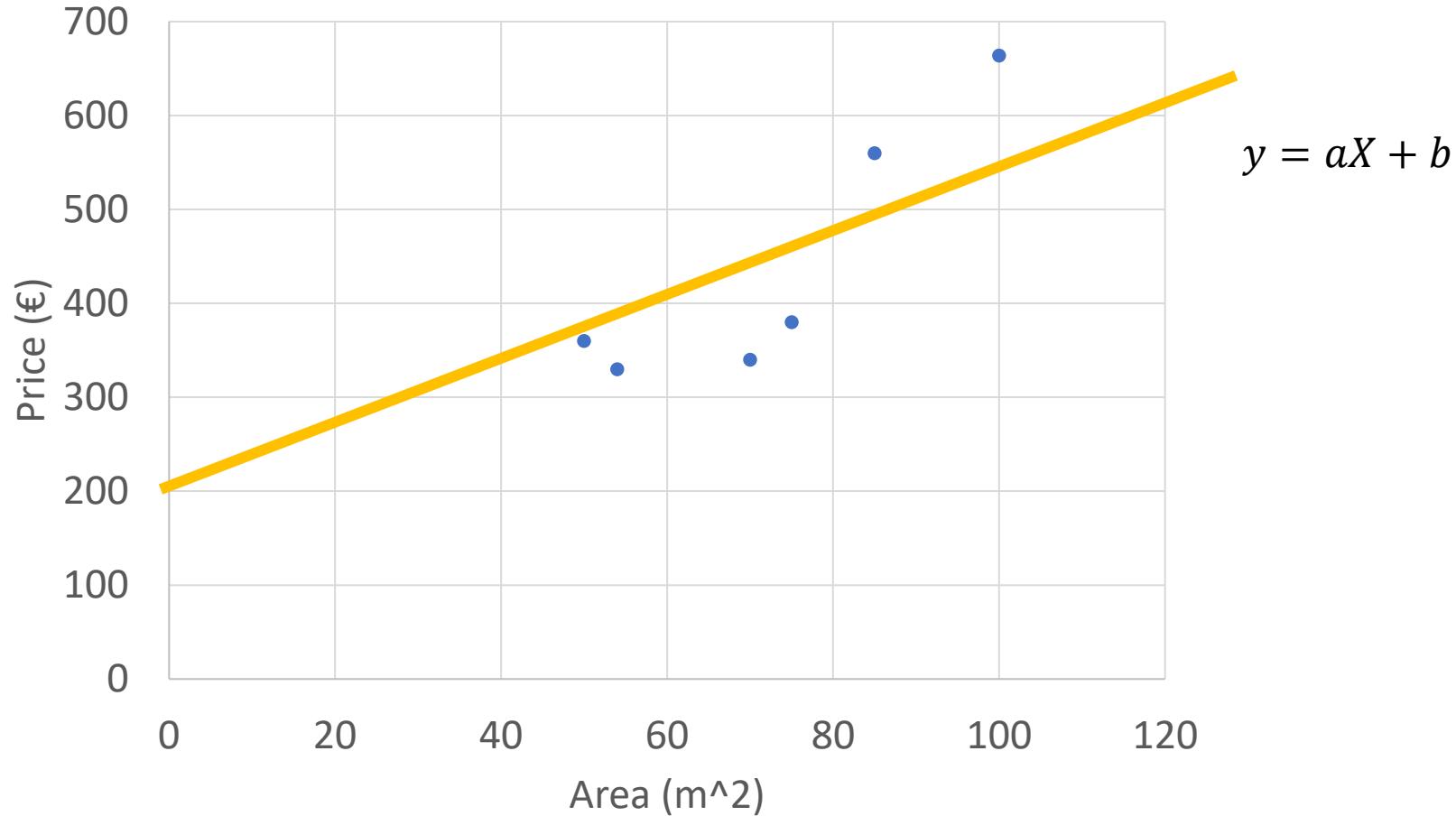
$$\text{sum of Residuals}^2 = 45970$$

$$\text{sum of Residuals}^2 = 38439.5$$

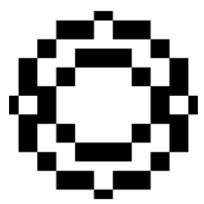
$$\text{sum of Residuals} = 342596$$



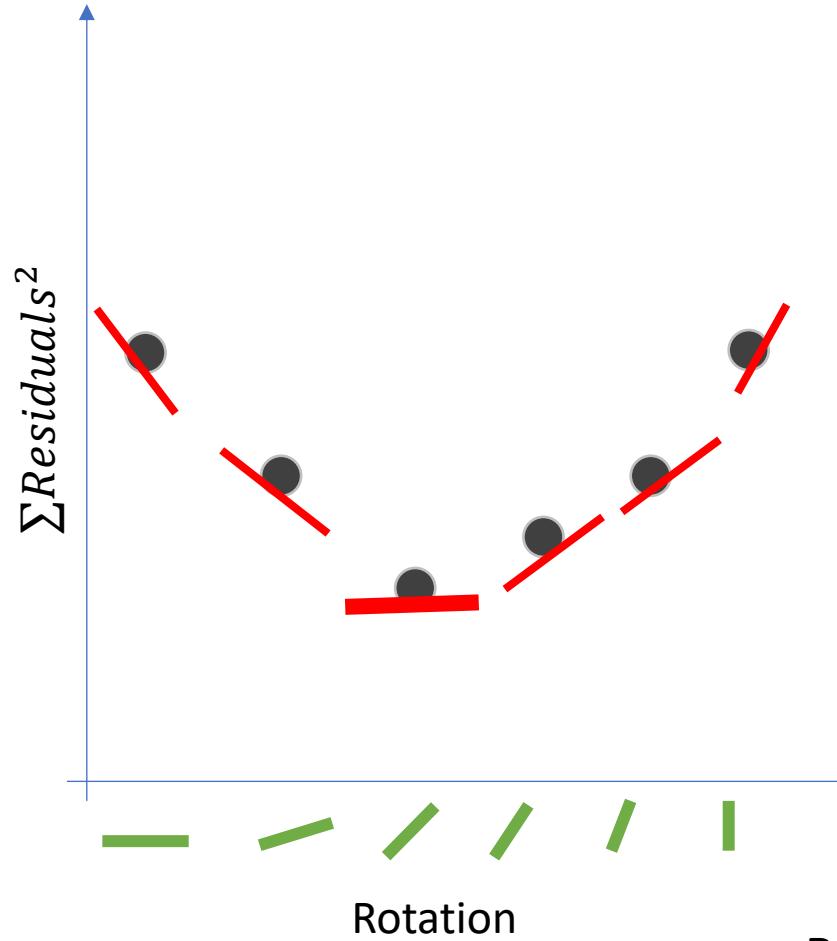
## Example



$$\sum \text{Residuals}^2 = ((a \times x_1 + b) - y_1)^2 + ((a \times x_2 + b) - y_2)^2 + ((a \times x_3 + b) - y_3)^2 + \dots$$

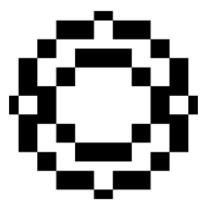


# Example

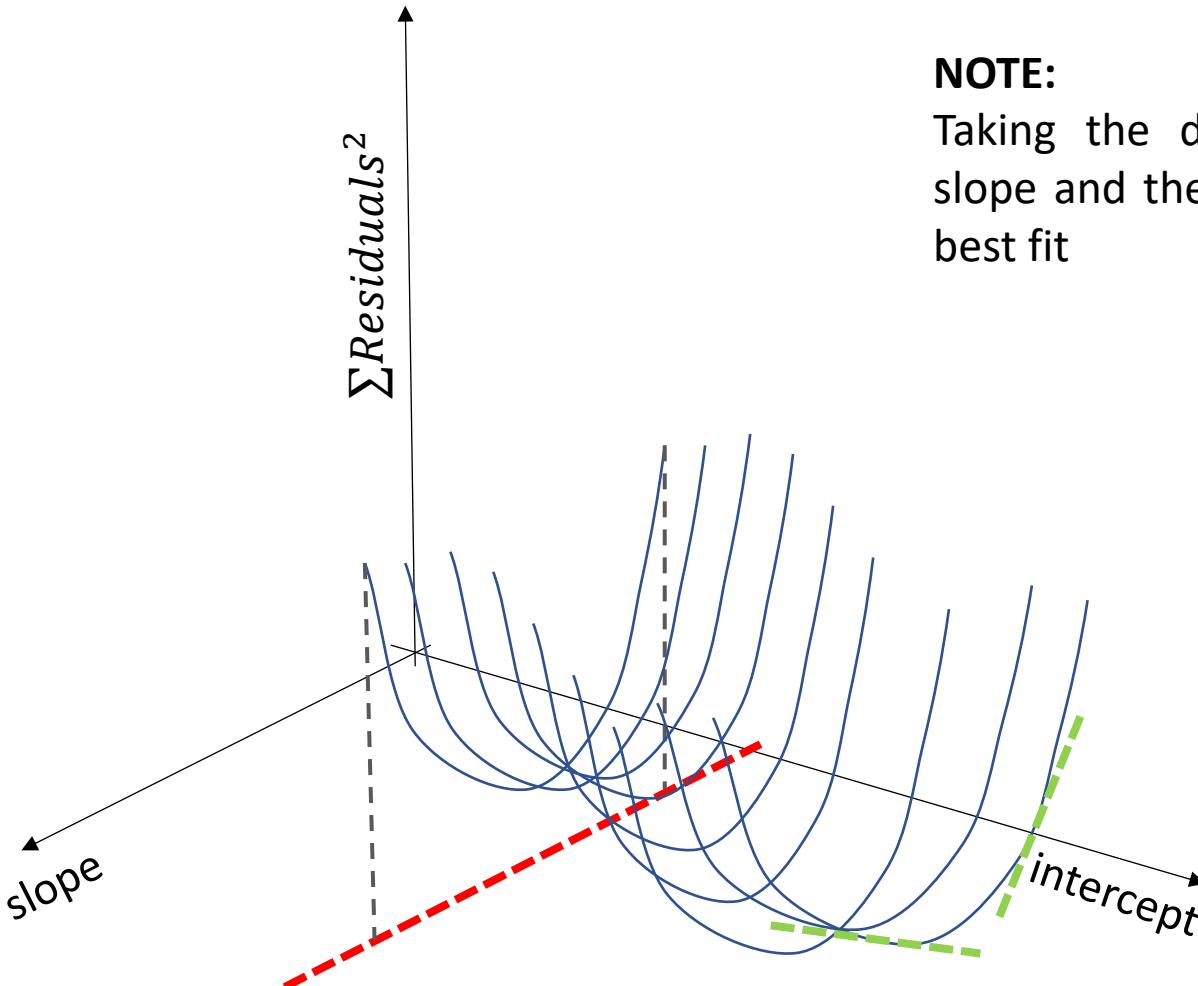


How do we find the optimal rotation for the line?

**Remember**  
Different rotations are different  
values for “ $a$ ” and “ $b$ ”

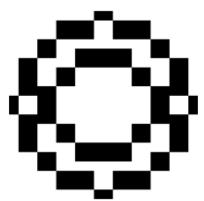


# Example



**NOTE:**

Taking the derivatives of both the slope and the intercepts gives us the best fit



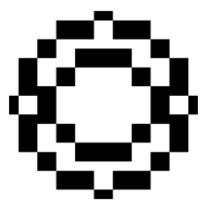
# How?

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

$\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  estimate  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  from data

$$\text{SumSquaredResid} = \sum(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 = \sum\left(Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)\right)^2$$

- We need to minimize a certain function. So:
  - We take the partial derivatives with respect to  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$
  - We set those partial derivatives equal to zero
  - We solve the equations for  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$



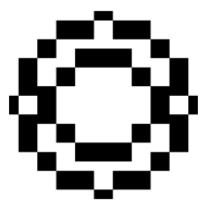
# How?

Taking the partial derivative with respect to  $\hat{\beta}_0$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{\beta}_0} \sum (Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i))^2 = \dots = -2 \sum (Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i))$$

Taking the partial derivative with respect to  $\hat{\beta}_1$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{\beta}_1} \sum (Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i))^2 = \dots = -2 \sum X_i (Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i))$$



# How?

Then we set the partial derivative equal to zero

$$-2 \sum (Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad -2 \sum X_i (Y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)) = 0$$

Solving the first equation in order to  $\hat{\beta}_0$  we get:

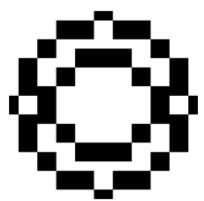
$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$$

Substituting  $\hat{\beta}_0$  by  $\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$  on the second equation we get:

$$\sum X_i (Y_i - (\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X} + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)) = 0$$

...

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum (X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y}))}{\sum (X_i(X_i - \bar{X}))}$$

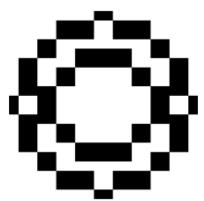


# How?

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum(X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y}))}{\sum(X_i(X_i - \bar{X}))} \text{ which is equivalent to } \hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

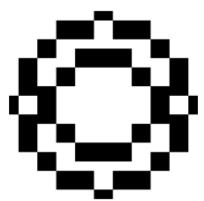
- So, finally we get

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2} \text{ and } \hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$$



# Getting our example

ID	Area	Price (€)	$(x_i - \bar{x})$	$(x_i - \bar{x})^2$	$(y_i - \bar{y})$	$(y_i - \bar{y})^2$	$(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$
1	50	360	-22.33	498.78	-79.00	6241.00	1764.333
2	70	340	-2.33	5.44	-99.00	9801.00	231
3	100	664	27.67	765.44	225.00	50625.00	6225
4	54	330	-18.33	336.11	-109.00	11881.00	1998.333
5	85	560	12.67	160.44	121.00	14641.00	1532.667
6	75	380	2.67	7.11	-59.00	3481.00	-157.333
Sum		434	2634	1773.3		96670	11594
Average		72.33	439.00				



# Example

Calculate the coefficient / slope

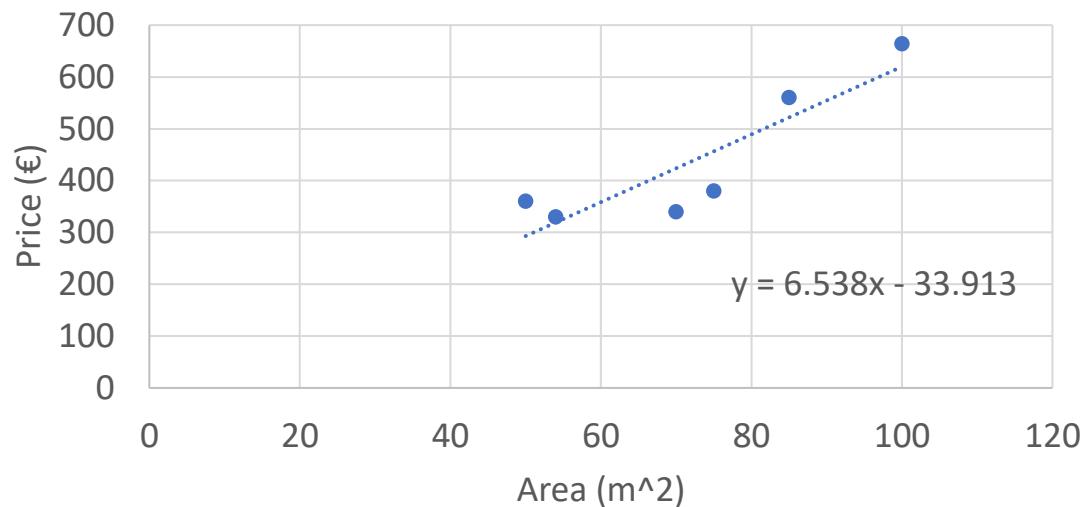
$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{11594}{1773.3} = 6.538$$

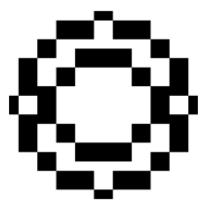
Find the Intercept

$$\beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x} = 439 - 6.538 \times 72.33 = -33.912$$

Regression equation

$$y = 6.538x - 33.913$$





# Example

The regression equation is:  $y = 6.538x - 33.913$

Interpretation of the results:

- The slope of 6.538 means that with an increase of one unit in X, we predict Y to increase by an estimated 6.538 units.
- The equation estimates that for each increase of 1 squared meter in the size of the house, the expected price is predicted to increase by 6.538 €

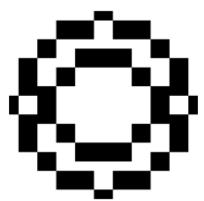
If want to predict the price of a house with 90  $m^2$ . Then:

$$\hat{y} = 6.538 \times 90 - 33.913 = 554.50 \text{ €}$$

Check how far away is my prediction for house with id 6:

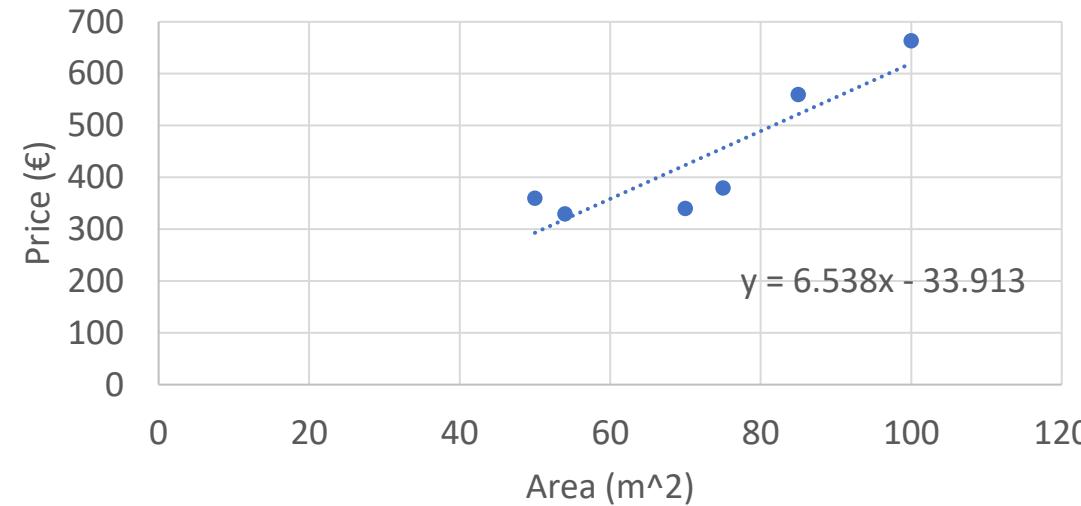
$$\hat{y} = 75 - 33.913 = 456.43 \text{ €}$$

$$y = 380 \text{ €}$$

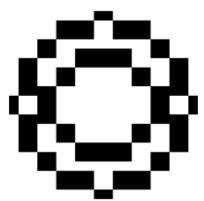


## We fitted a line

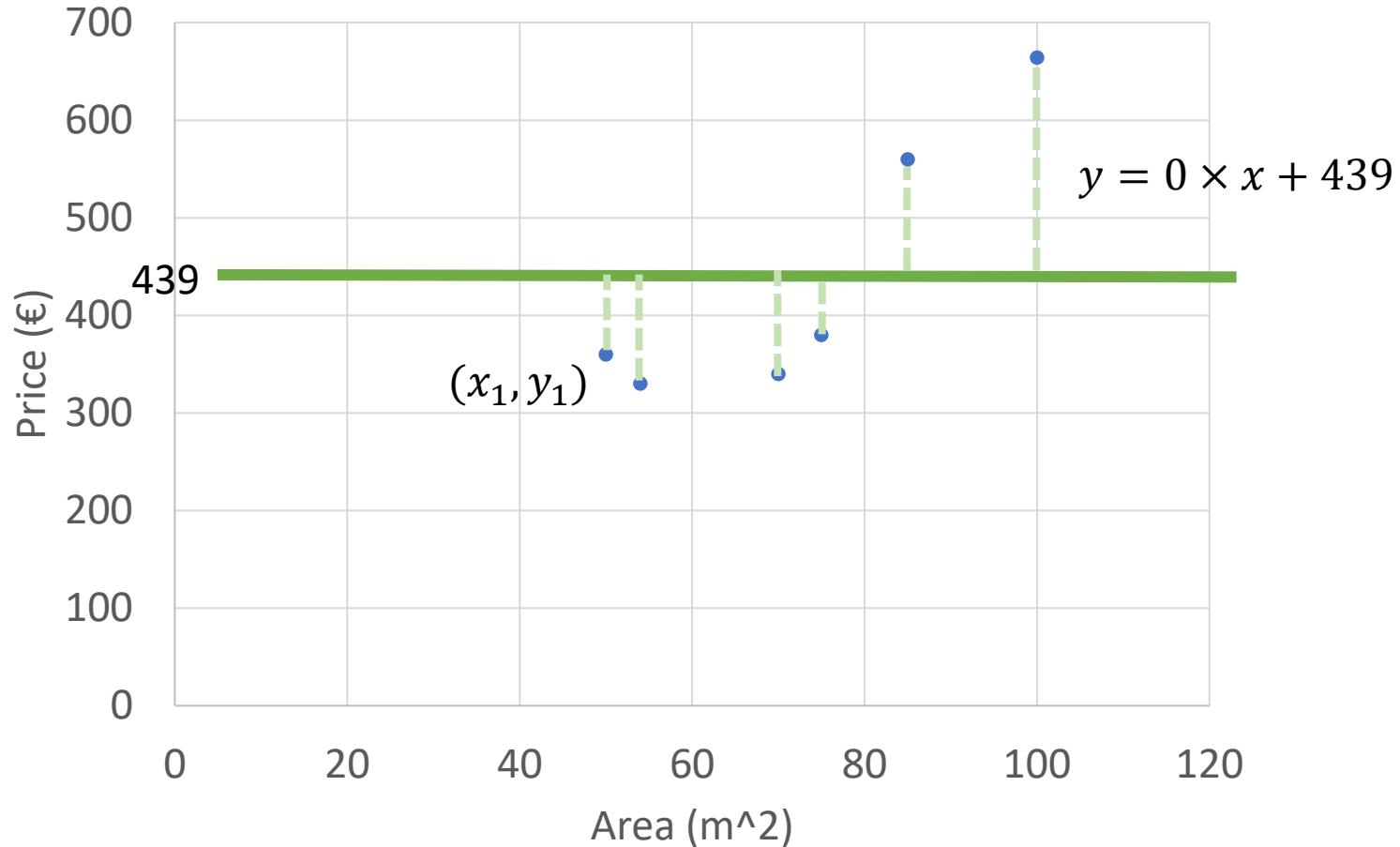
- Since the slope is not zero, it means the knowing the area of a house will help us making a guess about its price



- But how good is that guess?
  - Calculating  $R^2$  will help us...

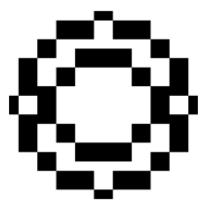


$R^2$

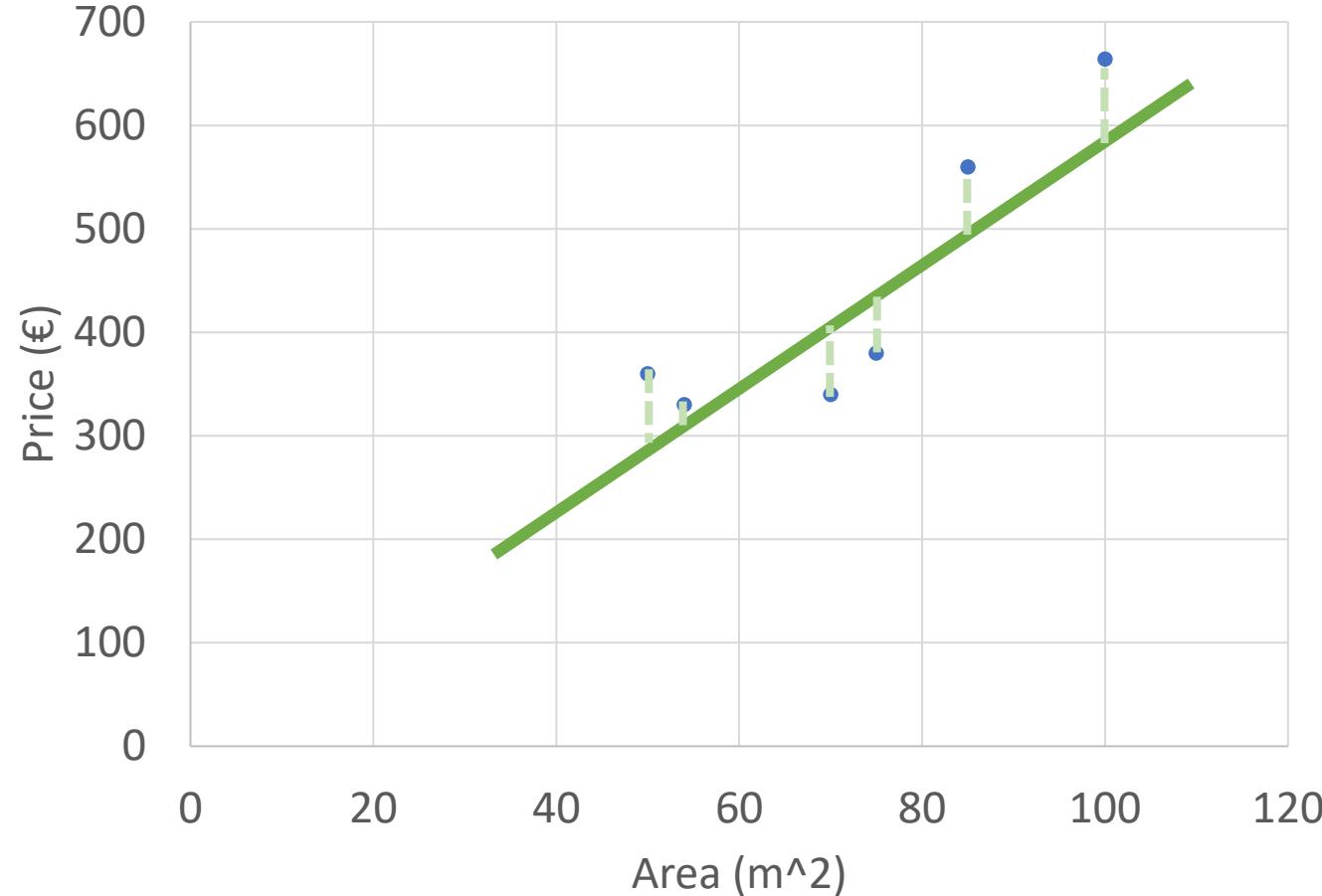


Sum of squares around the mean (or SST) or  $SS(\text{mean}) = \sum(y_i - \bar{y})^2$

And the variation around the mean or  $\text{Var}(\text{mean}) = \frac{\sum(y_i - \bar{y})^2}{n} = \frac{SS(\text{mean})}{n}$

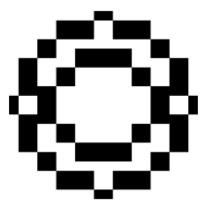


$R^2$

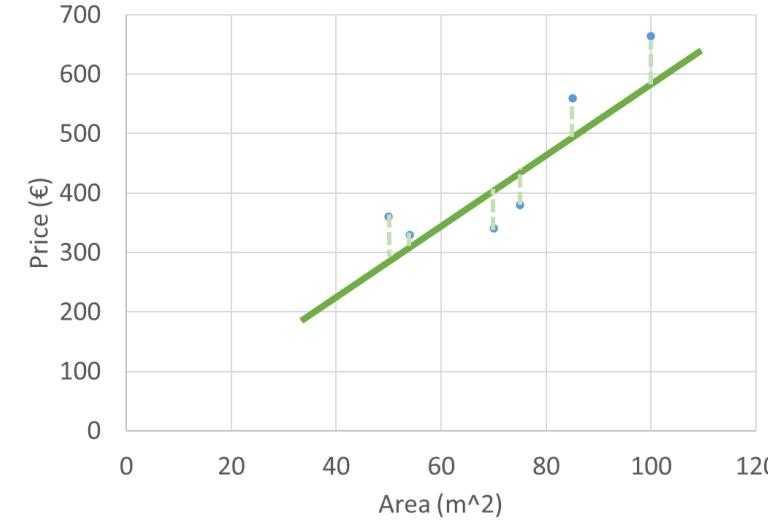
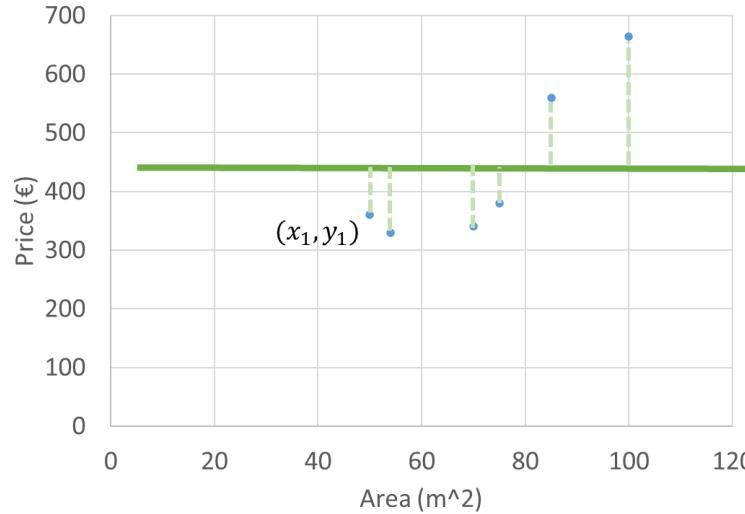


Sum of squares around the least-squares fit or  $SS(fit) = \sum(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$

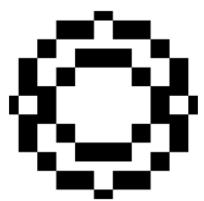
And the variation around the LS or  $\text{Var}(fit) = \frac{\sum(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n} = \frac{SS(fit)}{n}$



$R^2$



- There is less variation around the LS line compared to the raw variation of prices
- So, we can say that some of the variation in the prices is “explained” by taking house size into account
  - Bigger houses are more expensive and smaller houses are cheaper
- **$R^2$  tells us how much of the variation** in the price can be explained by taking its size into account



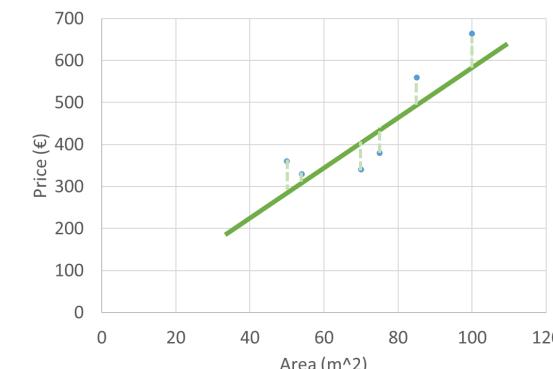
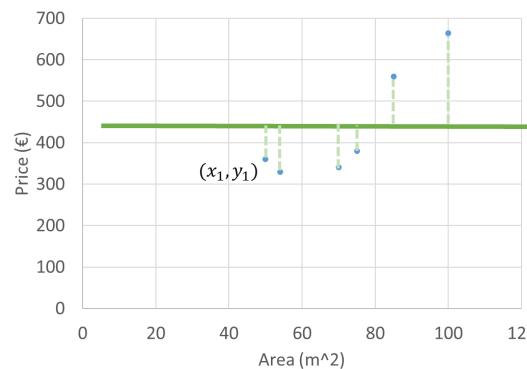
$R^2$

- **$R^2$  tells us how much of the variation in the price can be explained by taking its size into account**

$$R^2 = \frac{Var(mean) - Var(fit)}{Var(mean)}$$

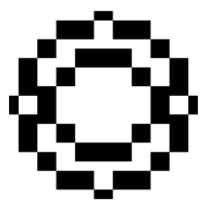
or

$$R^2 = \frac{SS(mean) - SS(fit)}{SS(mean)}$$



$$\begin{aligned}SS(mean) &= 16111.67 \\SS(fit) &= 3478.1 \\R^2 &= 0.784\end{aligned}$$

So, 78% of the price of the houses can be explained by its size

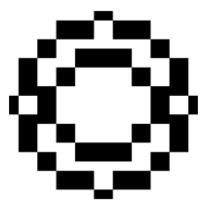


## Adjusted $R^2$

- Because models with more features always explain more variation we should use an alternative to the R-squared
- The adjusted R-squared value corrects R-squared by penalizing models with a large number of independent variables!

$$Adjusted\ R^2 = 1 - \frac{(1 - R^2)(N - 1)}{N - p - 1}$$

R-squared  
↓  
  
# samples      # independent variables



# Example

Imagine we are analyzing a simple dataset of an insurance company, with 1338 observations and 7 variables.

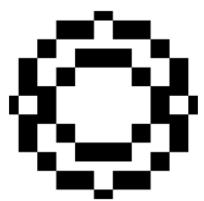
We build a simple regression model that we can use to predict expenses by establishing a statistically significant linear relationship with the independent variables.

Before we use this model, we should ensure that it is **statistically significant!**

Coefficients:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	-11941.6	987.8	-12.089	< 0.0000000000000002	
age	256.8	11.9	21.586	< 0.0000000000000002	
sexmale	-131.3	332.9	-0.395		0.693255
bmi	339.3	28.6	11.864	< 0.0000000000000002	
children	475.7	137.8	3.452		0.000574
smokeryes	23847.5	413.1	57.723	< 0.0000000000000002	
regionnorthwest	-352.8	476.3	-0.741		0.458976
regionsoutheast	-1035.6	478.7	-2.163		0.030685
regionsouthwest	-959.3	477.9	-2.007		0.044921

The **standard error** of the coefficient measures the precision of the estimate of the coefficient, how precisely the model estimates the coefficient's unknown value.

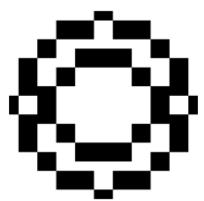
The **t-value** is the parameter estimate (aka coefficient) divided by its standard error. The significance of this statistic is given by the **p-value** column.



# Example

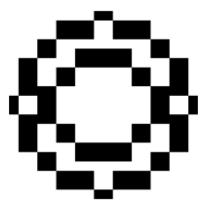
- **p-value** for each term tests the null hypothesis that the coefficient is equal to zero (no effect).
- A low p-value (< 0.05) indicates that you can reject the null hypothesis.
  - a predictor that has a low p-value is likely to be a meaningful addition to your model because changes in the predictor's value are related to changes in the response variable.
- **p-values lower than the significance level**, a threshold chosen prior to building the model, **are considered statistically significant**

Coefficients:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	-11941.6	987.8	-12.089	< 0.0000000000000002	
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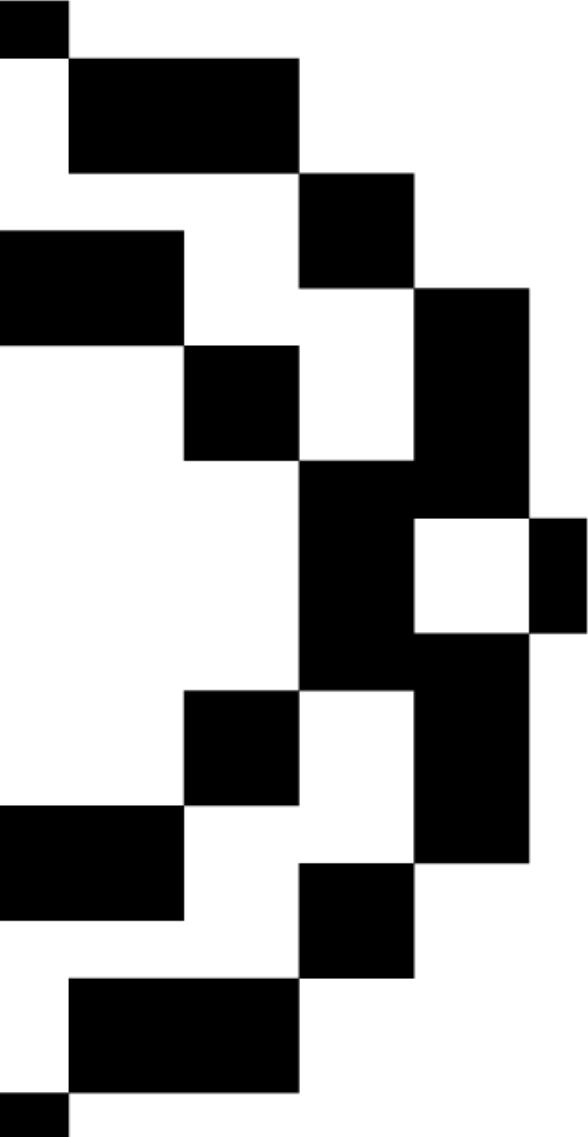
# Example

STATISTIC	CRITERION
R- squared	Higher the better
Adj R-squared	Higher the better
Std. Error	Closer to zero the better
t-statistic	Should be greater than 1.96 for p-value to be less than 0.05
p-value	Should be smaller than the defined threshold

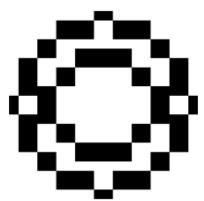


## Some references

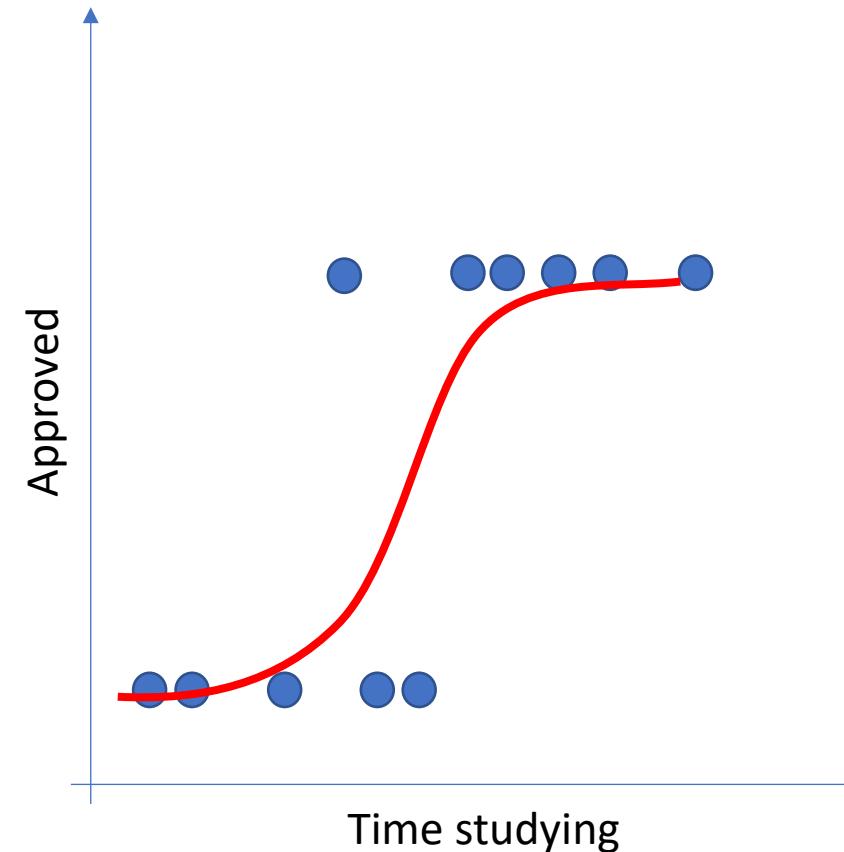
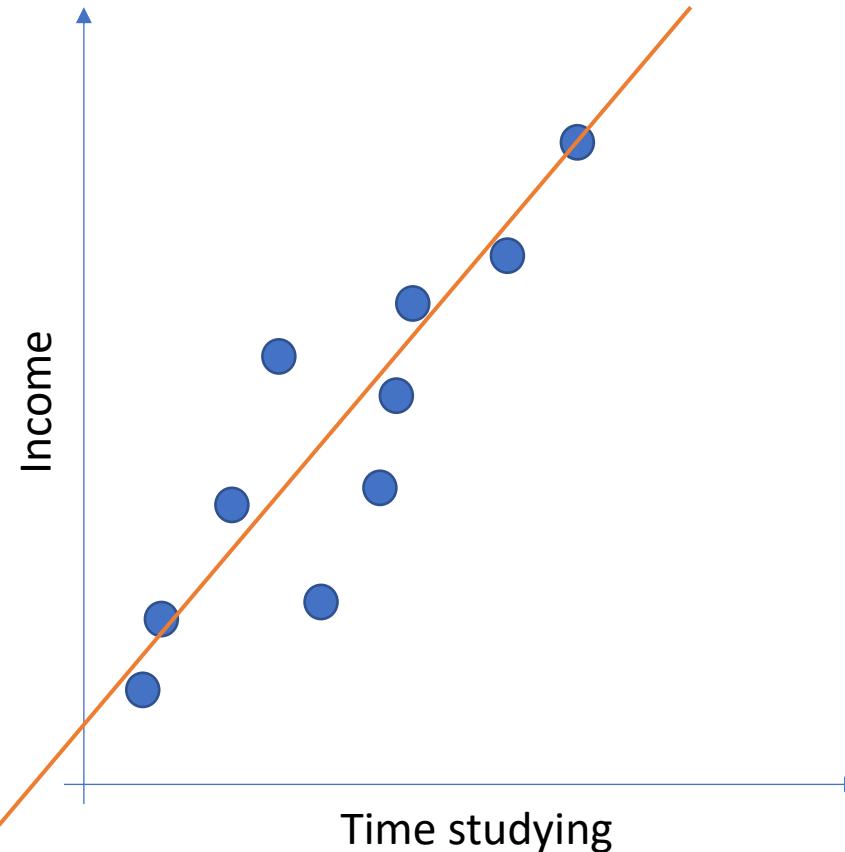
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- ✓ Hill, R. C., Griffiths, W. E. e Lim, G. C. (2012). *Principles of Econometrics*. 4th edition, John Wiley and Sons.
- ✓ Menard, S. (2010). *Logistic Regression – From Introductory to Advanced Concepts and Applications*. SAGE Publications, Inc..
- ✓ Wooldridge, J.M. (2012): *Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach*, 5th Edition, South- Western Cengage Learning.



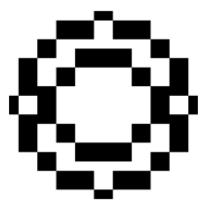
# Logistic Regression



# Logistic regression



- Logistic regression predicts whether something is true or false, instead of a continuous variable such as income



# <sup>31</sup>Linear vs. Logistic Regression

## Linear Regression

**Outcome:** The dependent variable is quantitative/ continuous

*Example:* height, weight, price...

**Coefficient interpretation:** straightforward (holding all the other variables constant, with a unit increase in a variable, the dependent variable is expected to increase/decrease by x)

**Error minimization technique:** uses OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) to minimize the errors

**Error term:** follows a normal distribution

## Logistic Regression

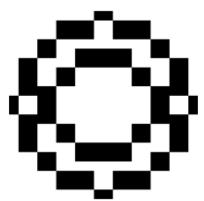
**Outcome:** The dependent variable is qualitative/ limited to a specific number of possible values

*Example:* yes/no, true/false, red/green/blue...

**Coefficient interpretation:** not as straightforward

**Error minimization technique:** uses MLE (Maximum Likelihood Estimation)

**Error term:** does not follow a normal distribution



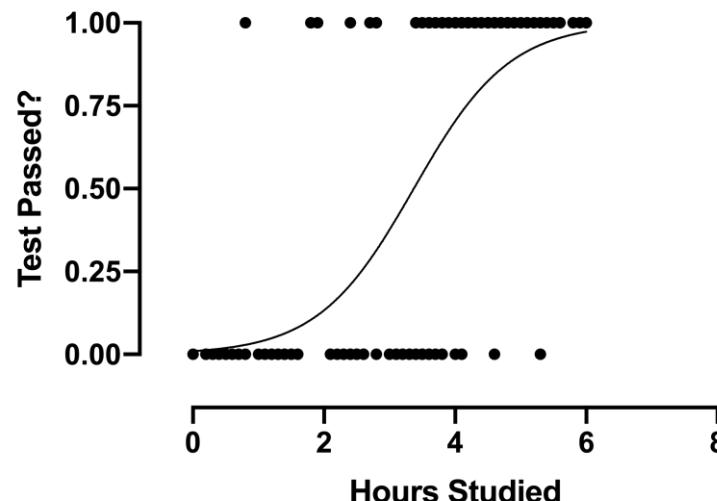
# Linear vs. Logistic Regression

## Qualitative Target

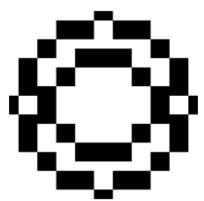
Let's consider we want to estimate a model where the dependent variable is limited to a binary response

$$y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if student passed the test} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If we apply a scatter diagram to this dataset, we are going to obtain a completely distinct visualization from the ones where the response is continuous!



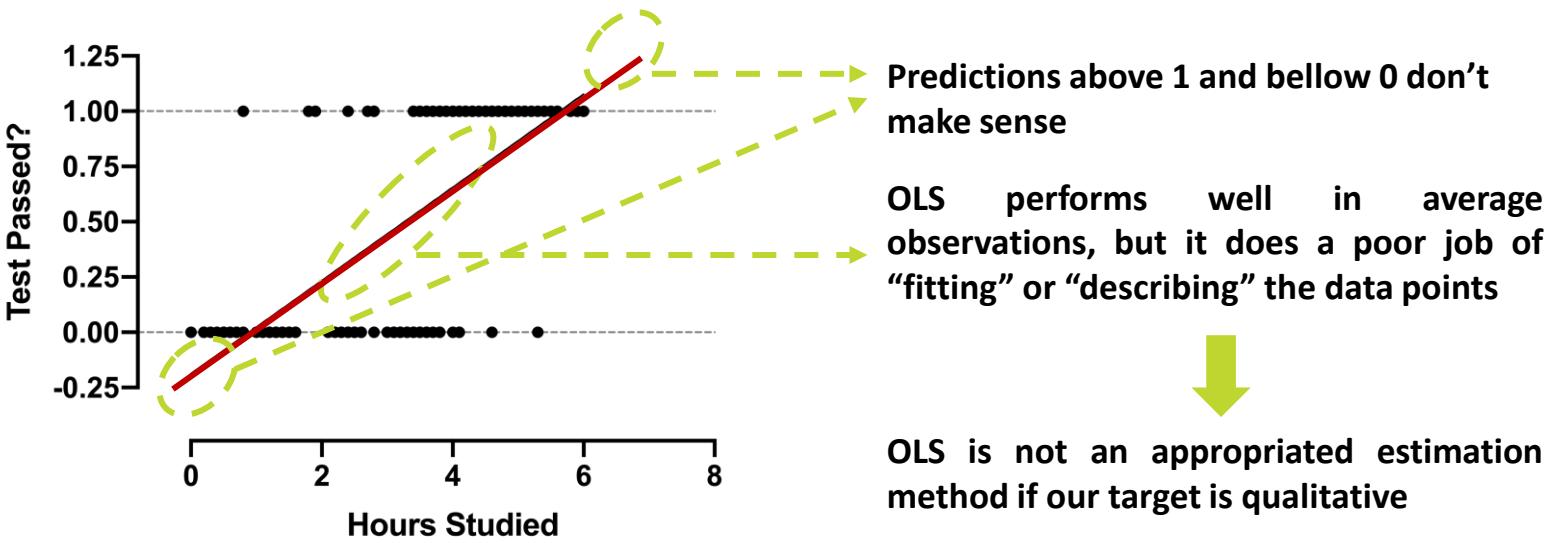
Reflects that the dependent variable is limited to two possible outcomes



# Linear vs. Logistic Regression

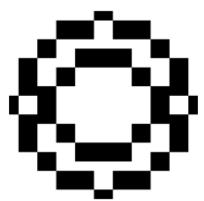
## Qualitative Target

How to determine the best fit model through data where the dependent variable is limited to a set of outcomes?



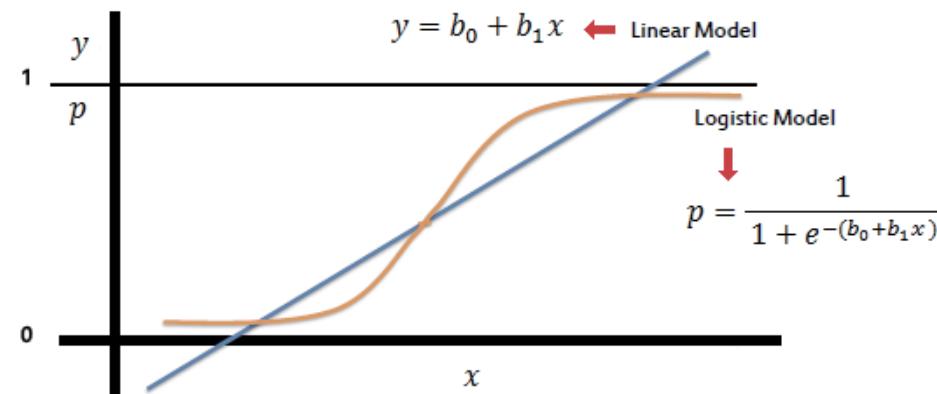
Main drawbacks of using linear models in these cases:

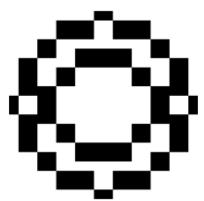
1. Having probabilities above 1 or bellow 0, which are impossible outcomes
2. Assuming that the probability changes linearly with the explanatory variables



# Logistic Regression

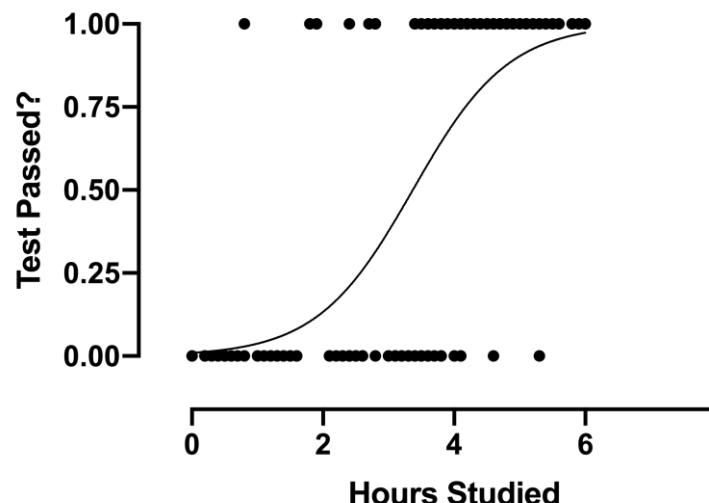
- In logistic regression, input features are linearly scaled just as with linear regression however
  - the result are then fed as an input to the logistic function
- This function provides a nonlinear transformation on its input and ensures that the range of the output, which is interpreted as the probability of the input belonging to class 1, lies in the interval  $[0,1]$



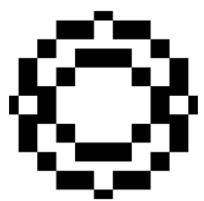


# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

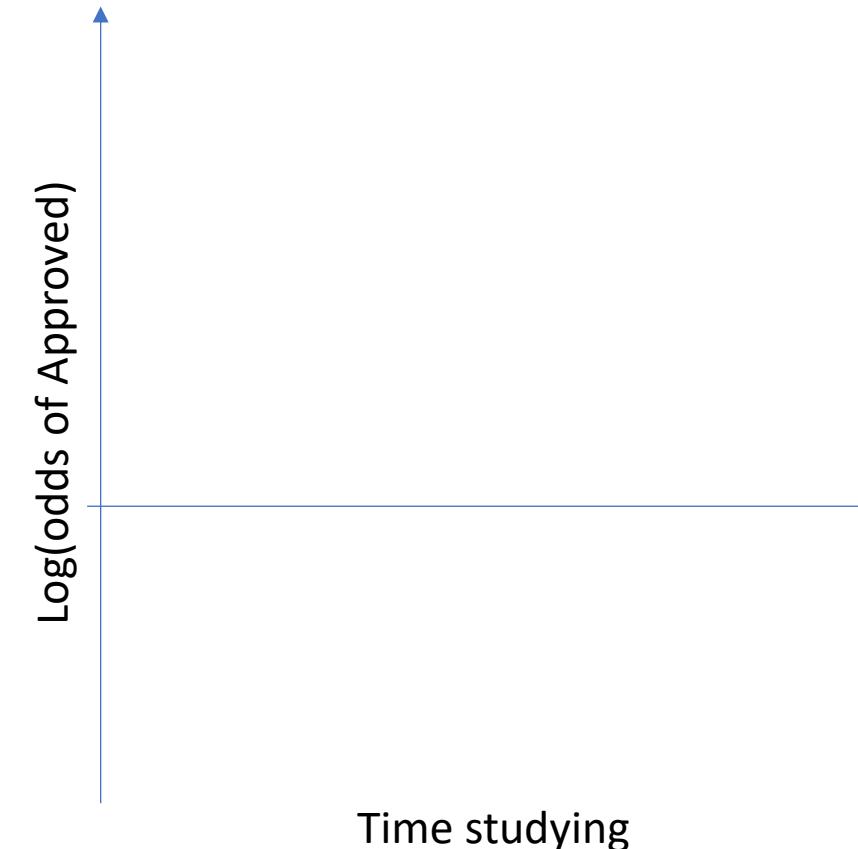
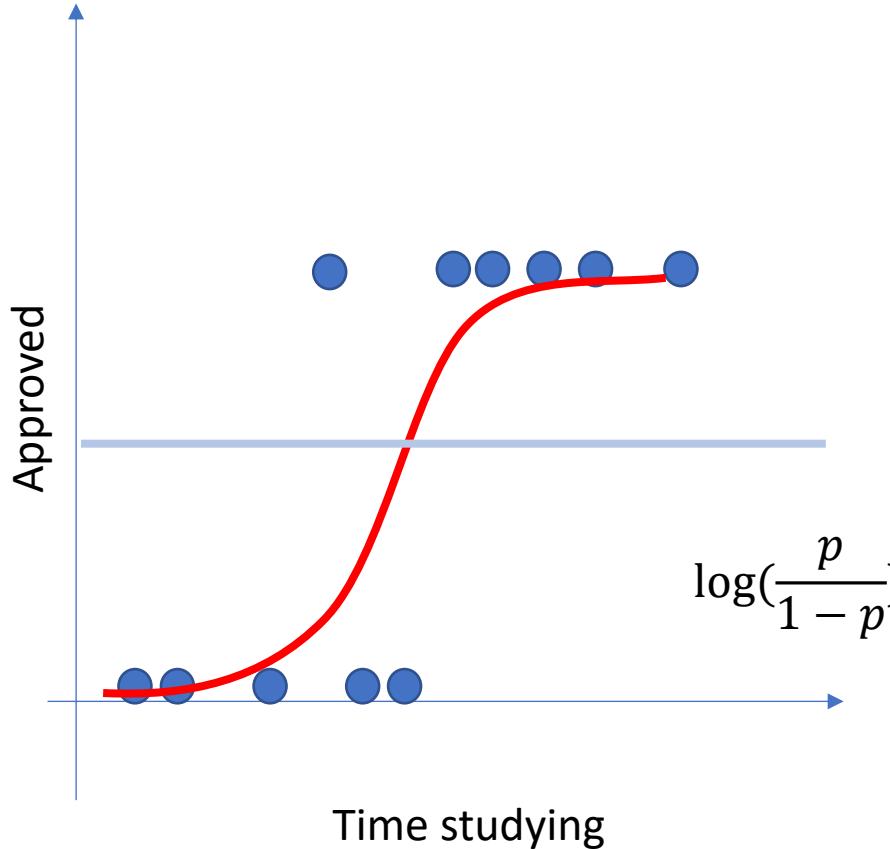
- To obtain the estimated vector of parameters we use **Maximum Likelihood Estimation** (MLE)
- This means that we need to find the estimates for  $\beta$  (the vector of the values  $\hat{\beta}$ ) that **maximize the probability, or likelihood, of observing the sample**



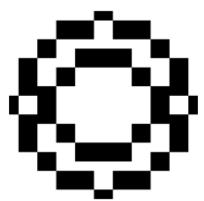
We are trying to find the best “S-shaped” function for our data!



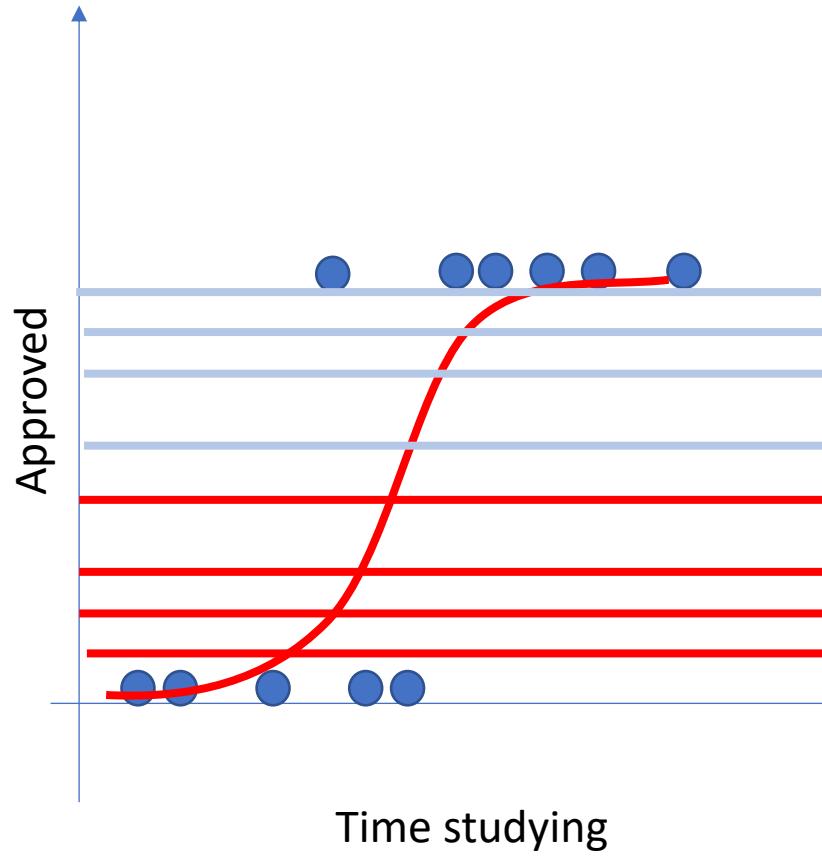
ML



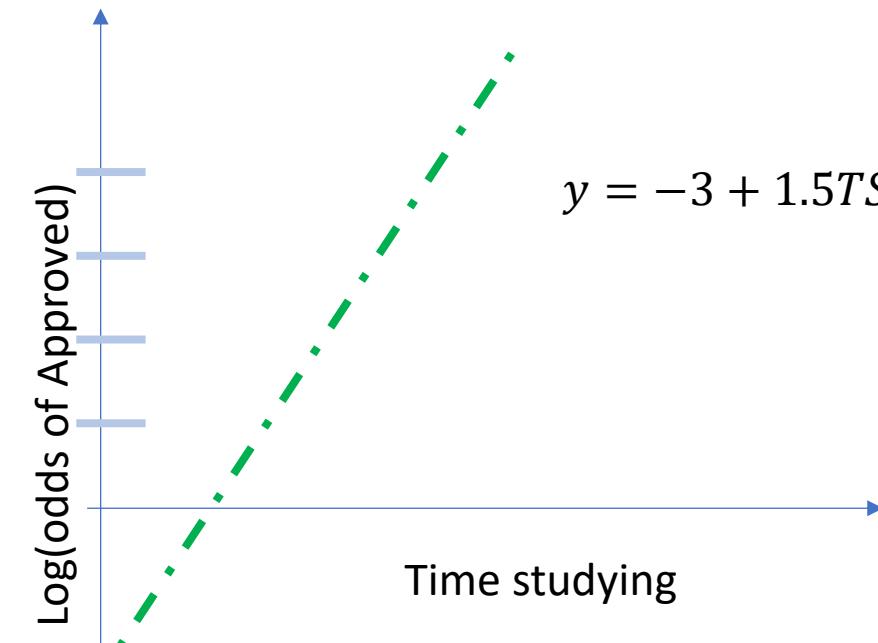
The y axis in a logistic regression is transformed from the probability of Approved to the  $\log(\text{odds of approval})$   
 $P$  is the probability of a student being approved



ML

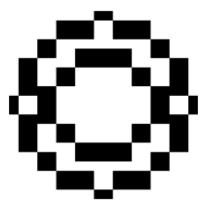


$$\text{probability to log(odds)} \rightarrow \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)$$

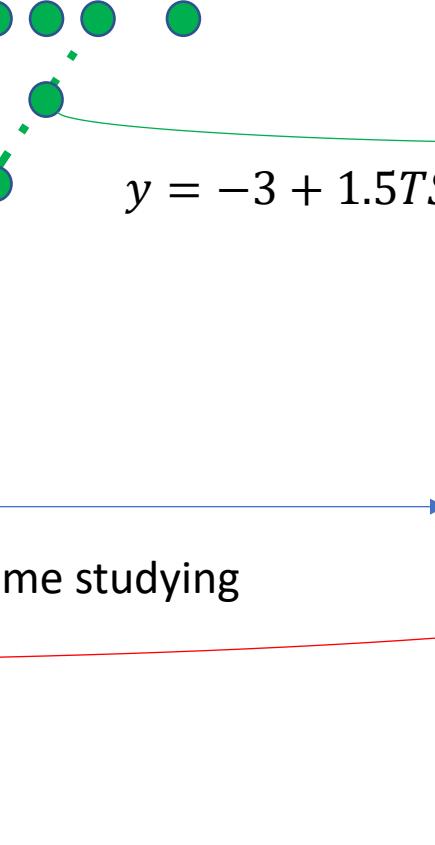
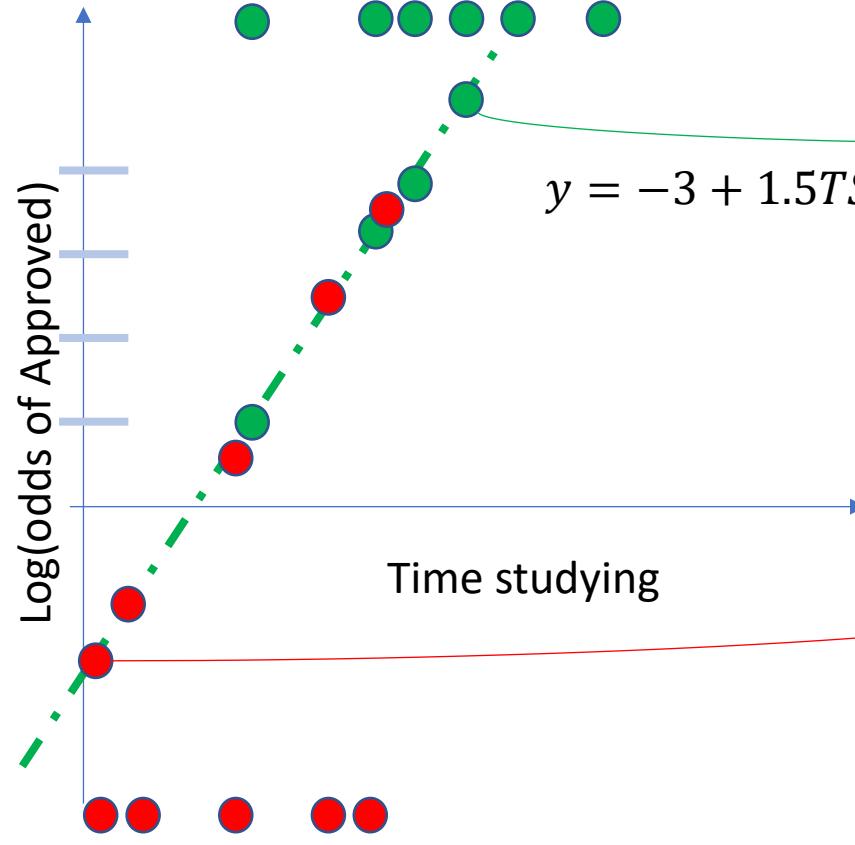


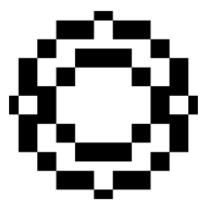
p	$\log(p/1-p)$
0.5	0
0.731	0.999702
0.88	1.99243
0.95	2.944439
1	#DIV/0!

p	$\log(p/1-p)$
0.5	0
0.27	-0.99462
0.119	-2.00193
0.047	-3.00947
0	#NUM!

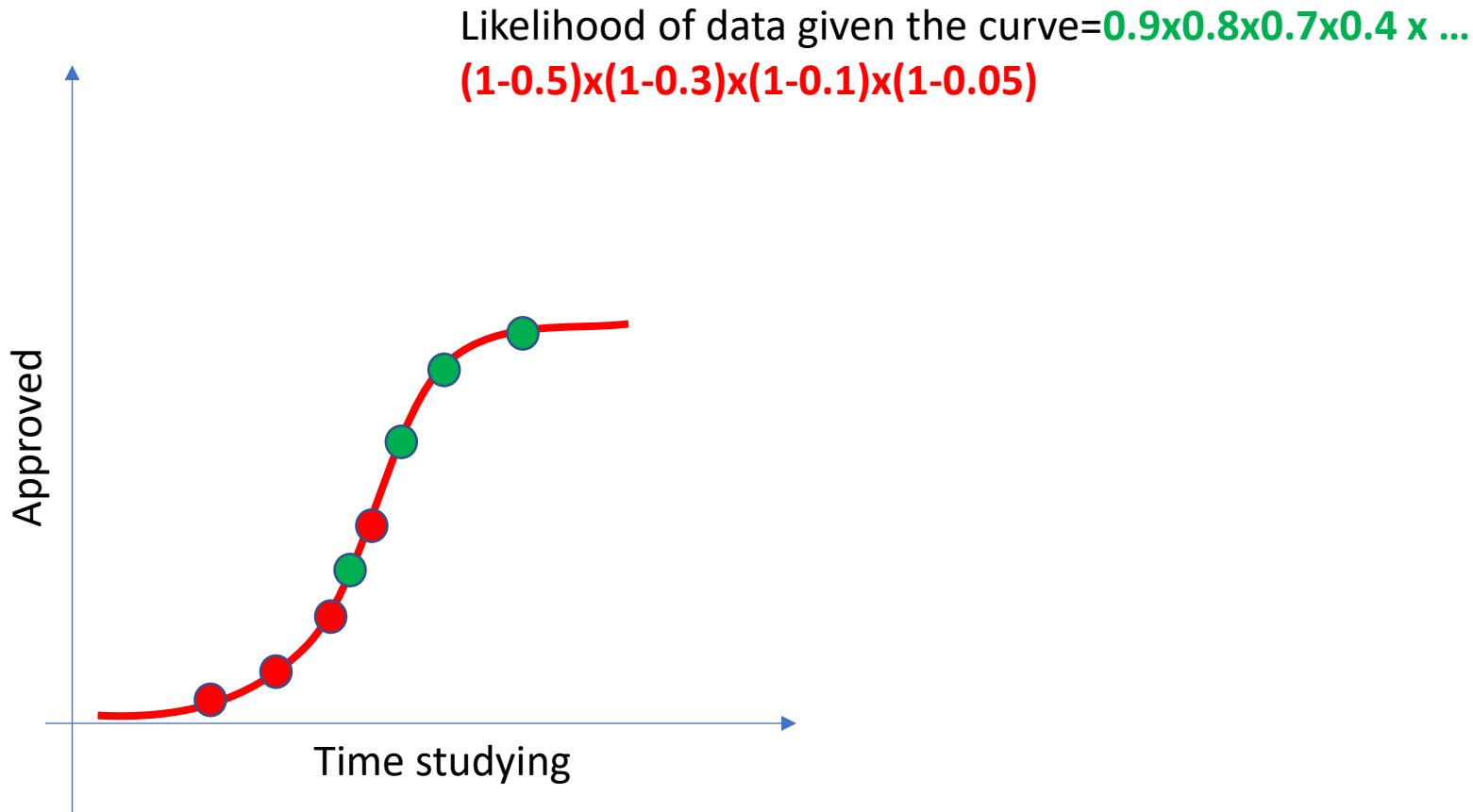


ML

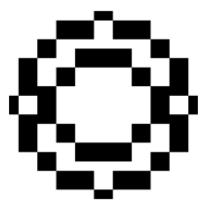




ML



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Log(Likelihood of data given the curve)} &= \log(0.9) + \log(0.8) + \log(0.7) + \log(0.4) \\ &\quad + \log(1-0.5) + \log(1-0.3) + \log(1-0.1) + \log(1-0.05) \\ &= 3.8\end{aligned}$$

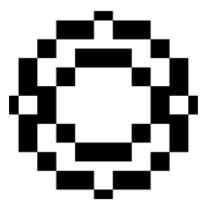


# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

The parameters are chosen to **maximize the likelihood of observing the sample values** rather than minimizing the sum of squared errors



- ▲ There are no formulas that give these estimates like there are in least squares estimation of the linear regression model
- ▲ One needs to use the computer and techniques from numerical analysis (it is easier to maximize the log-likelihood function, instead of the likelihood)
- ▲ ML estimates are then obtained using an iterative algorithm, which starts with arbitrary values and the process is repeated until the log-likelihood doesn't change significantly



# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

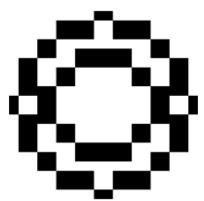
This is what the estimated equation will look like:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i} \dots + \hat{\beta}_k x_{ki}$$

- ✓ From the **value** of  $\hat{y}_i$  one can obtain the estimated probability

$$\hat{P}(y_i = 1 | X_i) = \frac{e^{\hat{y}_i}}{1 + e^{\hat{y}_i}}$$

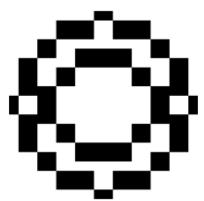
- ✓ The **parameters**  $\hat{\beta}_k$  determines the rate of increase or decrease of the S-shaped curve for  $\hat{\pi}_i$ 
  - ❶ The sign of  $\hat{\beta}_k$  indicates whether the curve ascends ( $\hat{\beta}_k > 0$ ) or descends ( $\hat{\beta}_k < 0$ )
  - ❷ The rate of change in the curve increases as  $|\hat{\beta}_k|$  increases



# Example

We have a dataset with 683 observations, and the column 'Class' is our dependent variable, that tells us if a given tissue is malignant or benign.

	Cl.thickness	Cell.size	Cell.shape	Marg.adhesion	Epith.c.size	Bare.nuclei	Bl.cromatin	Normal.nucleoli	Mitoses	Class
1	5	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	1	0
2	5	4	4	5	7	10	3	2	1	0
3	3	1	1	1	2	2	3	1	1	0
4	6	8	8	1	3	4	3	7	1	0
5	4	1	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	0
6	8	10	10	8	7	10	9	7	1	1
7	1	1	1	1	2	10	3	1	1	0
8	2	1	2	1	2	1	3	1	1	0
9	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	5	0
10	4	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	0
11	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	0



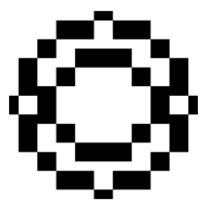
# Example

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
(Intercept)	-7.7836	0.7906	-9.845	< 0.0000000000000002
c1.thickness	0.6683	0.1185	5.641	0.0000000169
Cell.size	0.5540	0.1732	3.198	0.001385
Cell.shape	0.6807	0.1813	3.754	0.000174

▲ Contrarily to linear regression, we cannot directly interpret the coefficient estimates, but we can say that:

- ✓ The positive sign in the thickness, the size and the shape of the cell ( $\hat{\beta}_k > 0$ ) indicates that the curve ascends – increase in the probability
- ✓ The rate of change in the curve is higher for shape than for the size of the cell, since the rate of change in the curve increases as  $|\hat{\beta}_k|$  increases



## Example

Here we have our estimated equation:

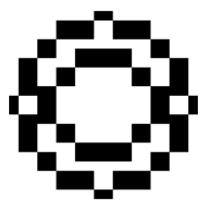
$$\widehat{malign}_i = -7.7836 + 0.6683 \text{ thickness} + 0.5540 \text{ size} + 0.6807 \text{ shape}$$

If we consider a cell where the **thickness is 5**, the **size is 2** and the **shape is 2**, we can easily compute the predicted probability of the cell being malignant:

$$\widehat{malign}_i = -7.7836 + 0.6683 * 5 + 0.5540 * 2 + 0.6807 * 2 = -1.9727$$

$$\Lambda(\widehat{malign}_i) = \frac{e^{\widehat{malign}_i}}{1 + e^{\widehat{malign}_i}} = \frac{e^{-1.9727}}{1 + e^{-1.9727}} = 0,1221$$

- ♀ In the scenario described above, there's an expected **probability of the cell being malignant equal to 12%**!



## Example

What if a cell has **thickness of 10**, **size of 8** and **shape of 9**?

$$\widehat{malign}_i = -7.7836 + 0.6683 * 10 + 0.5540 * 8 + 0.6807 * 9 = 9.4577$$

$$\Lambda(\widehat{malign}_i) = \frac{e^{\widehat{malign}_i}}{1 + e^{\widehat{malign}_i}} = \frac{e^{9.4577}}{1 + e^{9.4577}} = 0.999$$

⌚ In the scenario described above, there's an **expected probability of the cell being malign of 99%**!

