

# A Short Course in Linear and Logistic Regression

Suman Guha Assistant Professor Department of Statistics Presidency University, Kolkata July 26, 2020  Observations taken on two features - say height (x) and weight (y) of individuals.



Situations when (x) and (y) show no interrelationships - no point doing regression.

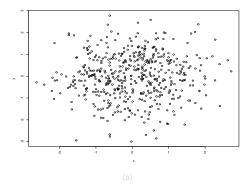


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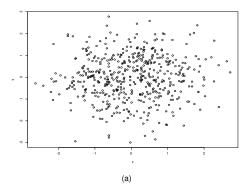


Figure: Artificially simulated dataset showing no dependence between *x* and *y*.

Fortunately, most of the time *x* and *y* turns out to be dependent!



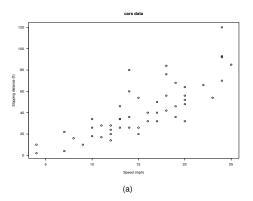


Figure: (x) car speed in miles per hour vs (y) stopping distance in feet.

- Want an approximate formula  $(y \approx f(x))$  of stopping distance (y) in terms of car speed (x) regression problem.
- Why?

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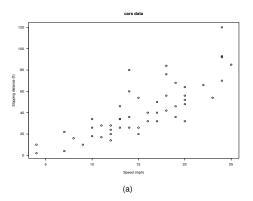


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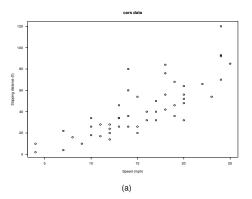


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# $\blacksquare$ To understand the nature of dependence between (x) and (y).

- Sometimes (y) may be costly/difficult to measure (total annual income) but (x) may be measured easily (total annual expenditure) can use the formula to predict y\* using x\*.
- What type of formula?  $f(x) = ax^3 + b\sqrt{x} + c$ ?
- No, we want a formula of form f(x) = a + bx equation of a straight line.

- (ii) Most of the time linear regression perform guite well!
- How to get the value of a, b? a line that pass through the most middle obtained by minimizing  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i a bx_i)^2$ .
- Closed form solution available  $f(x) = (\bar{y} \frac{Cov(x,y)}{Var(x)}\bar{x}) + \frac{Cov(x,y)}{Var(x)}x = \bar{y} + \frac{Cov(x,y)}{Var(x)}(x \bar{x})$



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 $x_i$ ,  $y_i$  - given data.  $Y_i = f(x_i)$  is fitted values and  $e_i = y_i - Y_i$  - residuals.



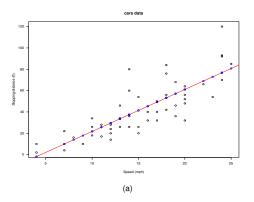


Figure: Scatter plot with the regression line, fitted values and residuals.

- Minimizing  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i a bx_i)^2$  wrt a, b Principle of least squares (LS) LS regression line.
- LS regression line is highly vulnerable to outlying observation.

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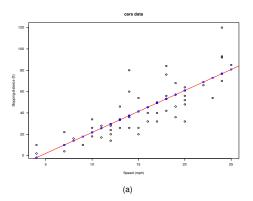


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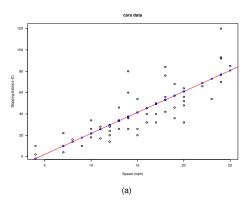


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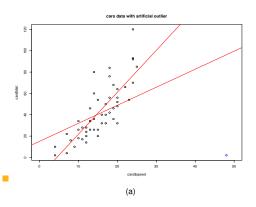


Figure: Effect of a single outlier on LS regression line.

- Two possibilities: (i) detect and drop the outlier (ii) apply an outliers resistant regression.
- Minimizing  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i a bx_i)^2$  wrt a, b equivalent minimizing  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i a bx_i)^2$  (mean of  $(y_i a bx_i)^2$ ) wrt a, b.
- Why not minimize Median of  $(y_i a bx_i)^2$  wrt a, b? least median square (LMS) regression.



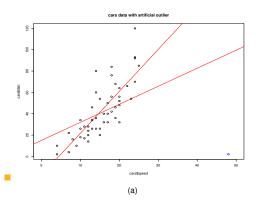


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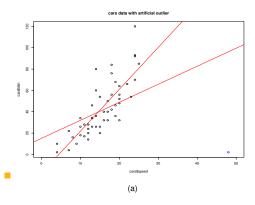


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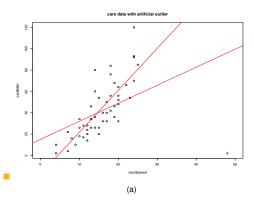


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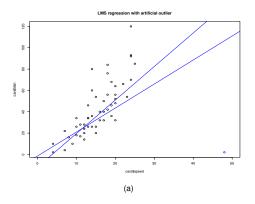


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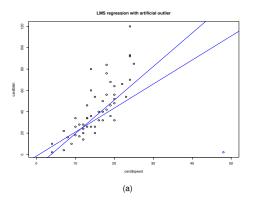


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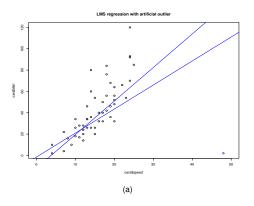


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- Model parameters a, b, σ<sub>c</sub>
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- The model is nothing but a family of MVN distributions indexed by unknown parameters  $a, b, \sigma_{\epsilon}$ .
- More familiar specification  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ ;  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim MVN(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$ .

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### The model is fitted using maximum likelihood method.

- Inferential goal estimating  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  and  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2$
- $\blacksquare$  mle of  $\beta$  is given by  $\hat{\beta} = \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$  same as LS regression values.
- lacksquare mle of  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2$  is given by  $\hat{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} = rac{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{e}_i^2}{n}$  biased
- An unbiased estimator  $\tilde{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2}$ .
- Only concentrate on  $\hat{\beta}$  from now on.
- How good/reliable are these estimates? calculate standard errors.
- $Var(\hat{\beta}) = Var(\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}} Var(\mathbf{y}) \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}}' = \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}} \sigma_{\epsilon}^{2} \mathbf{I}_{n} \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}}' = \sigma_{\epsilon}^{2} \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}}' = \sigma_{\epsilon}^{2} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \sigma_{\epsilon}^{2} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}.$
- Estimate of  $Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$  is  $\tilde{\sigma}_{\epsilon}^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  (we use the unbiased estimator  $\tilde{\sigma}_{\epsilon}^2$  not mle  $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}^2$ .
- Its diagonal entries estimate of standard error  $\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_0)}$  and  $\widehat{se(\hat{\beta}_1)}$



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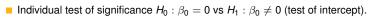


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# Another inferential goal - testing for $\beta$ .



- Individual test of significance  $H_0: \beta_0 = 0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_0 \neq 0$  (test of intercept).
  - Test statistic  $T = \frac{\hat{\beta_0}}{\widehat{se}(\hat{\beta_0})}$ .
- Null distribution of test statistic  $\sim t_{n-2}$  Cutoff is obtained using  $t_{n-2}$ -distribution table.
- Practitioners prefer *p*-value  $P(T > |T_{observed}|)$  where  $T \sim t_{n-2}$
- Individual test of significance  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$  (test of slope).
- Test statistic  $T = \frac{\hat{\beta_1}}{se(\hat{\beta_1})}$ .
- Null distribution of test statistic  $\sim t_{n-2}$  Cutoff is obtained using  $t_{n-2}$ -distribution table.
- Joint test of significance  $H_0: \beta = \mathbf{0}$  vs  $H_1: \beta \neq \mathbf{0}$
- Test statistic  $F = \frac{\hat{\beta}'(X'X)\hat{\beta}}{2\tilde{\sigma}^2}$
- Null distribution of test statistic  $\sim F_{2,n-2}$  Cutoff is obtained using  $F_{2,n-2}$ -distribution table.
- *p*-value  $P(F > F_{observed})$  where  $F \sim F_{2,n-2}$ .





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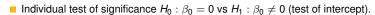
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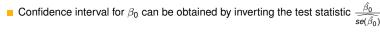
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- Practitioners prefer *p*-value  $P(T > |T_{observed}|)$  where  $T \sim t_{n-2}$ .
- Individual test of significance  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$  (test of slope).
- Test statistic  $T = \frac{\hat{\beta_1}}{\widehat{se}(\hat{\beta_1})}$ .
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- Null distribution of test statistic  $\sim F_{2,n-2}$  Cutoff is obtained using  $F_{2,n-2}$ -distribution table.
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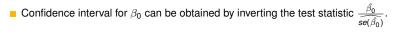
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- (i) Linearity: The relationship between  ${\bf X}$  and the mean of  ${\bf Y}$  is linear  $({\cal E}({\bf Y}|{\bf X})={\bf X}\beta).$
- (ii) Homoscedasticity: The variance of residual is the same for  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . (iii) Uncorrelatedness: Observations are uncorrelated of each other.
- Normality: For any fixed value  $x_i$ ,  $[Y_i|X_i=x_i]$  is normally distributed.
- Normality + (iii) Uncorrelatedness: Observations are uncorrelated of each other ⇒ Observations are independent of each other.
- Check for potentially bad points which may lead to poor model fit :
  - (i) Outliers: An outlier is defined as an observation that has a large residual. In other words, the observed value for the point is very different from that predicted by the regression model.
    - (ii) Leverage points: A leverage point is defined as an observation that has a value of  $x_i$  that is far away from the mean of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .
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■ Homoscedasticity - Check the fitted value  $Y_i$  vs residual  $e_i$  plot to see if the spread is changing as we move along x - axis - changing means beteroscedastic

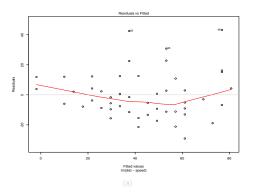


Figure: Clear indication of nonlinearity and heteroscedasticity

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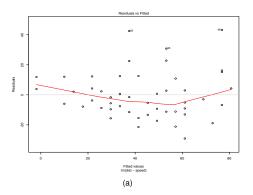


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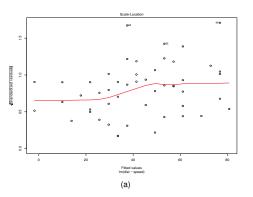


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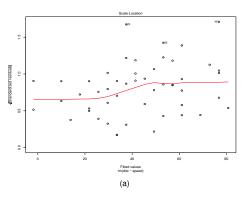


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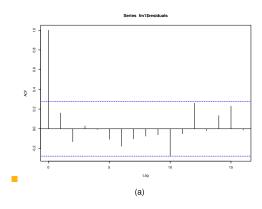


Figure: Indication of uncorrelatedness.

Also can perform Durbin-Watson test and Box-Pierce test for checking whether there is any autocorrelation.



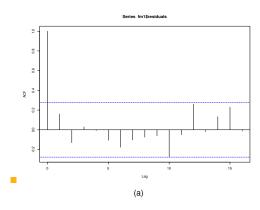


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Also can perform Durbin-Watson test and Box-Pierce test for checking whether there is any autocorrelation. Normality: Q-Q plot of standardised/studentized residuals.



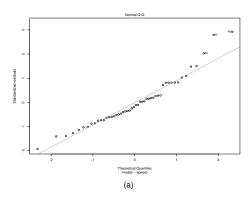


Figure: Indication of non-normality.

 Also can perform Shapiro-Wilks test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for checking departure from normality. Normality: Q-Q plot of standardised/studentized residuals.



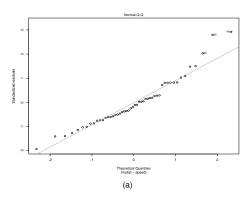
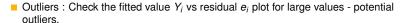


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- Leverage points: Check for points with high leverage values  $h_{ii}$ .
- Recall that  $0 < h_{ii} < 1$ .
- Influential observations: Can be detected by looking into standardised residuals vs leverage plot.

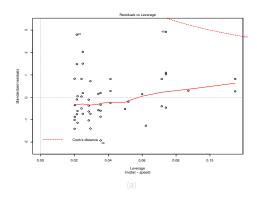


Figure: A few influential observations

- Outliers: Check the fitted value Y<sub>i</sub> vs residual e<sub>i</sub> plot for large values potential outliers.
- Leverage points: Check for points with high leverage values h<sub>ii</sub>.
- Recall that  $0 \le h_{ii} \le 1$ .
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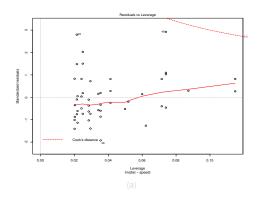
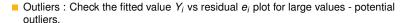


Figure: A few influential observations





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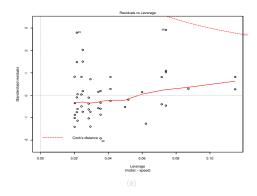
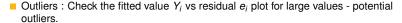


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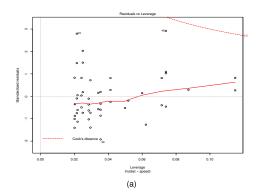


Figure: A few influential observations.



- Also, some more numerical diagnostic measures are there for detection of potentially influential observations.
- Cook's distance :  $D_i = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{e_i}{\sigma_r \sqrt{1 h_{ii}}} \right)^2 \frac{h_{ii}}{1 h_{ii}} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \text{standardized residual} \right)^2 \frac{h_{ii}}{1 h_{ii}}$
- So, Cook's D is a function of studentized residual and leverage value can be
  plotted as a nonlinear contours in the residuals vs leverage plot.
- High leverage values (close to 1) means Cook's distance very large highly influential observation.
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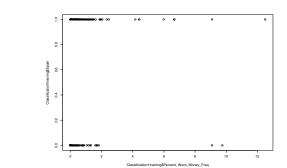


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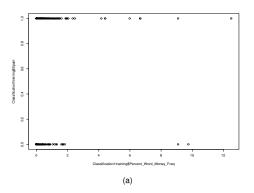


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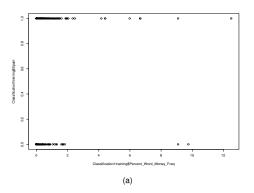


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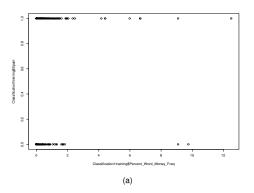
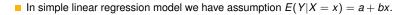


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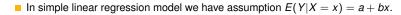




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- $0 \le P(Y = 1 | X = x) \le 1$  but  $-\infty < a + bx < +\infty$  for  $b \ne 0$ .
- However,  $P(Y = 1 | X = x) = \frac{e^{a+bx}}{1+e^{a+bx}}$  absolutely meaningful.
- $=\frac{e^{a+bx}}{1+e^{a+bx}}$  logistic distribution so the name logistic regression.
- $logit(P(Y = 1|X = x)) = log(ODDS \text{ for } Y=1) = log\left(\frac{P(Y=1|X=x)}{P(Y=0|X=x)}\right) = log\left(\frac{P(Y=1|X=x)}{1-P(Y=1|X=x)}\right) = a + bx \text{so the name logit regression.}$
- If not coded using dummy variables  $P(Y = "dead" | X = x) = \frac{e^{a+bx}}{1+e^{a+bx}}$ .

Reason?(i) Very Simple Form

- (ii) Lots of Similarity with Linear Regression Model
- (iii) Logistic Regression Model/Logit Regression Model is Highly Successful!





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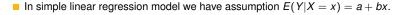
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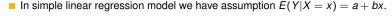




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Reason?(i) Very Simple Form

- (ii) Lots of Similarity with Linear Regression Model
- (iii) Logistic Regression Model/Logit Regression Model is Highly Successful!





Now for the logistic regression model we have assumption 
$$E(Y|X=x)=1\times P(Y=1|X=x)+0\times P(Y=0|X=x)=P(Y=1|X=x)=a+bx??$$
 - meaningless

$$0 \le P(Y = 1 | X = x) \le 1 \text{ but } -\infty < a + bx < +\infty \text{ for } b \ne 0.$$

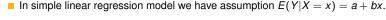
■ However, 
$$P(Y = 1|X = x) = \frac{e^{a+bx}}{1+e^{a+bx}}$$
 - absolutely meaningful.

$$=\frac{e^{a+bx}}{1+e^{a+bx}}$$
 - logistic distribution - so the name logistic regression.

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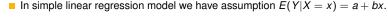
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  - (a) spam detection based on certain words and characters.
  - (b) malignant tumor detection based on certain cell profiles.
  - (c) loan defaulters detection based on personal/socio-economic and demographic profiles.
- Difference with linear regression no closed form solution available.
- Simple logistic regression model :

$$\begin{split} &[Y_1 = y_1, \cdots, Y_n = y_n | X_1 = x_1, \cdots, X_n = x_n] \sim \\ &\prod_{i=1}^n [P(Y = 1 | X = x_i)]^{y_i} [1 - P(Y = 1 | X = x_i)]^{1 - y_i} = \\ &\prod_{i=1}^n [\frac{e^{a + bx_i}}{1 + e^{a + bx_i}}]^{y_i} [\frac{1}{1 + e^{a + bx_i}}]^{1 - y_i} \end{split}$$

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### ■ The model is fitted using maximum likelihood method.



- Inferential goal estimating the parameter vector  $\beta = (a, b)'$ .
- $\blacksquare$  mle of  $\beta$  is denoted by  $\hat{\beta}$  unlike linear regression no closed form expression.
- mle is calculated using numerical algorithm Fisher's scoring algorithm.
- Often the algorithm may not converge multicollinearity, sparseness and complete separation.
- multicollinearity: when covariate/predictor variables are linearly highly correlated.
- sparseness: for some combinations of covariate variables we do not get any data.
- complete separation : beyond some combination threshold value only Y=1 only Y=0 responses are obtained.
- For the simple logistic regression model instead of Fisher's scoring one often use Newton-Raphson method.
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# Another inferential goal - testing for $\beta$ .



- Individual test of significance  $H_0: \beta_0 = 0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_0 \neq 0$  (test of intercept).
- Test statistic  $Z = \frac{\hat{\beta_0}}{\widehat{se(\hat{\beta_0})}}$
- Finite sample null distribution is not available asymptotic null distribution (assuming no. of data n large) of test statistic  $\sim N(0,1)$  Cutoff is obtained using standard normal table.
- Practitioners prefer *p*-value  $P(Z > |Z_{observed}|)$  where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .
- Individual test of significance  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$  (test of slope)
- Test statistic  $Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{\widehat{se}(\hat{\beta}_1)}$
- asymptotic null distribution of test statistic ~ N(0,1) Cutoff is obtained using N(0,1)-distribution table.
- Asymptotically approximate confidence intervals can be obtained for the parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  inverting the Ztest statistics.
- Goodness of fit measures
- Want something like R<sup>2</sup>.

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- Model parameters  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \cdots, \beta_p$
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- multicollinearity: some of the regressors/predictors are linearly highly correlated
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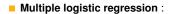
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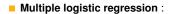
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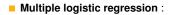
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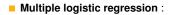
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- High VIF means highly correlated covariate  $VIF_i > 5$  is high (thumb rule).
- Unlike linear regression there are different notions of residuals Deviance residual. Pearson residual and Anscombe residual.
- Similar diagnostic plots based on them can be devised like linear regression problems.



- **Calculate** variance inflation factors  $VIF_i$  for each of the p regressors.
- Perform a multiple linear regression of the j th covariate on the remaining (p-1) covariates calculate the  $R_i^2$  (R-squared).
- $VIF_j = \frac{1}{1 R_j^2}$
- High VIF means highly correlated covariate  $VIF_i > 5$  is high (thumb rule).
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