

# Logistic Regression

For a binary response variable:  
1=Yes, 0=No

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# Binary outcomes are common and important

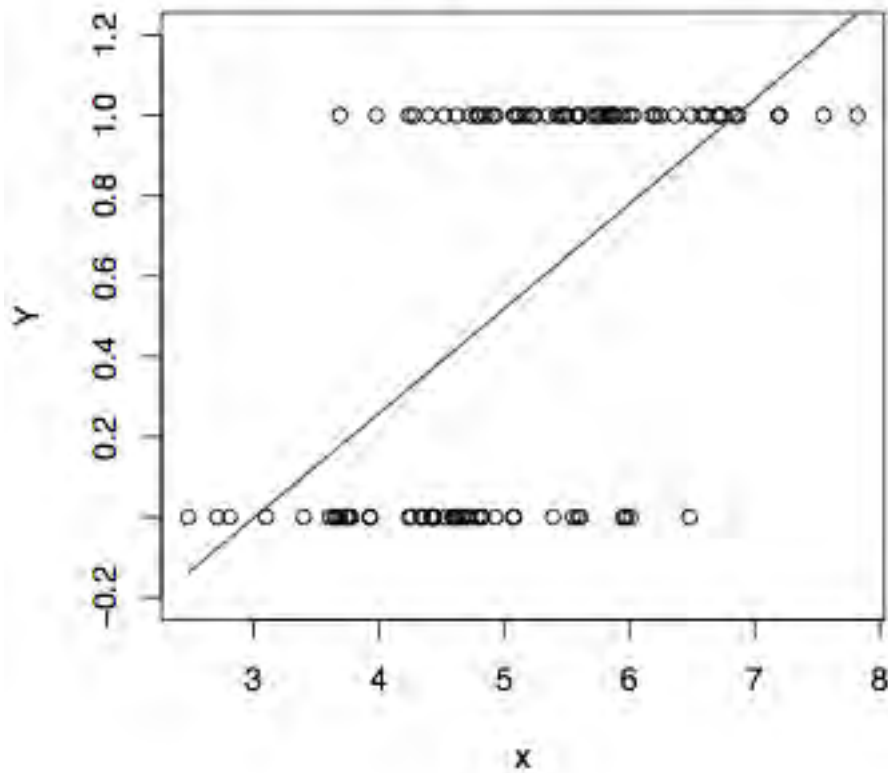
- The patient survives the operation, or does not.
- The accused is convicted, or is not.
- The customer makes a purchase, or does not.
- The marriage lasts at least five years, or does not.
- The student graduates, or does not.

# For a binary variable

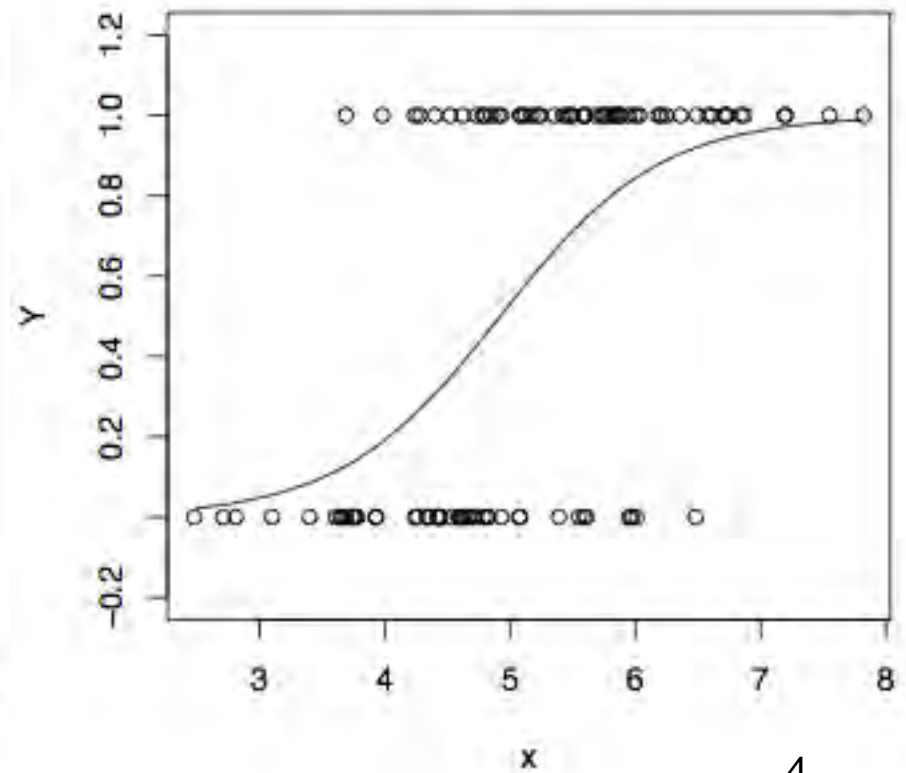
- The population mean  $E[Y]$  is the probability that  $Y=1$
- Make the mean depend on a set of explanatory variables
- Consider one explanatory variable. Think of a scatterplot

# Least Squares vs. Logistic Regression

Least Squares Line



Logistic Regression Curve



The logistic regression curve arises from an indirect representation of the probability of  $Y=1$  for a given set of  $x$  values.

Representing the probability of an event by  $\pi$

$$\text{Odds} = \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}$$

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- If  $P(Y=1)=1/2$ , odds =  $.5/(1-.5) = 1$  (to 1)
- If  $P(Y=1)=2/3$ , odds = 2 (to 1)
- If  $P(Y=1)=3/5$ , odds =  $(3/5)/(2/5) = 1.5$  (to 1)
- If  $P(Y=1)=1/5$ , odds = .25 (to 1)

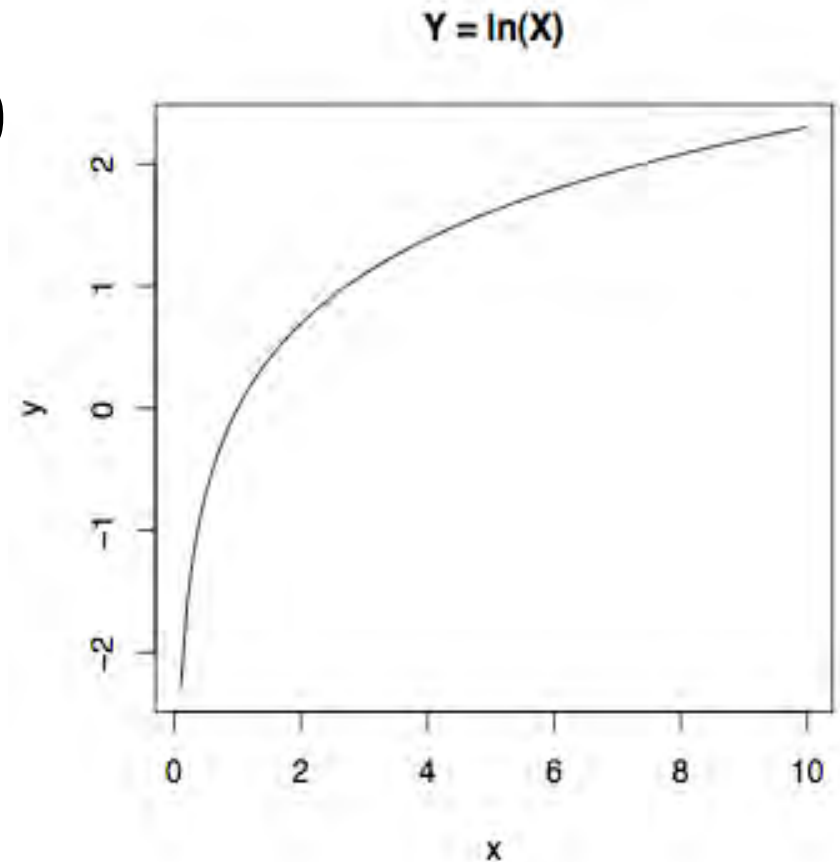
The higher the probability, the greater the odds

$$\text{Odds} = \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}$$

$$0 \leq \text{Odds} < \infty$$

# Linear model for the **log** odds

- Natural log, not base 10
- Symbolized  $\ln$



- The higher the probability, the higher the log odds.



# Linear regression model for the log odds of the event $Y=1$

$$\ln \left( \frac{P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(Y = 0 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}$$

# Probability zero or one is excluded

$$\ln \left( \frac{P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(Y = 0 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}$$

- Log is only defined for positive numbers.
- So any model for the log odds, including logistic regression, will not work for events of probability exactly zero or exactly one.
- Why not one?

# Equivalent Statements

$$\ln \left( \frac{P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(Y = 0 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(Y = 0 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} &= e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}} \\ &= e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1 x_1} \dots e^{\beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(Y = 1 | x_1, \dots, x_{p-1}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}}}$$

In terms of log odds, logistic regression is like regular regression

$$\ln \left( \frac{P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(Y = 0 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}$$

## In terms of plain odds,

- Logistic regression coefficients are related to *odds ratios*.
- For example, “Among 50 year old men, the odds of being dead before age 60 are three times as great for smokers.”

$$\frac{\text{Odds of death given smoker}}{\text{Odds of death given nonsmoker}} = 3$$

# Logistic regression

- $X=1$  means smoker,  $X=0$  means non-smoker
- $Y=1$  means dead,  $Y=0$  means alive
- Log odds of death =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- Odds of death =  $e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1 x}$

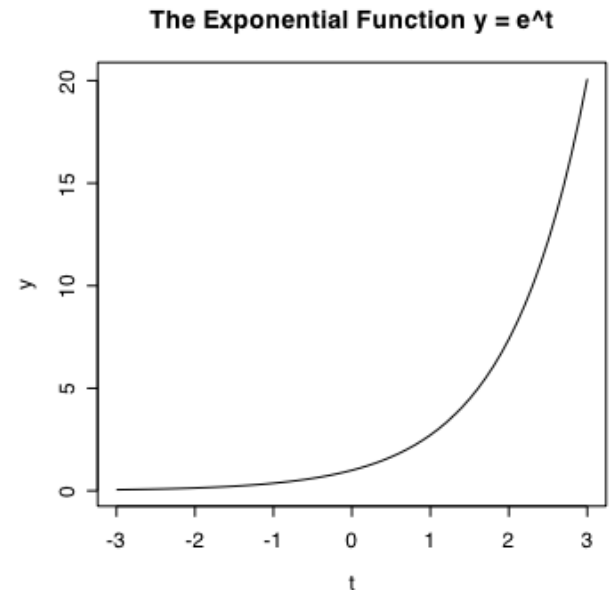
$$\text{Odds of Death} = e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1 x}$$

<b>Group</b>	$x$	<b>Odds of Death</b>
Smokers	1	$e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1}$
Non-smokers	0	$e^{\beta_0}$

$$\frac{\text{Odds of death given smoker}}{\text{Odds of death given nonsmoker}} = \frac{e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1}}{e^{\beta_0}} = e^{\beta_1}$$

# Exponential function $f(t) = e^t$

- Always positive
- $e^0=1$ , so when  $\beta_1 = 0$ , the odds ratio  $e^{\beta_1}$  equals one (50-50).
- $f(t) = e^t$  is increasing





# Another example

$$\text{Log Survival Odds} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d_1 + \beta_2 d_2 + \beta_3 x$$

Treatment	$d_1$	$d_2$	Odds of Survival = $e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1 d_1} e^{\beta_2 d_2} e^{\beta_3 x}$
Chemotherapy	1	0	$e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1} e^{\beta_3 x}$
Radiation	0	1	$e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_2} e^{\beta_3 x}$
Both	0	0	$e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_3 x}$

For any given disease severity  $x$ ,

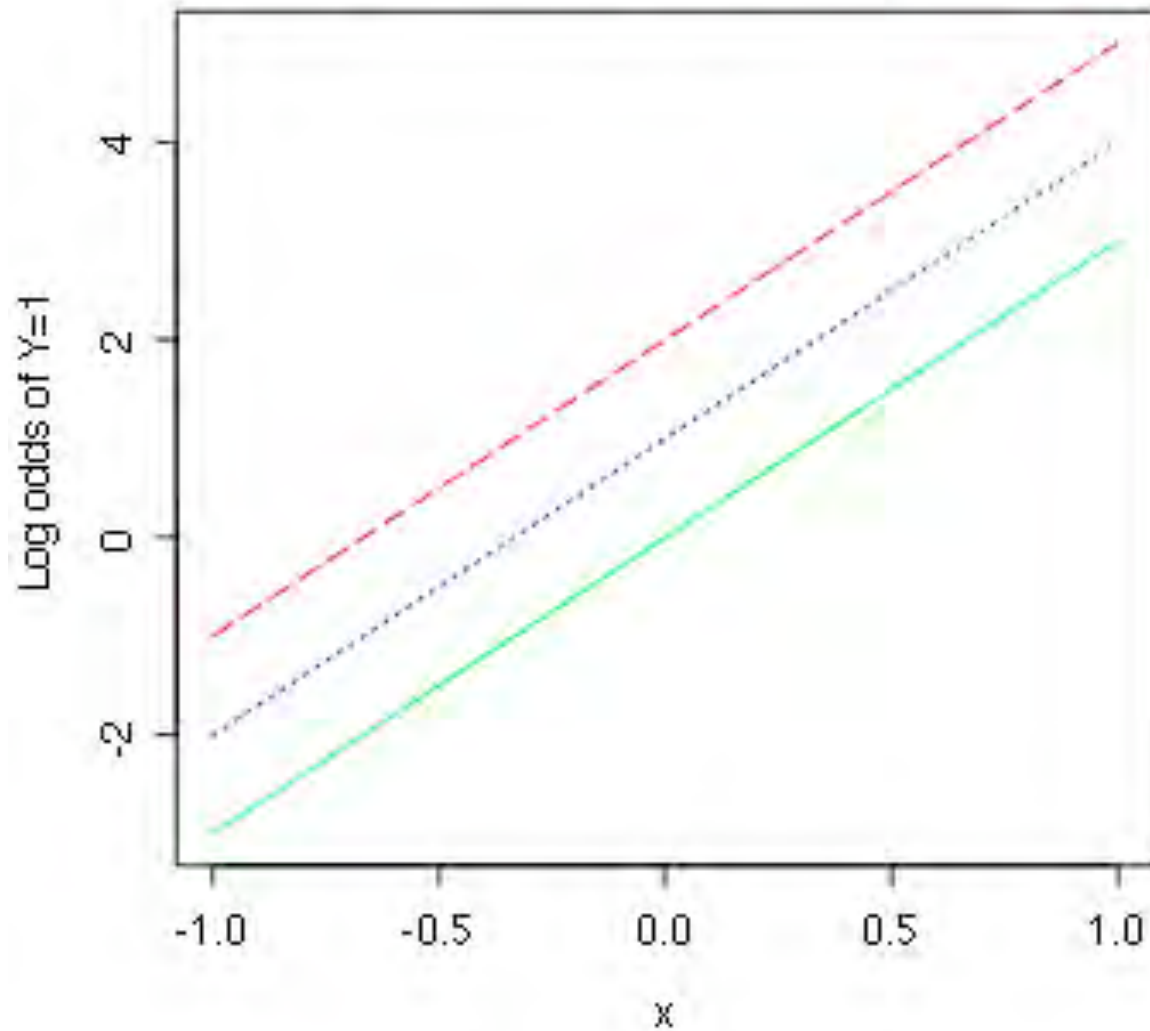
$$\frac{\text{Survival odds with Chemo}}{\text{Survival odds with Both}} = \frac{e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_1} e^{\beta_3 x}}{e^{\beta_0} e^{\beta_3 x}} = e^{\beta_1}$$

# In general,

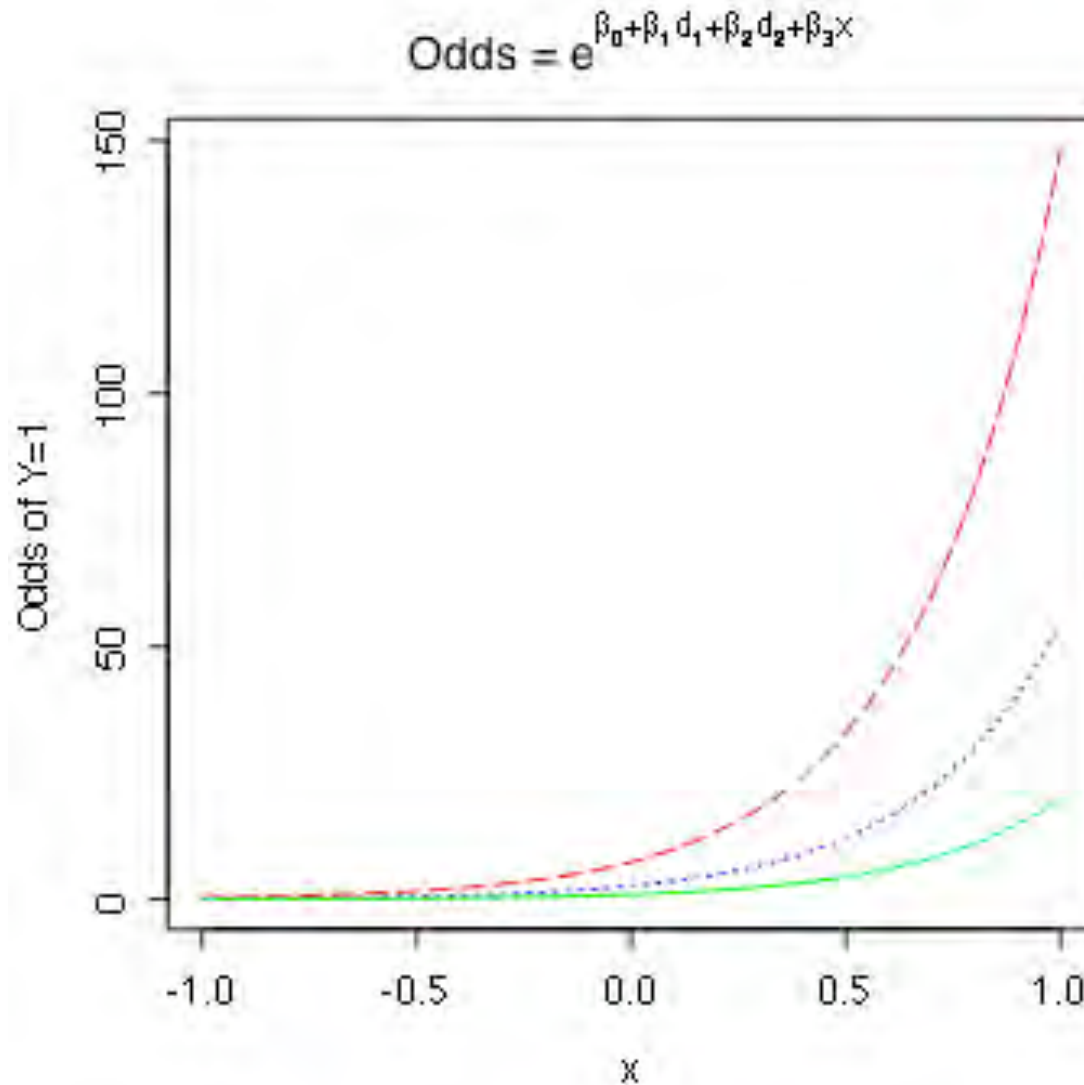
- When  $x_k$  is increased by one unit and all other explanatory variables are held constant, the odds of  $Y=1$  are multiplied by  $e^{\beta_k}$
- That is,  $e^{\beta_k}$  is an **odds ratio** --- the ratio of the odds of  $Y=1$  when  $x_k$  is increased by one unit, to the odds of  $Y=1$  when everything is left alone.
- As in ordinary regression, we speak of “controlling” for the other variables.

# Equal slopes in the log odds scale

$$\text{Log Odds} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d_1 + \beta_2 d_2 + \beta_3 x$$

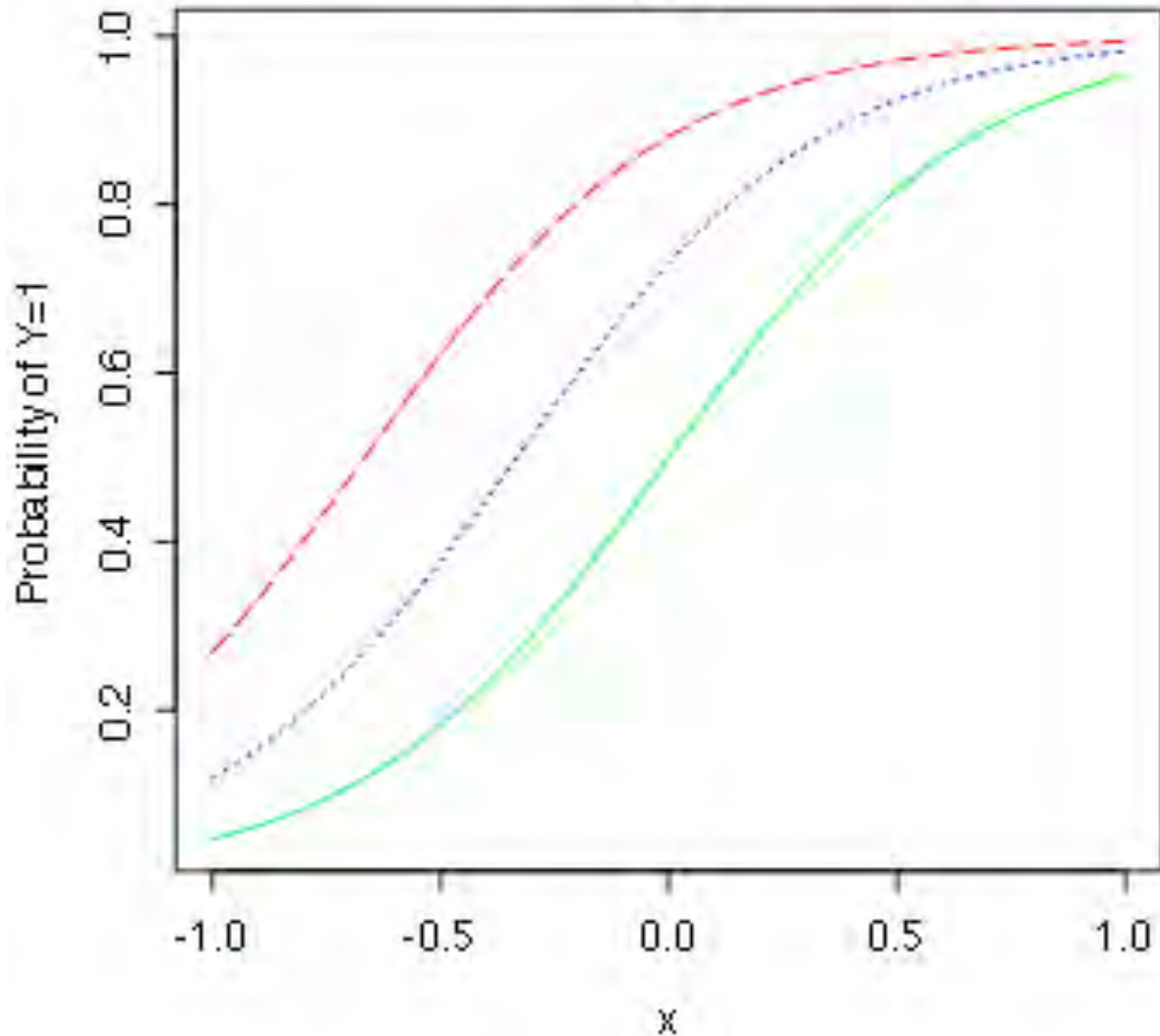


Equal slopes in the log odds scale  
means proportional odds



# Proportional Odds in Terms of Probability

$$\text{Probability} = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_1 + \beta_2 d_2 + \beta_3 x}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_1 + \beta_2 d_2 + \beta_3 x}}$$



# Interactions

- With equal slopes in the log odds scale, *differences* in odds and *differences* in probabilities do depend on  $x$ .
- Regression coefficients for product terms still mean something.
- If zero, they mean that the *odds ratio* does not depend on the value(s) of the covariate(s).
- Odds ratio has odds of  $Y=1$  for the reference category in the denominator.
- Most of our models will not have product terms.

# The conditional probability of $Y=1$

$$P(Y = 1 | x_1, \dots, x_{p-1}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}}}$$

This formula can be used to calculate an estimated  $P(Y=1)$   
Just replace betas by their estimates (b)

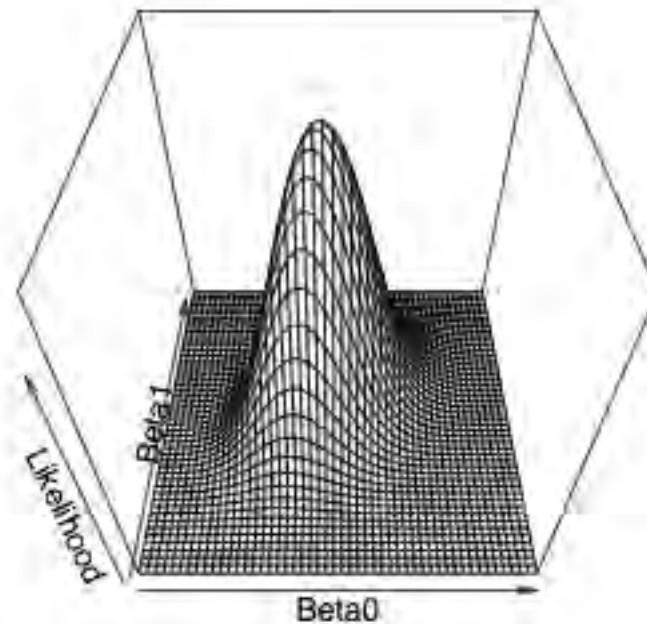
It can also be used to calculate the probability of getting  
The sample data values we actually did observe.



# Maximum likelihood estimation

- Likelihood = Probability of getting the data values we did observe
- Viewed as a function of the parameters (betas), it's called the "likelihood function."
- Those parameter values for which the likelihood function is greatest are called the *maximum likelihood estimates*.
- Thank you again, Mr. Fisher.

# Likelihood Function for Simple Logistic Regression



# Maximum likelihood estimates

- Must be found numerically.
- For the record, using “iteratively re-weighted least squares.”
- Lead to nice large-sample chi-square tests.
- Most common are likelihood ratio tests and Wald tests.
- We will mostly use Wald tests.

# Likelihood Ratio Tests

- Likelihood at MLE is the maximum probability of obtaining the observed data.
- Higher probability means better model fit, but they are all very small.
- $-2 \log$  likelihood measures lack of fit.
- Restricted (reduced) model always fits worse than unrestricted (full).
- $G^2 = -2LL_R - -2LL_F$
- $df$  is number of = signs in  $H_0$ .

# Wald tests

- Based directly on approximate large-sample normality of the MLE.
- Thank you, Mr. Wald.
- Formula looks like the numerator of the general linear F-test statistic.
- Wald and LR tests are asymptotically equivalent under  $H_0$ .
- Meaning that if  $H_0$  is true, the difference between the test statistics goes to zero in probability as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- If  $H_0$  is false, they both go to  $\infty$  but need not be close.
- LR tests perform better for smaller samples, and have other advantages.
- We will mostly use Wald tests because SAS makes them more convenient.

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