## 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

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

where

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

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

Binary outcomes are common in practice; usually indicate some event

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

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

- Regression focuses on E(y|x)
- For binary outcomes, we want E(y|x) = p(y = 1|x)
- Does  $p_i = p(y = 1|x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$  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 logit link:

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

• The inverse link function is also useful:

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

## Logistic regression

Model is now

$$E(y_i|x_i) = p_i$$
  

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

Using the logit link, we have

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

#### Parameter interpretation

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

#### 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

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

# 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:
glm(formula = y ~ x, family = binomial(link = "logit"), data = data)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 10 Median 30 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 ***
        0.8097 0.1664 4.865 1.15e-06 ***
X
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1 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 logistic regression (and GLMs), we'll use the asymptotic Normality of MLEs:

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

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

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

- 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(β<sub>j</sub>), 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  $H_0: c^T \beta = c^T \beta_0$  or  $H_0: c^T \beta = 0$
- We can use the test statistic

$$T = \frac{c^{T}\hat{\beta} - c^{T}\beta_{0}}{\hat{se}(c^{T}\hat{\beta})} = \frac{c^{T}\hat{\beta} - c^{T}\beta_{0}}{\sqrt{c^{T}Var(\hat{\beta})c}}$$

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 AIC and BIC, 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



1 - spec

## Better tests give better ROCs



1 - spec

# 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  $\hat{\mu}_i = \hat{p}(y_i = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i)$
- 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

Model components are the

- Probability distribution
- Link function
- Linear predictor

## Linear regression as a GLM

# Comparing linear and logistic

Comparing linear, logistic, and Poisson regression models:

	Linear	Logistic	Poisson
Outcome	Continuous	Binary	Count
Distribution	Normal	Binomia	Poissonl
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)	$\lambda$
"Natural" Link	identity	logit	log

#### Other link functions?

#### 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  $b''(\theta) = V$ 

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

# Exponential family examples

Normal:

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

# Exponential family examples

Bernoulli:

$$\begin{array}{lll} f(y;p) & = & \exp{(y\log(p) + (1-y)\log(1-p))} \\ & = & \exp{\left(y\log{\frac{p}{1-p}} + (-\log(1-p))\right)} \end{array} \end{array}$$

## Today's big ideas

#### Logistic regression and GLMs

#### Suggested reading: ISLR Ch 4.2 and 4.3