Lecture 8:

Linear and Logistic Regression

#### Regression in general

**Regression** = method of studying the relationship between a **response variable** Y and a **covariate** X. The covariate is also called a **predictor variable** or **feature**. The relationship between X and Y is summarised by the **regression function** 

$$r(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = x) = \int y f(y|x) \, dy$$

Our goal is to estimate the regression function r(x) from data of the form  $(Y_1, X_1), \ldots, (Y_n, X_n) \sim F_{X,Y}$ 

\* The term "regression" is due to Francis Galton (1822-1911) – he noticed that tall and short men tend to have sons with heights closer to the mean – he called this "regression towards the mean"

Simplest version of regression is when  $X_i$  is simple (one-dimensional) and r(x) is assumed to be linear:  $r(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ 

#### Definition: The simple linear regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_i|X_i)=0$  and  $\mathbb{V}(\varepsilon_i|X_i)=\sigma^2$  – which, we assume, does not depend on x.

The unknown parameters are the intercept  $\beta_0$ , the slope  $\beta_1$  and the variance  $\sigma^2$ . Denote the estimates of beta-s with  $\widehat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\widehat{\beta}_1$ . Then the **fitted line** is  $\widehat{r}(x) = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x$ .

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The predicted values or fitted values are  $\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{r}(X_i)$  and the residuals are  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_i = Y_i - \widehat{Y}_i = Y_i - \left(\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i\right)$ .

The **residual sum of squares** or RSS =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\varepsilon}_{i}^{2}$  - measures how well the line fits the data.

**Definition**: The **least squares estimates** are values  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  that **minimize** the RSS.

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Theorem: The least squares estimates are given by:

$$\widehat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\operatorname{Var}(X)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X}_n)(Y_i - \overline{Y}_n)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X}_n)^2}$$

$$\widehat{\beta}_0 = \overline{Y}_n - \widehat{\beta}_1 \overline{X}_n$$

And an unbiased estimate of  $\sigma^2$  is  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2$ 



#### Least Squares and Maximum Likelihood

Suppose we add the assumption that  $\varepsilon_i | X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , that is,  $Y_i | X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$ . The likelihood is:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} f(X_i, Y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_X(X_i) f_{Y|X}(Y_i | X_i) = \prod f_X \cdot \prod f_{Y|X} = \mathcal{L}_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_2$$

The term  $\mathcal{L}_1$  does not involve the parameters  $\beta_0, \beta_1$ . We'll focus on the second term  $\mathcal{L}_2$ , called the **conditional likelihood** 

$$\mathcal{L}_2 \equiv \mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma) \propto \sigma^{-n} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (Y_i - \mu_i)^2\right)$$

#### Least Squares and Maximum Likelihood

So the conditional log-likelihood is

$$\mathcal{E}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma) = -n \log \sigma - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i))^2,$$

so to find the MLE of  $(\beta_0, \beta_1)$  we **maximize**  $\mathcal{E}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma)$ , which is the same as **minimizing** the RSS =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i))^2$ .

**Theorem:** Under the assumption of Normality, the least squares estimator is also the maximum likelihood estimator.

Maximizing 
$$\mathcal{E}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma)$$
 over  $\sigma$  yields  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2$ 



#### Properties of Least Squares Estimators

Let us look at the properties of the estimators conditional on the data,  $X^n = (X_1, ..., X_n)$ 

**Theorem**: Let  $\widehat{\beta}^T = (\widehat{\beta}_0, \widehat{\beta}_1)^T$  denote the LSE. Then,

$$\mathbb{E}(\widehat{\beta} \mid X^n) = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbb{V}(\widehat{\beta} \mid X^n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n \, s_X^2} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 & -\overline{X}_n \\ -\overline{X}_n & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where 
$$s_X^2 = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X}_n)^2$$
.

The estimated s.e.-s of  $\widehat{\beta}_0$  and  $\widehat{\beta}_1$  are obtained taking sqrt-s of the diag. terms of  $\mathbb{V}(\widehat{\beta} \mid X^n)$ , and inserting the estimate  $\widehat{\sigma}$  for  $\sigma$ , thus:

$$\widehat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_0|X^n) = \frac{\widehat{\sigma}}{s_X n} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \widehat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_1|X^n) = \widehat{\sigma}/(s_X \sqrt{n}).$$

## Properties of Least Squares Estimators

Denote  $\hat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_0|X^n)$  and  $\hat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_1|X^n)$  by  $\hat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_0)$  and  $\hat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_1)$ .

Theorem: Under appropriate conditions we have:

- 1. (Consistency):  $\hat{\beta}_0 \xrightarrow{P} \beta_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 \xrightarrow{P} \beta_1$ .
- 2. (Asympt. Normality):  $(\widehat{\beta}_0 \beta_0)/\widehat{\text{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_0) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ , same for  $\widehat{\beta}_1$ .
- 3. Approximate  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence intervals for  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$  thus are  $\hat{\beta}_0 \pm z_{\alpha/2} \, \hat{\rm se}(\hat{\beta}_0)$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 \pm z_{\alpha/2} \, \hat{\rm se}(\hat{\beta}_1)$ .
- 4. The Wald test  $H_0: \beta_1=0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_1\neq 0$  is reject  $H_0$  if  $|W|>z_{\alpha/2}$  where  $W=\widehat{\beta}_1/\widehat{\operatorname{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_1)$ .

# Multiple Regression

#### Multiple Regression

Now suppose that the covariate is a vector of length k. The data are  $(Y_1, X_1), \ldots, (Y_n, X_n)$  where  $X_i = (X_{i1}, \ldots, X_{ik})$  – vector of k covariate values for i-th observation. The linear regression model is  $Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j X_{ij} + \varepsilon_i$ , where  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_i | X_{1i}, \ldots, X_{ki}) = 0$ .

Usually we want to include an intercept in the model – which we can do by setting  $X_{i1} = 1$  for i = 1,...,n.

In matrix notation, 
$$Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)^T$$
 and  $X = \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & \dots & X_{1k} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ X_{n1} & \dots & X_{nk} \end{pmatrix}$  –

each row is one observation, columns correspond to k covariates. Let  $\beta = (\beta_1, ..., \beta_k)^T$  and  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_1, ..., \varepsilon_n)^T$ , then  $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ .

## Multiple Regression

**Theorem**: Assuming that the  $(k \times k)$  matrix  $X^TX$  is invertible,

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

$$\mathbb{V}(\widehat{\beta} \mid X^n) = \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1} \text{ and } \widehat{\beta} \approx \mathcal{N}(\beta, \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}).$$

The estimate regression function is  $\widehat{r}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k \widehat{\beta}_j x_j$ . An unbiased estimate of  $\sigma^2$  is  $\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{\varepsilon}_i^2$  where  $\widehat{\varepsilon} = X\widehat{\beta} - Y$  is the vector of residuals.

An approximate  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval is  $\widehat{\beta}_j \pm z_{\alpha/2} \, \widehat{\text{se}}(\widehat{\beta}_j)$  where  $\widehat{\text{se}}^2(\widehat{\beta}_j)$  is the j-th diag. element of the matrix  $\widehat{\sigma}^2(X^TX)^{-1}$ .

So far we assumed  $Y_i$  are real-valued. In **Logistic regression**,

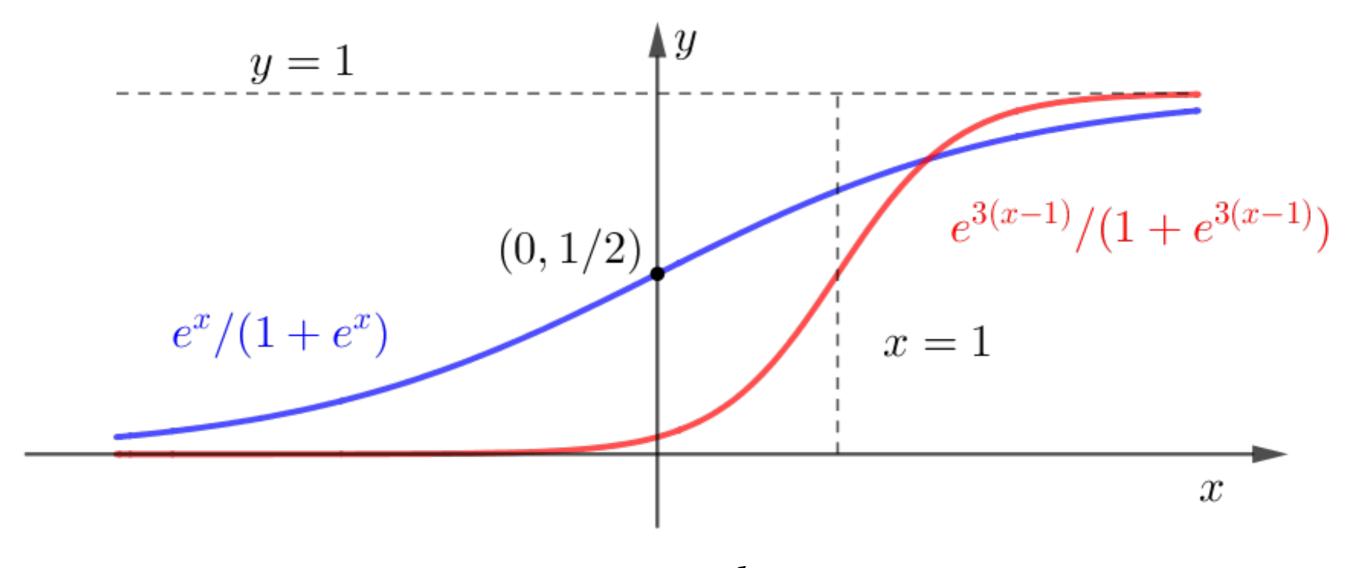
 $Y_i \in \{0,1\}$  is binary. For a k-dimensional covariate X, the model is

$$p_{i}(\beta) \equiv \mathbb{P}(Y_{i} = 1 | X = x) = \frac{\exp\left(\beta_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_{j} x_{ij}\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\beta_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_{j} x_{ij}\right)}$$

or, equiv., 
$$\operatorname{logit}(p_i) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{ij}$$
 where  $\operatorname{logit}(p) = \log \frac{p}{1-p}$ 

The name "logistic regression" comes from  $\frac{e^x}{1+e^x}$  – the **logistic** function.

 $f(x) = e^x/(1 + e^x)$  – the **logistic function** – maps  $f: \mathbb{R} \to (0,1)$  real numbers to probabilities



With a **linear** transform of  $x \to ax + b$ , we **adjust** the position of the "decision boundary", and **scale** the "sharpness" of it

Because the  $Y_i$  are binary, data are  $Y_i \mid X_i = x_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_i)$ , so the likelihood function is

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i(\beta)^{Y_i} (1 - p_i(\beta))^{1 - Y_i}$$

the MLE is obtained by maximizing  $\log \mathcal{L}(\beta)$  numerically.

One way to do so is the Reweighted Least Squares algorithm

**Reweighted Least Squares** algorithm: Choose starting values  $\widehat{\beta}^0 = (\widehat{\beta}_0^0, ..., \widehat{\beta}_k^0)$  and compute  $p_i^0$  (logistic function). Set s=0 and iterate until convergence:

1. Set 
$$Z_i = \text{logit}(p_i^s) + \frac{Y_i - p_i^s}{p_i^s (1 - p_i^s)}, \quad i = 1, ..., n$$

- 2. Let W be a diag. matrix with (i, i) element  $W_{ii} = p_i^s (1 p_i^s)$
- 3. Set  $\hat{\beta}^s = (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W X$  weighted linear reg. of Z on Y.
- 4. Set s = s + 1 and back to 1-st step.