#### Linear Regression Models P8111

Lecture 25

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#### Today's Lecture

- Logistic regression / GLMs
  - ► Model framework
  - ► Interpretation ✓
  - ► Estimation ✓

#### Linear regression

Course started with the model

$$\underbrace{y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i}_{\mathcal{V}}$$

$$\underbrace{\epsilon_i \sim (0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)}$$

In particular,  $y_i$  has been continuous throughout the course

$$y_i|_{x_i} \sim \nu(x\beta,\sigma_i^2)$$

### Binary responses

Binary outcomes are common in practice; usually indicate some event

- Yes vs no
- Transplant vs no transplant
- Death vs no death

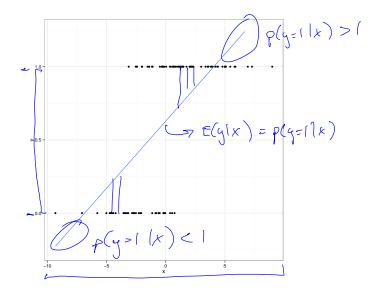


# Binary responses

How should we deal with binary (0/1) y's?

- Regression focuses on  $E(y|x) = x\beta$ 
  - For binary outcomes, we want E(y|x) = p(y = 1|x)
  - Does  $p_i = p(y = 1|x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i \text{ work?}$

### Linear regression for binary outcome



# What we need for binary outcomes

- Fitted probabilities should be between 0 and 1
- Use a invertible function  $g:(0,1) \to (-\infty,\infty)$  to *link* probabilities to the real line
- Build a model for  $g(p_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$

#### Link functions

- Lots of possible link functions: logit, probit, complimentary log-log
- By far, most common is the <u>logit</u> link:

$$g(p_i) = logit(p_i) = log \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} = 2;$$

■ The inverse link function is also useful:

$$g^{-1}(z) = \frac{\exp(z)}{1 + \exp(z)} = P;$$

# Logistic regression

Model is now 
$$E(y_i|x_i) = \underline{p_i}$$

$$g(p_i) = \log \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} = \underline{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}$$

Using the logit link, we have

$$\mu(z_{i}, \beta) = g^{-1}(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}) = \frac{\exp(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i})}{1 + \exp(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i})}$$

# Parameter interpretation

Suppose we can estimate  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ; what do they mean? For a binary predictor ...

$$\rho_0 = E(y|x=0)$$

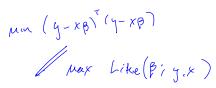
$$Log odds$$

$$\rho_1 = Log o$$

#### Parameter interpretation

For a continuous predictor ...

#### Parameter estimation



- For linear regression, we used least squares and found that this corresponded to ML
- Try using maximum likelihood for logistic regression; need a likelihood ...

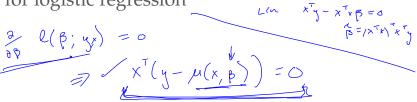
# ML for logistic regression

- Assume that  $[y_i|x_i] \sim Bern(p_i)$
- Density function is  $p(y_i) = p_i^{y_i} (1 p_i)^{1 y_i}$
- As before, use that  $logit(p_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$
- Likelihood is

$$L(\beta_0, \beta_1; \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i^{y_i} (1 - p_i)^{1 - y_i}$$

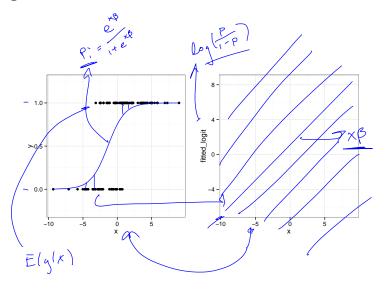
$$P = \underbrace{e^{\times P}}_{1 + e^{\times P}} \left( \underbrace{\mathbb{T} \left( \frac{e^{\times P}}{1 + e^{\times P}} \right)^{y_i} (1 - \underbrace{\mathbb{T}}_{1 - y_i})^{1 - y_i}}_{1 + e^{\times P}} \right)^{y_i}$$

ML for logistic regression



- Log likelihood is easier to work with, but it is typically not possible to find a closed-form solution
- Iterative algorithms are used instead (Newton-Raphson, Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares)
- These are implemented for a variety of link functions in *R*

# Example



#### Code

```
> model = glm(y~x, family = binomial(link = "logit"), data = data)
> summary (model)
Call:
qlm(formula = y ~ x, family = binomial(link = "logit"), data = data)
Deviance Residuals:
        10 Median 30
   Min
                                  Max
-1.9360 -0.4631 0.1561 0.5564 1.8131
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 1.1072 0.3357 3.298 0.000974 ***
         X
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 129.49 on 99 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 73.24 on 98 degrees of freedom
AIC: 77.24
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 6
```

# Multiple predictors

- Essentially everything that worked for linear models works for logistic models:
  - ► Multiple predictors of various types
  - ► Interactions ✓
  - ► Polynomials
  - ► Piecewise, splines
  - Penalization, random effects, Bayesian models)

### Testing in Logistic

- In linear models, many of our inferential procedures (ANOVA, F tests, ...) were based on RSS
- For <u>logistic regression</u> (and GLMs), we'll use the asymptotic Normality of MLEs:

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \to N[0, V]$$

with  $V = (X^T W X)^{-1}$  and weight matrix W to construct Wald tests

 Likelihood ratio tests can be used to compare nested models

#### Wald tests

#### For individual coefficients

■ We can use the test statistic

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{\widehat{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \quad \checkmark$$

- This is compared to a Normal distribution, trusting that the asymptotics have kicked in
- Recall that coefficients are on the logit scale ...

#### Confidence intervals

■ A confidence interval with coverage  $(1 - \alpha)$  is given by

$$\beta_j \pm t_{1-\alpha/2,n-p-1} \widehat{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)$$

■ To create a confidence interval for the  $\exp(\hat{\beta}_j)$ , the estimated odds ratio, exponentiate:

$$(\exp(\hat{\beta}_j - 2\widehat{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)), \exp(\hat{\beta}_j + 2\widehat{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)))$$

# Wald tests for multiple coefficients

- Define  $H_0 : \underline{c}^T \beta = c^T \beta_0$  or  $H_0 : c^T \beta = 0$
- We can use the test statistic

$$T = \frac{c^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - c^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_0}{\hat{se}(c^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})} = \frac{c^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - c^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_0}{\sqrt{c^T Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})c}}$$

Useful for some tests, looking at fitted values

# Model building

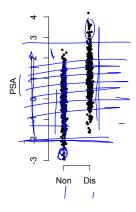
- Can define a model building strategy (at least for nested models) using these
- Other tools, like <u>AIC</u> and <u>BIC</u>, can compare non-nested models



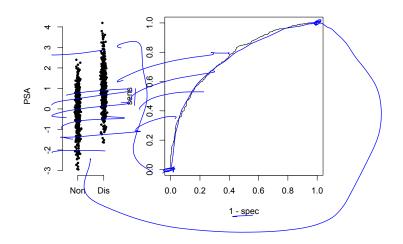
#### **ROC** curves

- Forget logistic for a minute
- Suppose you have some test to classifying subjects as diseased or non-diseased
- You can describe that test using sensitivity P(+|D) and specificity P(-|D')
- These values depend on what threshold you use for your test

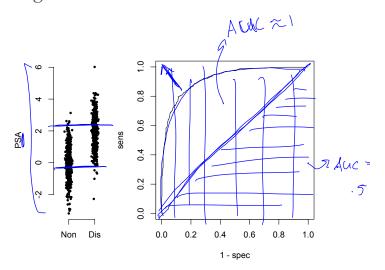
# Threshold effect on sens, spec



# Threshold effect on sens, spec



#### Better tests give better ROCs



# Summarizing ROCs

- Area under the curve is a useful summary of an ROC
- AUC shouldn't be less than .5; can't be more than 1
- Bigger AUC indicates better classification
- Useful alternative to AIC, BIC, etc

### Connection with logistic regression

- Your "test" might be  $\hat{\mu}_i = \hat{p}(y_i = 1|x_i)$
- You can model this probability using logistic regression
- Cross-validated ROCs are a way to compare the predictive performance of different models:
  - ▶ Based on fitted model (from training set) you construct fitted probabilities  $\hat{\mu}_i = \frac{\exp(x_i\beta)}{1+\exp(x_i\beta)}$  for subjects in the validation set
  - Validation subjects test "positive" or "negative" based on their fitted value; compare to the observed value

# Generalizing this approach

Suppose instead of binary data, we have

$$y_i \sim EF(\mu_i, \theta)$$

where

$$E(y_i|x_i) = \mu_i$$

and

$$Var(y_i|x_i) = a(\phi)V(x_i)$$

with known variance function  $V(\cdot)$  and dispersion parameter  $\phi$ 

#### Generalized Linear Model

Norm, Born, ...

- Model components are the

   Probability distribution (E(y))
  - Link function ←
  - Linear predictor



# Linear regression as a GLM

$$S[x] \sim N(\mu; | S[x])$$

$$E(y; | x; ) = \mu;$$

$$g(\mu; ) = \mu; = | x\beta|$$

$$g(x; \sim 3exu(p; )$$

$$E(y; | x; ) = p;$$

$$g(\rho; ) = lg(\frac{p;}{p;}) = | x\beta|$$

# Comparing linear and logistic

► Comparing linear, logistic, and Poisson regression models:

	L <u>inear</u>	Logistic	Poisson
Outcome	Continuous	Binary	Count /
Distribution	Normal	Binomia	Poisson
Parameter	$E(Y) = \mu$	E(Y) = p	$E(Y) = \lambda$
Range of mean	$-\infty < \mu < \infty$	$0$	$0 < \lambda < \infty$
Variance	$\sigma^2$	p(1 - p)	$\lambda \sim$
"Natural" Link	identity	logit	log

$$g(x) = log(x) = x p$$

#### Other link functions?

Logistic
$$E(y,y;) = p;$$

$$g(p;) = \lambda \beta$$

$$g(p;) = p; = x\beta$$

$$E(y|x) = p(y=1|x) = \beta + \beta + x;$$

$$E(y|x,1) = \beta + \beta + \beta + x;$$

$$\beta = (\beta + \beta + \beta + \beta + \beta + x)$$

$$\beta = (\beta + \beta + \beta + \beta + \beta + \beta + x)$$
Risk Differences

#### Other GLMs

Framework holds for any member of the exponential family

- Probability distribution
- Link function
- Linear predictor



### Exponential family distribution

Any distribution whose density can be expressed as

$$f(y|\theta,\phi) = \exp\left(\frac{y\theta + b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y,\phi)\right)$$

where  $b'(\theta) = \mu$  and  $\underline{b''(\theta) = V}$ 

- Can take some effort to convert usual density to this form
- Includes Normal, Bern, Poisson, Gamma, Multinomial, ...

# Exponential family examples

Normal:

$$f(y; \mu, \sigma^{2}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^{2}}} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}}(y - \mu)^{2}\right)$$

$$= \exp\left((y\mu - \mu^{2}/2)/\sigma^{2} - \frac{1}{2}(y^{2}/\sigma^{2} + \log(2\pi\sigma^{2}))\right)$$

$$\theta = \mu \qquad \theta = \mu$$

$$\theta = \mu \qquad \theta = \mu$$

$$g(n) = \theta = x \beta$$

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### Exponential family examples

Illi:
$$f(y;p) = \exp(y\log(p) + (1-y)\log(1-p))$$

$$= \exp\left(y\log\frac{p}{1-p} + (-\log(1-p))\right)$$

$$= \left(\theta\right) + \left$$

# Today's big ideas

■ Logistic regression and GLMs

■ Suggested reading: ISLR Ch 4.2 and 4.3