Biostatistics (MATH11230)Introduction to Logistic Regression

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Logistic regression models to relate exposure to disease

General context

- → Logistic regression models allow us to study the effect of several risk factors.
- → Further, logistic regression models allow us to expand greatly the scope we have been working with so far, as they can handle binary/categorical risk factors as well as risk factors that are measured on a continuous scale.
- Logistic regression models are also a valuable tool when we want to control for confounding variables. We have learned about stratification, but this may not be viable if it is necessary to stratify on many potential confounding variables simultaneously. By using regression models, we also open the door to the possibility of controlling for continuous confounding variables (without having to categorise them).
- → These slides follow partially Chapter 12 of Jewell (2003).



Logistic regression models to relate exposure to disease

Naive approaches and its drawbacks

- → We will now be labelling the exposure variable of interest with X instead of E and it can either represent a binary risk factor, one that has several (more than two) discrete categories or a risk factor measured on a continuous scale.
- This is mainly for consistency with standard treatment of regression models, and it also reinforces the possibility that the exposure of interest may now be measured on a continuous scale.
- \hookrightarrow The simplest model that we can think of is the linear model, under which we would write

$$p_{\mathsf{X}} = \Pr(\mathsf{D} \mid \mathsf{X} = \mathsf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{X}. \tag{1}$$

 \hookrightarrow As the name says, the model in (1) assumes that as the exposure level X = x changes, the risk of D, as measured by $Pr(D \mid X = x)$, changes linearly in x.

Logistic regression models to relate exposure to disease

Naive approaches and its drawbacks

- However there is a structural drawback about the use of the linear model for binary outcome data.
- \hookrightarrow Whatever the values of the parameters β_0 and β_1 , at some values in the range of X, either low values or high values, the model in (1) may predict values of $p_X < 0$ and $p_X > 1$, which are not valid for risks.
- → An alternative specification to the linear model would be the log linear model that assumes a linear relationship between the log risk of D and the exposure, that is

$$\log(p_X) = \log\{\Pr(D \mid X = X)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X, \tag{2}$$

or, equivalently,

$$p_X = \Pr(D \mid X = x) = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x}.$$

 \hookrightarrow However, the risk $e^{\beta_0+\beta_1 x}$ can still exceed one for any nonzero value of β_1 with large (or small, depending on the sign of β_1) values of X.



The (simple) logistic regression model

 \hookrightarrow The **simple logistic regression model** relates p_x to x through the following equation:

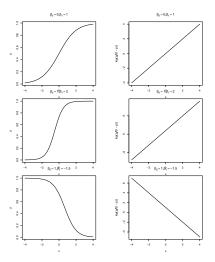
$$p_X = \Pr(D \mid X = X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}} = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X}}.$$
 (3)

→ Alternatively, the above relationship in (3) can be expressed in terms of the log odds associated with p_x

$$\log\left(\frac{p_X}{1-p_X}\right) = \log(\text{odds for } D \mid X = X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X. \tag{4}$$

- \hookrightarrow The key assumption underlying the model in (4) is that the log odds of D changes linearly with changes in X.
- \hookrightarrow Because the term $e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}$ is always positive, the risk p_x in (3) must lie between 0 and 1 for any values of β_0 and β_1 and for any level of the exposure.
- Thus, the logistic regression model does not suffer from the structural drawback shared by both the linear and log linear model (predicting, at some exposures, negative or above one risks).





- \hookrightarrow The value $\beta_1 = 0$ represents no relationship between the risk of D and exposure level, i.e., independence between D and X.
- \hookrightarrow When β_1 is positive, the risk of *D* increases as exposure increases.
- \hookrightarrow In turn, when β_1 is negative, the risk of *D* decreases as the level of exposure increases.

- \hookrightarrow Let us now turn our attention to the interpretation of the parameters β_0 and β_1 .
- \hookrightarrow The intercept β_0 is the log odds of *D* when X = 0.
- \hookrightarrow In order to understand the interpretation of the slope β_1 , let us consider two exposure levels separated by one unit on the scale of X, say X = x + 1 and X = x.

$$\begin{split} \log(\mathsf{OR}) &= \log \left(\frac{\mathsf{odds} \; \mathsf{of} \; D \; | \; X = x + 1}{\mathsf{odds} \; \mathsf{of} \; D \; | \; X = x} \right) \\ &= \log \left(\frac{p_{x+1}/(1-p_{x+1})}{p_x/(1-p_x)} \right) \\ &= \log(p_{x+1}/(1-p_{x+1})) - \log(p_x/(1-p_x)) \\ &= [\beta_0 + \beta_1 \times (x+1)] - [\beta_0 + \beta_1 \times x] \\ &= \beta_1. \end{split}$$

- \hookrightarrow Thus β_1 is the log odds ratio associated with comparing two exposure groups whose exposure differs by one unit on the scale of X, i.e., the log odds ratio associated with a unit increase in X.
- → Note that this odds ratio, associated with a unit increase in X, does not depend on the choice of the baseline value X from which this unit increase is measured.
- \hookrightarrow For instance, considering the familiar situation where X can only take two values, say X=1 (exposed) and X=0 (unexposed), β_0 is the log odds of D amongst the unexposed and β_1 is the log odds ratio of D comparing the exposed to the unexposed.

- → Now suppose that we are interested in describing the relationship between the risk of infant mortality and birth weight (X), measured in grams. We do not need to dichotomise birth weight (e.g., as low and normal) as we did before when considering a similar example.
- \hookrightarrow In this context, β_0 corresponds to the log odds of infant mortality for a baby with zero grams as birth weight (X=0). This is, obviously, extrapolating beyond the range of values of X in the population.
- \hookrightarrow Also, in this context, β_1 gives the log odds ratio of infant mortality comparing babies with birth weights that differ 1g (e.g., 2001g to 2000g, or 2501g to 2500g, or...).

The (simple) logistic regression model

- → Recentring the exposure variable(s) X is a trick commonly used in regression modelling in such cases.
- \hookrightarrow For instance, recentring the scale of birth to be, say X= birthweight 2500g gives a more useful interpretation of the intercept β_0 .
- \hookrightarrow With respect to the slope β_1 , one can simply rescale birth weight in terms of 100g, for instance.
- → Both of these changes lead to a new scale given by

$$X^* = (X - 2500)/100 = (birthweight - 2500)/100.$$

→ The resulting model

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{x^*}}{1-p_{x^*}}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x^*,$$

has a more interpretable intercept (log odds of infant mortality at 2500g) and slope (log odds ratio of infant mortality associated with an increase of 100g in birth weight) parameter.

The (multiple) logistic regression model

- \hookrightarrow Let us now suppose that we have several risk factors that we wish to relate to the risk for D, say X_1, \ldots, X_k .
- \hookrightarrow At given exposure levels, say $X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_k = x_k$, we use p_{x_1, \dots, x_k} to denote $\Pr(D \mid X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_k = x_k)$.
- \hookrightarrow It is straightforward to extend the simple logistic regression model to accommodate k risk variables: we simply add linear terms to the right-hand side of the model in (4)

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{x_1,\ldots,x_k}}{1-p_{x_1,\ldots,x_k}}\right) = \log(\text{odds of } D \mid X_1 = x_1,\ldots,X_k = x_k)$$

$$= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k. \tag{5}$$

$$p_{x_1,...,x_k} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + ... + \beta_k x_k)}}.$$



The (multiple) logistic regression model

- \hookrightarrow Holding X_2, \ldots, X_k fixed, the pattern that describes how the risk of D changes as X_1 (alone) changes is still a logistic curve as the ones illustrated in slide 13.
- \hookrightarrow This is obviously true if each risk factor (not only X_1) is examined in turn, keeping constant the other variables of the model.
- \hookrightarrow How should we interpret $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$?
- \hookrightarrow As for the model with only one risk factor, if $X_1 = X_2 = \ldots = X_k = 0$, we have that

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{0,\ldots,0}}{1-p_{0,\ldots,0}}\right)=\beta_0.$$

 \hookrightarrow Hence, β_0 is just the log odds of D at the baseline level where all the risk variables are at zero, on their respective scales.

The (multiple) logistic regression model

- \hookrightarrow For the slope parameters, β_1, \dots, β_k , let us consider the comparison of two groups whose risk factor X_1 differs by one unit on the scale of X_1 , and who share identical values for all other risk variables X_2, \dots, X_k .
- \hookrightarrow That is, one group has risk variables given by $X_1 = x_1 + 1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_k = x_k$ and the other group has $X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_k = x_k$.
- → Then the multiple logistic regression model in (5) tells us that the difference in log odds of D in these two groups is simply given by

$$[\beta_0 + \beta_1(x_1 + 1) + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots \beta_k x_k] - [\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots \beta_k x_k] = \beta_1.$$

 \hookrightarrow That is, β_1 is the log odds ratio associated with a unit increase in the scale of X_1 , holding all other risk variables in the model constant.



The (multiple) logistic regression model

- \hookrightarrow In general, β_j is the log odds ratio associated with a unit increase in the scale of X_j , holding all other variables in the model fixed.
- \hookrightarrow Note that that the log odds ratio (and, by consequence, the odds ratio) associated with changes in X_i is not affected by the values (held fixed) of the other variables in the model.
- \hookrightarrow Knowledge of the slope parameters, β_1,\ldots,β_k , allow us to compute the odds ratio comparing any two groups with specified risk factors. If our reference group has $X_1=x_1,X_2=x_2,\ldots,X_k=x_k$ and the second group has $X_1=x_1^*,X_2=x_2^*,\ldots,X_k=x_k^*$, then the log odds ratio comparing the risk in these two groups is

$$\beta_1(x_1^*-x_1)+\beta_2(x_2^*-x_2)+\ldots+\beta_k(x_k^*-x_k),$$

and the corresponding odds ratio is

$$\mathsf{OR} = e^{\beta_1(x_1^* - x_1) + \beta_2(x_2^* - x_2) + \ldots + \beta_k(x_k^* - x_k)}.$$



The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

- We can accommodate discrete exposure variables by using indicator (or dummy) variables.
- \hookrightarrow The other K-1 levels are referred to as level 1, level 2, and so on up to level K-1.
- \hookrightarrow We then define K-1 binary exposure variables as follows:
 - $\hookrightarrow X_1 = 1$ if an individual's exposure is at level 1, and $X_1 = 0$ otherwise.
 - $\rightarrow X_2 = 1$ if an individual's exposure is at level 2, and $X_2 = 0$ otherwise.
 - $\hookrightarrow \cdots$
 - $\hookrightarrow X_{K-1} = 1$ if an individual's exposure is at level K-1, and $X_{K-1} = 0$ otherwise.
- \hookrightarrow For an individual at the baseline level, $X_1=X_2=\ldots=X_{K-1}=0$.

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The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

 $\,\hookrightarrow\,$ Having defined the indicator variables, we can use the multiple logistic regression model

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{x_1,...,x_{K-1}}}{1-p_{x_1,...,x_{K-1}}}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_{K-1} x_{K-1}.$$

- \hookrightarrow Note that the intercept β_0 is the risk when $X_1 = X_2 = \ldots = X_{K-1} = 0$, that is, the log odds of D in the baseline exposure group.
- \hookrightarrow By definition, the first slope coefficient β_1 is the log odds ratio associated with a unit increase in X_1 , holding X_2, \ldots, X_{K-1} fixed.
- \hookrightarrow But the only way to increase X_1 by one unit and keep all other variables constant is to move from the baseline exposure level ($X_1 = 0$, all other X_k s are zero) to level 1 ($X_1 = 1$, all other X_k s are zero).
- \hookrightarrow Thus, β_1 is the log odds ratio comparing exposure level 1 to the baseline level 0.

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The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

- \hookrightarrow Similarly, β_j is the log odds ratio comparing level j to the baseline level 0 for $j=1,\ldots,K-1$.
- \hookrightarrow For example, the odds ratio comparing those in, say, level 3 (for which $X_3=1$ and $X_1=X_2=X_4=\ldots=X_{K-1}=0$), to those, say, in level 1 (for $X_1=1$ and $X_2=X_3=\ldots=X_{K-1}=0$), is simply $e^{\beta_3-\beta_1}$.

The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

To make ideas concrete, let us look at data from the Western Collaborative Group Study, that conducted a form of population based study and that, among other information, collected information about body weight and incidence of coronary heart disease (CHD) (Jewell, 2003, p 194).

	CHD Event			
		D	$\operatorname{not} D$	
	≤150	32	558	590
	150+-160	31	505	536
Body weight (lb)	160+-170	50	594	644
, ,	170+-180	66	501	567
	>180	78	739	817
		257	2897	3154

The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

- In this example, the exposure variable has five categories and so we need four indicator variables.
- → Let the baseline or reference group be formed by those who weigh 150 lb or less.
- - $\hookrightarrow X_1 = 1$ if body weight is 150⁺ to 160 lb, and $X_1 = 0$ otherwise.
 - \rightarrow $X_2 = 1$ if body weight is 160^+ to 170 lb, and $X_2 = 0$ otherwise.
 - \hookrightarrow $X_3 = 1$ if body weight is 170⁺ to 180 lb, and $X_3 = 0$ otherwise.
 - $\hookrightarrow X_4 = 1$ if body weight is > 180 lb, and $X_4 = 0$ otherwise.

The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

 \hookrightarrow The multiple logistic regression model takes the following form

$$\log\left(\frac{p_{X_1,X_2,X_3,X_4}}{1-p_{X_1,X_2,X_3,X_4}}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4.$$

- \hookrightarrow Here β_0 gives the log odds of CHD in the baseline group (\le 150) lb.
- \hookrightarrow β_1 is the log odds ratio comparing the group who weigh between 150 and 160 lb to those who weigh less than or equal to 150 lb.
- \hookrightarrow β_2 is the log odds ratio comparing the group who weigh between 160 and 170 lb to those who weigh less than or equal to 150 lb.
- \hookrightarrow β_3 is the log odds ratio comparing the group who weigh between 170 and 180 lb to those who weigh less than or equal to 150 lb.
- \hookrightarrow Finally, β_4 is the log odds ratio comparing those who weigh more than 180 lb to those who

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weigh less than or equal to 150 lb.

The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

- \hookrightarrow Further, and as an example, the log odds ratio comparing those who weigh more than 180 lb ($X_4=1$ and $X_1=X_2=X_3=0$) to those who weigh between 160 and 170lb ($X_2=1$ and $X_1=X_3=X_4=0$) is $\beta_4-\beta_2$.
- \hookrightarrow We will see how to estimate the parameters of the logistic regression model in the next lecture but for this simple example only involving a discrete exposure variable the data arranged in a 2 \times 2 contingency table allow estimating the five parameters.
- \hookrightarrow For example, β_0 is the log odds of CHD in the baseline group (\le 150) lb: $\log((32/590)/(558/590)) = -2.859$.
- \hookrightarrow Analogously, the log odds of CHD in the group with body weight between 150 and 160lb, i.e., $X_1 = 1$, is $\log((31/536)/(505/536)) = -2.791$.
- \hookrightarrow Thus, the log odds ratio comparing this weight level to the baseline group is just the difference in these log odds: -2.791 (-2.859) = 0.068.



The (multiple) logistic regression model: indicator variables for discrete exposures

 \hookrightarrow The estimates of the remaining parameters are obtained exactly in the same manner.

Parameter	Estimate	OR
β_0	-2.859	
β_1	0.068	1.070
β_2	0.384	1.468
β_3	0.832	2.298
eta_{4}	0.610	1.840