Interpreting logistic models

Frank Edwards 3/10/2021

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- Logistic regression is the special case where g is the logit function: $\mathrm{logit}(y) = \mathrm{X}\beta$
- \cdot A logistic regression model returns ${
 m X}eta$ on the logit scale
- · How can we convert xeta to something useful?

Let's return to the grad school admission example

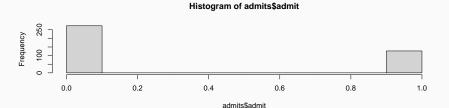
```
admits<-read_csv("./data/binary.csv")
summary(admits)</pre>
```

##	admit	gre	gpa	rank
##	Min. :0.0000	Min. :220.0	Min. :2.260	Min. :1.000
##	1st Qu.:0.0000	1st Qu.:520.0	1st Qu.:3.130	1st Qu.:2.000
##	Median :0.0000	Median :580.0	Median :3.395	Median :2.000
##	Mean :0.3175	Mean :587.7	Mean :3.390	Mean :2.485
##	3rd Qu.:1.0000	3rd Qu.:660.0	3rd Qu.:3.670	3rd Qu.:3.000
##	Max. :1.0000	Max. :800.0	Max. :4.000	Max. :4.000

Let's explore our outcome

Huh, all this tells us is mean(admits) = 0.3175

hist(admits\$admit)



Let's look at this as the distribution of the probability of admissions across the data

· First, fit an intercept-only logistic regression model

```
m0<-glm(admit ~ 1, data = admits, family = "binomial")
m0_est<-tidy(m0)</pre>
```

· What does this model tell us?

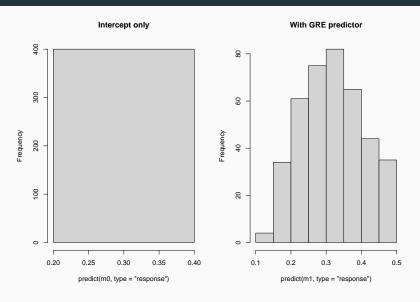
What does this model tell us?

```
m0_est$estimate ## log odds
## [1] -0.7652847
exp(m0_est$estimate) ## odds
## [1] 0.4652015
invlogit(m0_est$estimate) ## probability
## [1] 0.3175
mean(admits$admit) ## mean admission probability
## [1] 0.3175
```

Let's add a predictor

```
m1<-glm(admit ~ 1 + gre, data = admits, family = "binomial")</pre>
m1
##
## Call: glm(formula = admit ~ 1 + gre, family = "binomial", data
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) gre
## -2.901344 0.003582
##
## Degrees of Freedom: 399 Total (i.e. Null); 398 Residual
## Null Deviance:
                500
## Residual Deviance: 486.1 AIC: 490.1
```

Before and after - what's going on?



Two linear predictors

Why do these generate such different predictions?

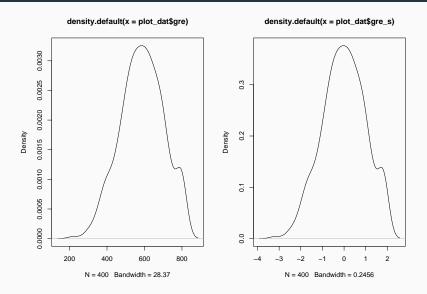
Intercept only model (m0): $p(admit) = \beta_0$ With GRE predictor (m1): $p(admit) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GRE_i$

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To ease interpretation, let's scale GRE

Scale mean-centers and SD scales variables: $\operatorname{scale}(x_i) = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\operatorname{sd}(x)}$

Linear transformations of variables: mean-center and SD scale



Re-estimate the model: much nicer to look at

```
admits<-admits%>%
 mutate(gre s = as.numeric(scale(gre)))
m1<-glm(admit ~ 1 + gre s, data = admits, family = "binomial")
m1 est<-tidy(m1)</pre>
m1 est
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 (Intercept) -0.796 0.111 -7.20 6.01e-13
          0.414 0.114 3.63 2.80e- 4
## 2 gre s
```

Interpret the model

m1_est

Interpret the model

m1_est

Remember:
$$\operatorname{logit}(y) = X\beta = \log\left(\frac{y}{1-y}\right)$$

So: $y = \operatorname{logit}^{-1}(X\beta) = \frac{\exp(X\beta)}{\exp(X\beta) + 1}$

• What is β_0 ?

Interpret the model

m1_est

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$$logit(y) = X\beta = log\left(\frac{y}{1-y}\right)$$

- So: $y = \operatorname{logit}^{-1}(X\beta) = \frac{\exp(X\beta)}{\exp(X\beta) + 1}$
 - What is β_0 ?
 - What is β_1 ?

Refresher on exponentials

$$e^{y_1+y_2}=e^{y_1}e^{y_2}$$

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and

$$e^{y_1-y_2} = \frac{e^{y_1}}{e_2^y}$$

so how can we rewrite:

$$\exp(\operatorname{logit}(y)) = \frac{y}{1 - y} = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1}$$

Non-linear relationships

On the log scale, β_0 and β_1 are related to y multiplicatively because

$$e^{\beta_0+\beta_1x_1}=e^{\beta_0}e^{\beta_1x_1}$$

Odds are defined as the probability of the event occurring divided by the probability of probability of the event not occurring. To obtain odds in a logistic regression, we exponentiate both sides:

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The odds of y == 1 are simply $e^{X\beta}$

Odds ratios

The odds ratio is the ratio of two odds - or the proportional change in odds. We can obtain an isolated estimate for the relationship between $\beta_1 x_{1i}$ and y this way:

$$\frac{Odds(y|x_1=1)}{Odds(y|x_1=0)} = \frac{e^{X\beta+\beta_1}}{e^{X\beta}} = \frac{e^{X\beta}\times e^{\beta_1}}{e^{X\beta}} = e^{\beta_1}$$

The odds ratio can be interpreted as the change in odds of y == 1 for a one-unit change in x_1 .

Interpreting odds ratios

• Odds ratios appear convenient - e^{β_1} is a percent change in y for a one-unit change in x_1

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How do they work?

In our example: what do these figures mean?

[1] 1.512562

```
new_dat<-c(1,0) # for scale(gre) == 0, mean score</pre>
odds 0<-exp(new_dat%*%m1_est$estimate)</pre>
odds_0
##
  [.1]
## [1,] 0.4510945
new dat1<-c(1,1)
odds 1<-exp(new dat1%*%m1 est$estimate)</pre>
odds 1
  [,1]
##
## [1,] 0.6823082
odds 1/odds 0 # odds ratio
## [.1]
## [1,] 1.512562
exp(m1_est$estimate[2]) # exp(beta_1)
```

Interpreting the odds ratio

The odds of admission are exp(m1_est\$estimate[2]) times higher for a student with a GRE score one standard deviation above the mean than they are for a student with a mean GRE score.

Interpreting the odds ratio

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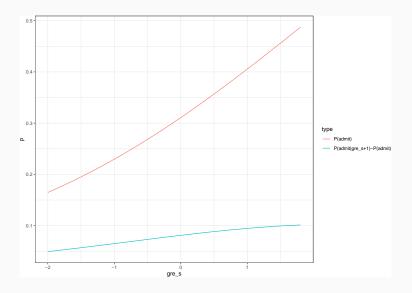
Any trouble you can anticipate here?

Interpreting the odds ratio

The odds of admission are <code>exp(m1_est\$estimate[2])</code> times higher for a student with a GRE score one standard deviation above the mean than they are for a student with a mean GRE score.

Any trouble you can anticipate here?

A visual example: the "effect" of 1 SD increase in GRE scores on Pr(admit==1)

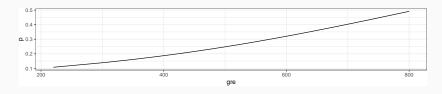


It is easy enough to work on the probability scale

To obtain predicted probabilities of the observed:

- p_hat<-invlogit(predict(m1))
- p_hat<-predict(m1, type = "response")</pre>

On the probability scale



The basic logic of prediction

- 1. Choose scenarios of theoretical interest
- 2. Define these in terms of "counterfactual" (fake) data
- 3. Plug these fake data into the linear predictor (regression equation)
- 4. Visualize!

The basic logic of prediction

Reminder: our model is

$$logit(p(admit_i)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GRE_i$$
 $admit_i \sim Binomial(1, p)$

1. Choose scenarios of theoretical interest

Low GRE, average GRE, high GRE

Define these scenarios in R

2. Define these in terms of "counterfactual" (fake) data

```
## Look at the distribution of the data to think about scenarios
mean(admits$gre)

## [1] 587.7

sd(admits$gre)

## [1] 115.5165
```

Define these scenarios in R

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```

Let's define scenarios at the mean, 1 SD below the mean, and 1 SD above the mean

```
fake_data<-data.frame(gre = c(
    mean(admits$gre),
    mean(admits$gre) - sd(admits$gre),
    mean(admits$gre) + sd(admits$gre)
))</pre>
```

```
## gre
## 1 587.7000
## 2 472.1835
## 3 703.2165
```

Generating expected probabilities

3. Plug these fake data into the linear predictor (regression equation)

Because $logit(p(admit_i)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$, we can compute the expected probability of admission for a student with mean GRE scores as

```
coef(m1)
## (Intercept) gre
## -2.901344270 0.003582212
### mean GRE scenario: linear predictor
-2.9 + 0.0036 * 587.7
## [1] -0.78428
```

Generating expected probabilities

[1] 0.3133982

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### on probability scale
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Generating expected probabilities

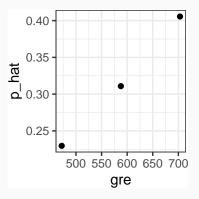
3. Plug these fake data into the linear predictor (regression equation)

The predict() function makes life very easy here

```
## linear predictor
predict(m1, newdata = fake data)
##
## -0.7960785 -1.2098832 -0.3822738
## probability scale (inverse logit)
predict(m1, newdata = fake_data, type = "response")
##
  0.3108650 0.2297217 0.4055786
```

Intrepretation through visuals

4. Visualize!



Break

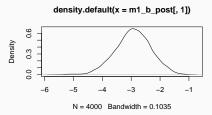
Fitting a Bayesian logistic regression model

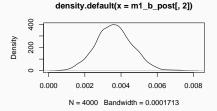
Examining our fit

The posterior samples are our parameter estimates

```
m1_b_post<-as.data.frame(m1_b)
str(m1_b_post)</pre>
```

```
## 'data.frame': 4000 obs. of 2 variables:
## $ (Intercept): num -2.97 -2.79 -1.88 -2.26 -3.18 ...
## $ gre : num 0.00373 0.0035 0.00202 0.00271 0.00422 ...
```





Posterior parameter estimates and uncertainty

90 percent of parameter values that are compatible with our data and priors fall between

```
quantile(m1 b post(Intercept), probs = c(0.05, 0.95))
##
         5%
                 95%
## -3.961082 -1.928628
quantile(m1_b_post\$gre, probs = c(0.05, 0.95))
##
           5%
                     95%
## 0.002003697 0.005274139
```

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          5%
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```

How do we summarize uncertainty in **p**?

Uncertainty in the linear predictor

We have two sources of uncertainty in our linear predictor $logit(p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1$

Uncertainty in the linear predictor

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If an applicant had a GRE score of 600, our posterior expected value of logit(p) is

evaluate the linear equation at all draws of the posterior para
logit_p_hat<-m1_b_post\$`(Intercept)` + m1_b_post\$gre * 600
summary(logit_p_hat)</pre>

```
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
## -1.1557 -0.8336 -0.7585 -0.7577 -0.6816 -0.3701
```

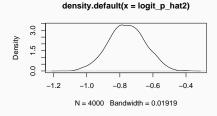
on the probability scale using inverse logit summary(invlogit(logit_p_hat))

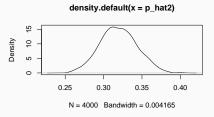
Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. ## 0.2394 0.3029 0.3190 0.3196 0.3359 0.4085

Uncertainty in the linear predictor

The same operation can be performed (more easily!) with posterior_linpred() for the linear predictor (logit) scale, and posterior_epred() for the original scale (probability)

```
fake_data<-data.frame(gre = 600)
logit_p_hat2<-posterior_linpred(m1_b, newdata = fake_data)
p_hat2<-posterior_epred(m1_b, newdata = fake_data)</pre>
```





Generating uncertainty estimates for a series of scenarios

[1] 4000 401

```
fake_data<-data.frame(gre = 400:800)
p_hat<-posterior_epred(m1_b, newdata = fake_data)
### This produces a 4000 row x 401 column matrix, 4000 simulated dim(p_hat)</pre>
```

Visualizing the uncertainty

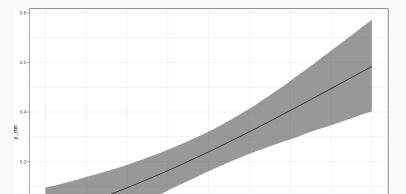
haad(n hat)

Let's compute 90 percent intervals for each scenario, then plot the results

```
### convert to data frame and make it long for plotting
p_hat<-as_tibble(p_hat)</pre>
p hat<-p hat %>%
  pivot longer(cols = everything(),
               names to = "scenario",
               values_to = "p_hat")
## compute the uncertainty interval and posterior mean
p_hat<-p_hat %>%
  mutate(scenario = as.numeric(scenario)) %>%
  group by(scenario) %>%
  summarise(y_lwr = quantile(p_hat, 0.05),
            y upr = quantile(p hat, 0.95),
            y_mn = mean(p_hat))
```

Now plot it

```
## attach the GRE scores using scenario number (row number)
fake_data<-fake_data %>%
    mutate(scenario = 1:n())
### join to p_hat
    p_hat<-p_hat %>%
    left_join(fake_data)
## plot with uncertainty interval
ggplot(p_hat,
    aes(x = gre, y = y_mn, ymin = y_lwr, ymax = y_upr)) +
    geom_ribbon(alpha = 0.5)+
    geom_line()
```



Posterior uncertainty: parameters and predictions

p_hat describes our uncertainty in p, driven by our estimated uncertainty in β_0 and β_1 .

Does it describe our uncertainty in admit?

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Recall that our model is:

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 $admit_i \sim Binomial(1, p)$

Uncertainty in admit is driven by the binomial distribution

The posterior predictive distribution

We can now take our posterior estimates for *p*, and draw predictions from the *posterior predictive distribution*. This approach averages over our uncertainty in both the parameters, and in sampling the outcome.

```
p_hat<-posterior_epred(m1_b, newdata = fake_data)
### first few draws of p for scenario 1, GRE = 400
head(p_hat[,1])</pre>
```

[1] 0.1853545 0.1999156 0.2545779 0.2356202 0.1842336 0.1423152

The posterior predictive distribution

compare admit hat to p hat

moan(n hat[1])

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head(p_hat[,1])</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.1853545 0.1999156 0.2545779 0.2356202 0.1842336 0.1423152
```

We can use our uncertainty in p to estimate uncertainty in admit for new applicants

```
### simulate admissions for each value of p_hat
admit_hat_scen1<-rbinom(4000, 1, p_hat[,1])
mean(admit_hat_scen1)

## [1] 0.18575
sd(admit_hat_scen1)

## [1] 0.3889534</pre>
```