

Logistic Regression

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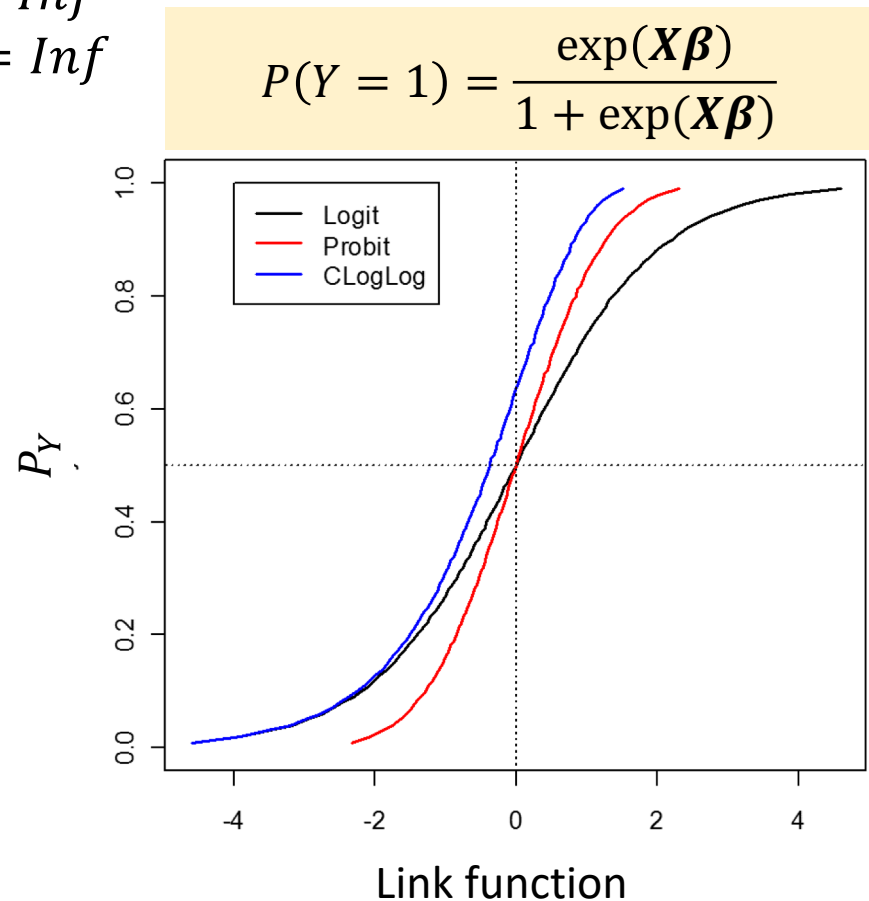
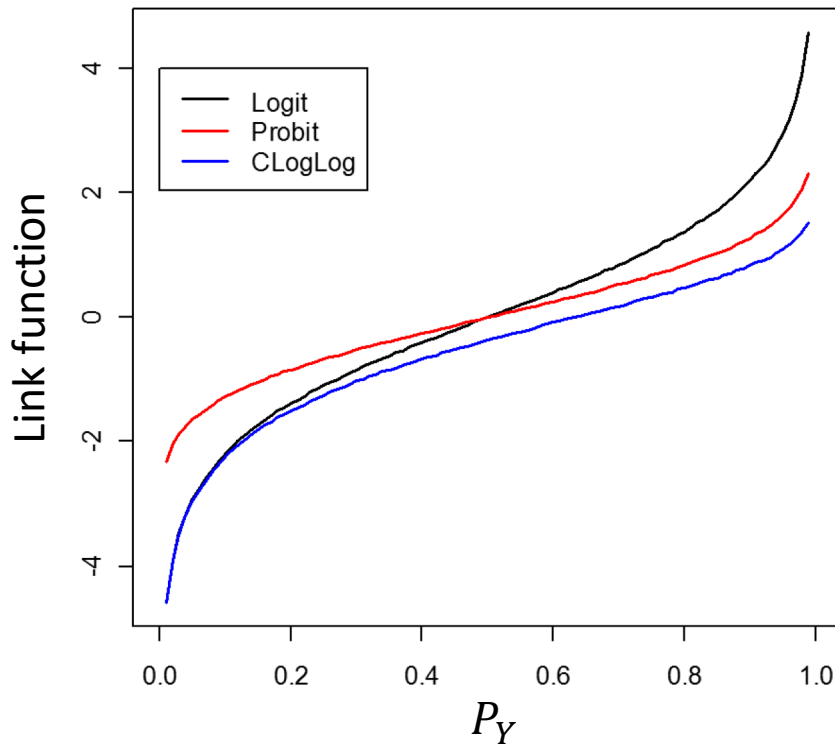
Logistic Regression

- To explain a dichotomous response variable on numeric and/or categorical explanatory variable(s)
 - Goal: Model the probability of a particular as a function of the predictor variable(s)
 - Problem: Probabilities are bounded between 0 and 1
- Distribution of response variable: binomial distribution
- Link function
 - $\text{logit}(P(Y = 1)) = \log\left(\frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)}\right)$
 - $\text{Probit}(P(Y = 1)) = \Phi^{-1}(P(Y = 1))$
 - $\text{cloglog}(P(Y = 1)) = \log[-\log(1 - P(Y = 1))]$

Properties of Link Functions

This is what you are interested in

- We denote $P(Y = 1)$ by P_Y
- They can take any value on the real line for $0 \leq P_Y \leq 1$
- Consider logit:
 - If $P_Y = 0$, $\text{logit}(P_Y) = \log(0) = -\text{Inf}$
 - If $P_Y = 1$, $\text{logit}(P_Y) = \log(\text{Inf}) = \text{Inf}$



Logistic Regression with 1 Predictor

- Response: Presence/Absence of characteristic
- Predictor: Numeric variable observed for each case
- Model: $P(Y = 1|X) \equiv$ Probability of presence at predictor level X

$$\log\left(\frac{P(Y = 1)}{1 - P(Y = 1)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta X$$

General form of logistic regression function

- β_0 : constant
- $\beta = 0$: $P(Y = 1)$ is the same at each level of X
- $\beta > 0$: $P(Y = 1)$ increases as X increases
- $\beta < 0$: $P(Y = 1)$ decreases as X increases

Logistic Regression with 1 Predictor

- β_0, β are unknown parameters and must be estimated using maximum likelihood estimation
- Primary interest in estimating and testing hypotheses regarding β
- Large-sample test (Wald Test):
 - $H_0: \beta = 0$ vs. $H_A: \beta \neq 0$
 - Test statistic (TS): $X_{obs}^2 = \left(\frac{\hat{\beta}}{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}}} \right)^2$
 - Rejected region (RR): $X_{obs}^2 \geq \chi_{\alpha,1}^2$
 - p value: $P(\chi^2 \geq X_{obs}^2)$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Logistic Regression Model

- $Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(P_i), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

This should be your training set. Those are given values.

$$f_i(y_i) = P(Y_i = y_i) = P_i^{y_i} (1 - P_i)^{1-y_i}, y_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

Y_i	Probability
1	P_i
0	$1 - P_i$

- Likelihood Function

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P_i^{y_i} (1 - P_i)^{1-y_i}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \log L = l &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log P_i + \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - y_i) \log(1 - P_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log \frac{P_i}{1 - P_i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 - P_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i (\beta_0 + \beta x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta x_i}) \end{aligned}$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Logistic Regression Model

- Partial derivatives w.r.t. β_0 and β

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta x_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta x_i}}$$

No closed-form solution ☹

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta x_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta x_i}}$$

- You can easily expand to the case of $Y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(r_i, P_i)$

$$f_i(y_i) = P(Y_i = y_i) = \binom{r_i}{y_i} P_i^{y_i} (1 - P_i)^{r_i - y_i}, \quad y_i = 0, 1, \dots, r_i$$

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n \binom{r_i}{y_i} P_i^{y_i} (1 - P_i)^{r_i - y_i}$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Logistic Regression Model

- Newton-Raphson method (gradient descent method)
 - Iterative process

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{new} &= \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old} - [l''(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old})]^{-1} l'(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old}) \\ &= \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old} + (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}^{old} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T [\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{old}] \quad \text{Matrix notation}\end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{old} = \text{diag}\left(P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old})(1 - P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old}))\right)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}^{old}: n\text{-dimensional vector with } i\text{-th element } P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old}) = \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old T} \mathbf{x}_i)}{1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old T} \mathbf{x}_i)}$$

It converges after 10~20 iterations!

c.f.) vector notation

$$\begin{aligned}l'(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i (y_i - P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})) = 0 \\ l''(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old}) &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^T P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})(1 - P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})) = 0\end{aligned}$$

Example - Rizatriptan for Migraine

- Response - Complete Pain Relief at 2 hours (Yes/No)
- Predictor - Dose (*mg*): Placebo (0),2.5,5,10

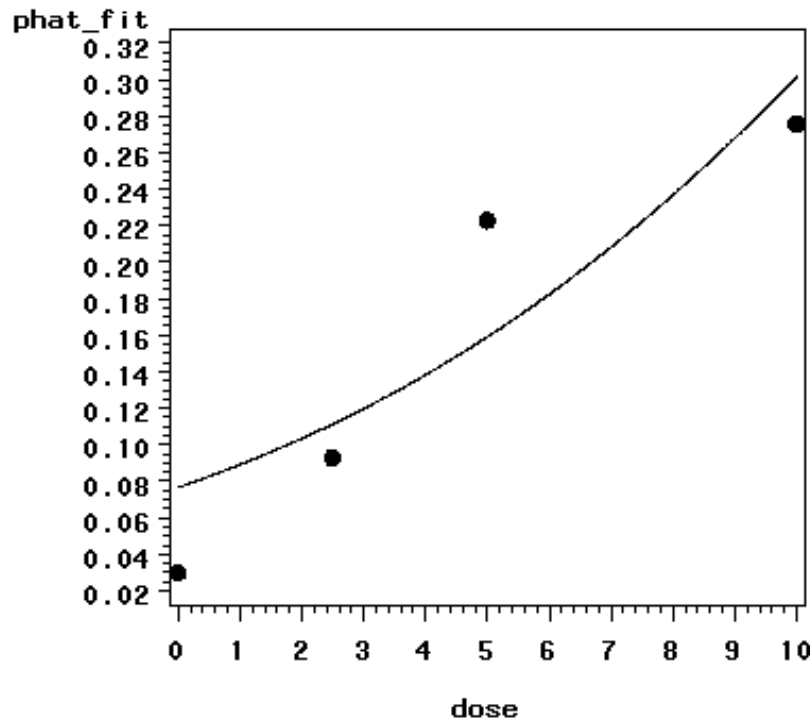
Dose	# Patients	# Relieved	% Relieved
0	67	2	3.0
2.5	75	7	9.3
5	130	29	22.3
10	145	40	27.6

Example - Rizatriptan for Migraine (SPSS)

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	DOSE	.165	.037	19.819	1	.000	1.180
	Constant	-2.490	.285	76.456	1	.000	.083

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: DOSE.



- $\hat{P}(y = 1|X) = \frac{e^{-2.490+0.165X}}{1+e^{-2.490+0.165X}}$
- $H_0: \beta = 0$ vs. $H_A: \beta \neq 0$
- TS: $X_{obs}^2 = \left(\frac{0.165}{0.037}\right)^2 = 19.819$
- RR: $X_{obs}^2 \geq \chi_{0.05,1}^2 = 3.84$
- p value: 0.000

Odds Ratio

- Interpretation of Regression Coefficient (β):

- 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:

$$\frac{odds(X + 1)}{odds(X)} = e^{\beta} \quad \left(odds = \frac{P(Y = 1)}{1 - P(Y = 1)} \right)$$

For example, $\beta=1.1$

We can introduce a specific case:

$X \rightarrow odds=1$ ($P=0.5$)

$X+1 \rightarrow odds=3$ ($P=0.75$)

- Thus e^{β} represents the change in the odds of the outcome (multiplicatively) by increasing X by 1 unit

- If $\beta = 0$, the odds and probability are the same at all X levels ($e^{\beta} = 1$)
- If $\beta > 0$, the odds and probability increase as X increases ($e^{\beta} > 1$)
- If $\beta < 0$, the odds and probability decrease as X increases ($e^{\beta} < 1$)

Logistic Regression with p Predictors

- Extension to more than one predictor variable (either numeric or dummy variables).
- Model: $P(y = 1|\mathbf{X}) \equiv$ Probability of presence at predictor level \mathbf{X} consisting of p random variables (X_1, \dots, X_p)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Logit} \quad \log \left(\frac{P(Y = 1)}{1 - P(Y = 1)} \right) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p \\ \text{Odd ratio} \quad P(Y = 1) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p}} \end{array}$$

- Adjusted odds ratio for raising X_k by 1 unit, holding all other predictors constant:

$$e^{\beta_k}$$

- Many models have nominal/ordinal predictors, and widely make use of dummy variables

Testing Regression Coefficients

- Testing the overall model:

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_p = 0 \text{ vs. } H_A: \text{Not all } \beta_k = 0 \text{ } k = 1, \dots, p$$

$$\text{TS: } X_{obs}^2 = 2 \log \left(\frac{L_1}{L_0} \right) = -2 \log(L_0) + 2 \log(L_1)$$

$$\text{RR: } X_{obs}^2 \geq \chi_{\alpha, p}^2$$

$$P = P(\chi^2 \geq X_{obs}^2)$$

- L_0, L_1 are values of the maximized likelihood function based on the reduced model and full model.
- This logic can also be used to compare full and reduced models based on subsets of predictors.
- Testing for individual terms is done as in model with a single predictor.

Testing Regression Coefficients

- How can we make the reduced model?
 - For testing the entire model

$$\log\left(\frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)}\right) = \beta_0 \text{ (null, } L_0)$$

vs.

$$\log\left(\frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_p X_p \text{ (alternative, } L_1)$$

- For testing a specific coefficient, for example β_1

$$\log\left(\frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_p X_p \text{ (null, } L_0)$$

vs.

$$\log\left(\frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_p X_p \text{ (alternative, } L_1)$$

Example - Erectile dysfunction (ED)

- Response: Presence/Absence of ED in older Dutch men ($n = 1688$)
 - Predictors ($p = 12$):
 - Age stratum (50-54*, 55-59, 60-64, 65-69, 70-78)
 - Smoking status (Nonsmoker*, Smoker)
 - BMI stratum (<25*, 25-30, >30)
 - Lower urinary tract symptoms (None*, Mild, Moderate, Severe)
 - Under treatment for cardiac symptoms (No*, Yes)
 - Under treatment for COPD (No*, Yes)
- * Baseline group for dummy variables

Example - Erectile dysfunction (ED)

Predictor	b	s _b	Adjusted OR (95% CI)
Age 55-59 (vs 50-54)	0.83	0.42	2.3 (1.0 – 5.2)
Age 60-64 (vs 50-54)	1.53	0.40	4.6 (2.1 – 10.1)
Age 65-69 (vs 50-54)	2.19	0.40	8.9 (4.1 – 19.5)
Age 70-78 (vs 50-54)	2.66	0.41	14.3 (6.4 – 32.1)
Smoker (vs nonsmoker)	0.47	0.19	1.6 (1.1 – 2.3)
BMI 25-30 (vs <25)	0.41	0.21	1.5 (1.0 – 2.3)
BMI >30 (vs <25)	1.10	0.29	3.0 (1.7 – 5.4)
LUTS Mild (vs None)	0.59	0.41	1.8 (0.8 – 4.3)
LUTS Moderate (vs None)	1.22	0.45	3.4 (1.4 – 8.4)
LUTS Severe (vs None)	2.01	0.56	7.5 (2.5 – 22.5)
Cardiac symptoms (Yes vs No)	0.92	0.26	2.5 (1.5 – 4.3)
COPD (Yes vs No)	0.64	0.28	1.9 (1.1 – 3.6)

- Interpretations: Risk of ED appears to be:
 - Increasing with age, BMI, and LUTS strata
 - Higher among smokers

Nominal Predictors

- Create dummy variables according to the number of categories (c), i.e., generate $c - 1$ variables

	D_1	D_2	D_3
Spring	0	0	0
Summer	1	0	0
Fall	0	1	0
Winter	0	0	1

- You can treat an ordinal variable as a continuous variable

Additional Material

Logistic Regression for Nominal Response

- When the dependent variable has three or more nominal type category (no natural ordering): Baseline-category logit model
- The odds of falling in category j or below:

$$\frac{P(Y_i = j)}{P(Y_i = c)}, j = 1, \dots, c - 1$$
$$\sum_{j=1}^c P(Y_i = j) = 1$$

- Logit (log odds) of cumulative probabilities are modeled as linear functions of predictor variable(s) \mathbf{x}_i :

$$\text{logit}[P(Y_i = j)] = \log \left[\frac{P(Y_i=j)}{P(Y_i=c)} \right] = \boldsymbol{\beta}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i, j = 1, \dots, c - 1$$

Logistic Regression for Nominal Response

- As a set of independent binary regressions

$$\ln \left[\frac{P(Y_i = 1)}{P(Y_i = c)} \right] = \boldsymbol{\beta}_1^T \mathbf{x}_i$$
$$\vdots$$
$$\ln \left[\frac{P(Y_i = c-1)}{P(Y_i = c)} \right] = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{c-1}^T \mathbf{x}_i$$

- Using (1) $P(Y_i = c) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{c-1} P(Y_i = j)$
(2) $P(Y_i = j) = P(Y_i = c) \exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i)$

$$P(Y_i = c), P(Y_i = j)?$$

Logistic Regression for Nominal Response

- $P_j = P(Y_i = j) = \frac{\exp(\beta_j^T x_i)}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{c-1} \exp(\beta_j^T x_i)}, j = 1, \dots, c - 1$
- $P_c = P(Y_i = c) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{c-1} \exp(\beta_j^T x_i)}$

Classify the sample to the class t

$$t = \operatorname{argmax}_j P_j$$

This applies to the others as well

- (Reference) Likelihood of $y_i \sim$ Multinomial distribution

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^c P_j^{y_{ij}}$$

$$\text{where } y_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & y_i = j \\ 0 & y_i \neq j \end{cases}$$

$$\log L = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^c y_{ij} \log P_j$$

Logistic Regression for Ordinal Response

- When the dependent variable has three or more ordinal type category (natural ordering): cumulative logit model
- The probability falling in category j or below:

$$P(Y_i \leq j) = P_1 + P_2 + \cdots + P_j, j = 1, \dots, c - 1$$

- Logit (log odds) of cumulative probabilities are modeled as linear functions of predictor variable(s) X :

$$\text{logit}[P(Y_i \leq j)] = \log \left[\frac{P(Y_i \leq j)}{1 - P(Y_i \leq j)} \right] = \alpha_j + \beta^T x_i, j = 1, \dots, c - 1$$

- This is called the proportional odds model, and **assumes the effect of X_k is the same for each cumulative probability.**
 - able to reduce the number of parameters to be estimated

Logistic Regression for Ordinal Response

- $P_1 = P(Y_i \leq 1) = \frac{\exp(\alpha_1 + \beta^T x_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha_1 + \beta^T x_i)}$
- $P_j = P(Y_i \leq j) - P(Y_i \leq j - 1) = \frac{\exp(\alpha_j + \beta^T x_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha_j + \beta^T x_i)} - \frac{\exp(\alpha_{j-1} + \beta^T x_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha_{j-1} + \beta^T x_i)}$
 , $j = 2, \dots, c - 1$
- $P_c = 1 - \frac{\exp(\alpha_{c-1} + \beta^T x_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha_{c-1} + \beta^T x_i)}$

Logistic Regression for Ordinal Response

- When the dependent variable has three or more ordinal type category (natural ordering): adjacent-categories logit model
- Logs of adjacent categories are modeled as linear functions of predictor variable(s) \mathbf{X} :

$$\log\left(\frac{P_{j+1}}{P_j}\right) = \boldsymbol{\beta}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i, j = 1, \dots, c - 1$$

where $P_j = P_1 \exp\left(\sum_{k=2}^{j-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_k^T \mathbf{x}_i\right), j = 2, \dots, c$

- Then, $P_1 = \left\{1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1^T \mathbf{x}_i) + \dots + \exp\left(\sum_{k=1}^{c-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_k^T \mathbf{x}_i\right)\right\}^{-1}$
 \Rightarrow We can represent in a new way, $\log\left(\frac{P_j}{P_1}\right) = \boldsymbol{\gamma}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i, j = 2, \dots, c$

(Similar to nominal response except for forcing P_1 as baseline)

Logistic Regression for Ordinal Response

- $P_1 = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^c \exp(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i)}$
- $P_j = P_1 \exp(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i)}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^c \exp(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i)}, j = 2, \dots, c$
- (Reference) Likelihood of $y_i \sim$ Multinomial distribution (same in ordinal response)

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^c P_j^{y_{ij}}$$

$$\text{where } y_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & y_i = j \\ 0 & y_i \neq j \end{cases}$$

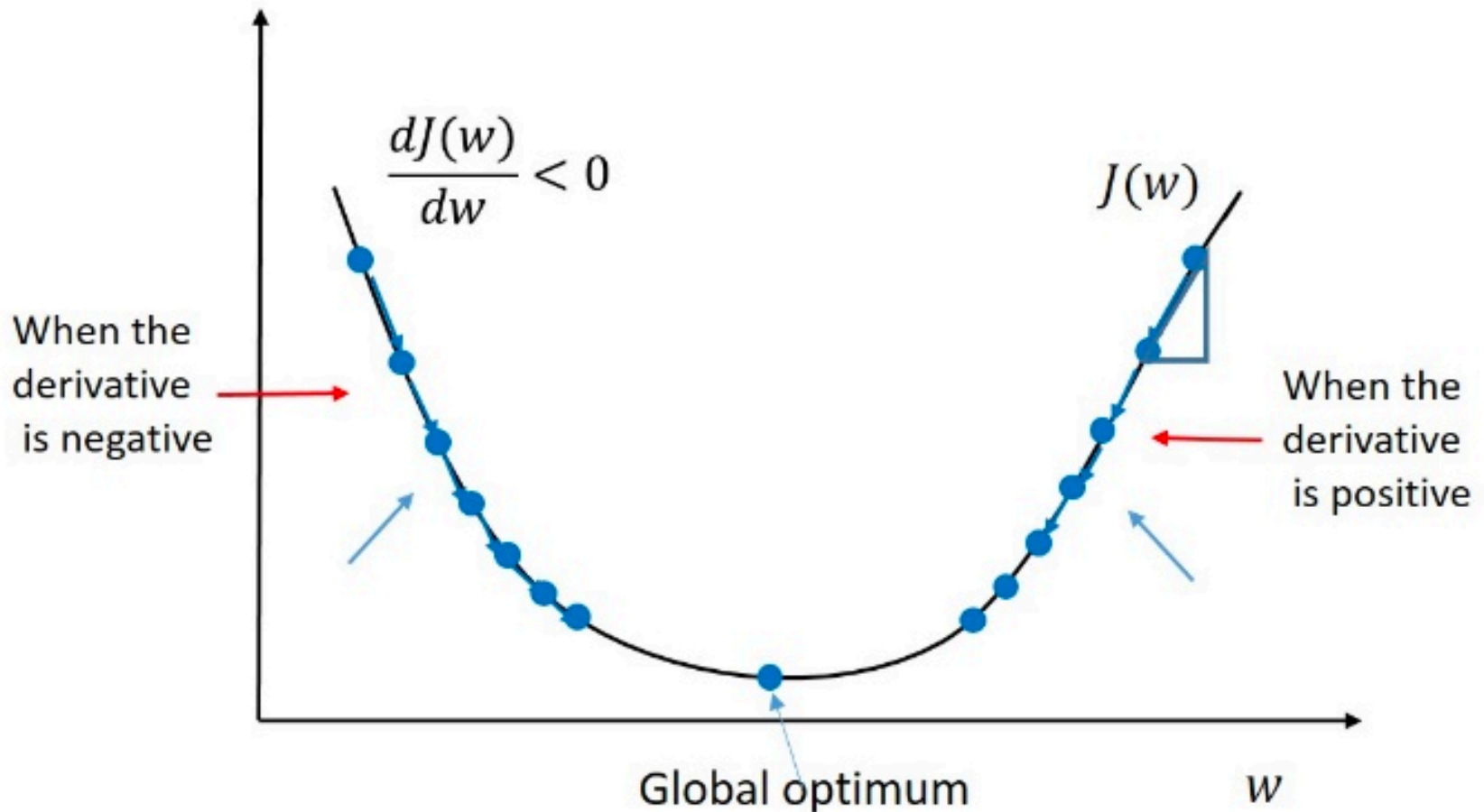
$$\log L = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^c y_{ij} \log P_j$$

Questions?

Appendix

Gradient Descent Algorithm

- $f(x)$, $J(w)$, $F(a)$ are notations of objective functions in terms of x , w , a respectively.



Gradient Descent Algorithm

- Gradient descent is a first-order iterative optimization algorithm for finding a local minimum of a differentiable function (minimization problem).
- Gradient descent is based on the observation that if the multivariate function f is defined and differentiable in a neighborhood of a point \mathbf{x} , then $f(\mathbf{x})$ decreases fastest if one goes from \mathbf{x} in the direction of the negative gradient of f at \mathbf{x} , $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$. It follows that, if

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)$$

for $\eta \in \mathbb{R}_+$ small enough, then $f(\mathbf{x}_t) \geq f(\mathbf{x}_{t+1})$

Newton-Raphson Method

- An iterative method for finding the roots of a twice differentiable function f . Given f , we seek to solve the optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f(x) \quad \text{vs.} \quad \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} f(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Newton's method performs the iteration

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \frac{f'(x_t)}{f''(x_t)} \quad \text{vs.} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - [f''(\boldsymbol{\theta})]^{-1} f'(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Standard Error $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_i}$

- You can find the second derivatives of the $p+1$ parameters

$$\mathbf{H} = [h_{ij}], i, j = 0, 1, \dots, p$$

$$\text{where } h_{ii} = \frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \beta_i^2}, i = 0, 1, \dots, p \text{ and } h_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_j}, i \neq j$$

- The approximate variance-covariance matrix of the estimated parameters

$$\mathbf{S} = \left[(-h_{ij})_{\beta=\hat{\beta}} \right]^{-1}$$

- Therefore, the standard error $s_{\hat{\beta}_i} (= \hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_i})$ is the square-root of the $(i+1)$ -th diagonal component (since there is no 0-th component).

Standard Error $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_i}$

- For example, we have

$$\text{logit}(P) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

then,

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sum \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) & -\sum x_{1i} \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) & -\sum x_{2i} \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) \\ -\sum x_{1i} \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) & -\sum x_{1i}^2 \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) & -\sum x_{1i} x_{2i} \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) \\ -\sum x_{2i} \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) & -\sum x_{1i} x_{2i} \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) & -\sum x_{2i}^2 \hat{P}_i(1 - \hat{P}_i) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{where } \hat{P}_i = \frac{\exp(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i})}{1 + \exp(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i})}.$$