Statistical Methods for Data Science

Lesson 16 - Multiple, non-linear, and logistic regression.

Salvatore Ruggieri

Department of Computer Science
University of Pisa
salvatore.ruggieri@unipi.it

Simple linear regression model

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION MODEL. In a *simple linear regression model* for a bivariate dataset $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, we assume that $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ are nonrandom and that $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ are realizations of random variables $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n$ satisfying

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + U_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, n,$$

where $U_1, \ldots, U_n$ are *independent* random variables with $\mathrm{E}[U_i] = 0$ and $\mathrm{Var}(U_i) = \sigma^2$.

- *Regression line*: $y = \alpha + \beta x$ with *intercept* α and *slope* β
- Least Square Estimators: $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$
- Unbiasedness: $E[\hat{\alpha}] = \alpha$ and $E[\hat{\beta}] = \beta$
- Moreover: $Var(\hat{\alpha}) = \sigma^2(1/n + \bar{x}^2/SXX)$ and $Var(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2/SXX$
- *Standard errors* (estimates of $\sqrt{Var(\hat{\alpha})}$ and $\sqrt{Var(\hat{\beta})}$):

$$se(\hat{\alpha}) = \hat{\sigma}\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}_n^2}{SXX}\right)} \qquad se(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{SXX}}$$

Standard error of fitted values (predictions)

- For a given x_0, the the estimator $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} x_0$ has expectation $E[\hat{Y}] = \alpha + \beta x_0$
- Hence, $\hat{y} = \alpha + \beta x_0$, is the best estimate for the fitted value
- Variance of $\hat{Y}$ is: *[See notes2.pdf]*

$$Var(\hat{Y}) = \sigma^2 (\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{x}_n - x_0)^2}{SXX})$$

- The *standard error* of the fitted value is then the estimate:

$$se(\hat{Y}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{x}_n - x_0)^2}{SXX})}$$

where

$$SXX = \sum_1^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)^2 \qquad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_1^n (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} x_i)^2$$

See R script

Weighted Least Squares and simple polynomial regression

- Weighted Simple Regression

$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2 w_i$$

  - w_i is the weight (or importance) of observation (x_i, y_i)
  - For integer weights, it is the same as replicating instances

- Polynomial Simple Regression

$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \alpha - \beta_1 x_i - \beta_2 x_i^2 - \ldots - \beta_k x_i^k)^2$$

  - $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \ldots + \beta_k x_i^k + U_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$

See R script

Non-linear regression and transformably linear functions

- Non-linear Simple Regression, for a generic function $f()$
- $Y_i = f(\alpha, \beta, x_i) + U_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$

$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f(\alpha, \beta, x_i))^2$$

- $\min S(\alpha, \beta)$ maybe without a closed form
  - use numeric search of the minimum (which may fail to find!), e.g., gradient descent
  - Idea: $y_i - f(\alpha, \beta + \delta, x_i) \approx y - f(\alpha, \beta, x_i) + \frac{d}{d\beta} f(\alpha, \delta, x_i)$
- Some $f()$ can be favourably transformed, e.g., $f(\alpha, \beta, x_i) = \alpha x_i^\beta$ *[Linearization]*
- Solve $\log Y_i = \log \alpha + \log \beta x_i + U_i$ and then by exponentiation:

$$Y_i = \alpha x_i^\beta e^{U_i}$$

where the error term is a multiplicative factor (must be checked with residual analysis)

See R script

Multiple linear regression

- Multivariate dataset:

$$(x_1^1, x_1^2, \dots, x_1^k, y_1), \dots, (x_n^1, x_n^2, \dots, x_n^k, y_n)$$

- $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i^1 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + U_i$
- In vector terms:
  - $Y_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta} + U_i$, where $\boldsymbol{\beta}^T = (\alpha, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_i = (x_i^1, \dots, x_i^k)$
  - $\boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{U}$, where $\boldsymbol{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$, $\boldsymbol{U} = (U_1, \dots, U_n)$, and $\boldsymbol{X} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_n)$
- Ordinary Least Square Estimation (OLS):

$$S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \boldsymbol{x}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta})^2 = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 \qquad \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = argmin_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \cdot \boldsymbol{X}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{y}$$

  where $\boldsymbol{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ and $\|(v_1, \dots, v_n)\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2}$ is the Euclidian norm
- Meaning of β_i: change of Y due to a unit change in x_i all the x_j with $j \neq i$ unchanged!
- It is the best (ie., smallest MSE) linear unbiased estimator [**Gauss-Markov Thm.**]

See R script

Omitted variable bias

- $Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + U_i$
- There exists a third (unknown) variable Z such that:
  - X and Z are correlated
  - Y is determined by Z
- $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + U_i'$ but we do not know z_i's
- $E[U_i] = E[\beta_2 z_i + U_i'] = \beta_2 z_i + E[U_i'] = \beta_2 z_i \neq 0$
- The problem that **cannot** be solved by increasing the number of observations!

See R script

Multi-collinearity and variance inflation factors

- *Multicollinearity*: two or more independent variables (regressors) are strongly correlated.
- $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i^1 + \beta_2 x_i^2 + U_i$
- It can be shown that for $j \in \{1, 2\}$:

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_j) = \frac{1}{(1 - r^2)} \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{SXX_j}$$

  where $r = cor(x^1, x^2)$, $\sigma^2 = Var(U_i)$ and $SXX_j = \sum_1^n (x_i^j - \bar{x}_n)^2$
- Correlation between regressors increase the variance of the estimators
- In general, for more than 2 variables:

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_j) = \frac{1}{(1 - R_j^2)} \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{SXX_j}$$

  where R_j^2 is the coefficient of determination (R^2) in the regression of x_j from all other x_i's.
- The term $1/(1 - R_j^2)$ is called *variance inflation factor*

See R script

Variable selection

- Recall: when $U_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$, we have $Y_i \sim N(\boldsymbol{x}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$
- Log-likelihood is $\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y_i - \boldsymbol{x}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sigma^2}\right)^2}\right)$
- Akaike information criterion (AIC), balances model fit against model simplicity

$$AIC(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 2|\boldsymbol{\beta}| - 2\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

- stepAIC(model, direction="backward") algorithm
  1. $S = \{x^1, \ldots, x^k\}$
  2. $b = AIC(S)$
  3. repeat
     - 3.1 $x = argmin_{x \in S} AIC(S \setminus \{x\})$
     - 3.2 $v = AIC(S \setminus \{x\})$
     - 3.3 if $v < b$ then $S, b = S \setminus \{x\}, v$
  4. until no change in S
  5. return S

See R script

Regularization methods

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = argmin_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} S(\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

- Ordinary Least Square Estimation (OLS):

$$S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2$$

  where $\|(v_1, \ldots, v_n)\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i^2}$ is the Euclidian norm
- Ridge regression:

$$S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_2 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2$$

  where $\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 = \alpha^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_i^2$.
  - Notice that λ_2 is not in the parameters of the minimization problem!
  - Variables with minor contribution have their coefficients **close** to zero
  - It improves prediction error by reducing overfitting through a bias-variance trade-off
  - It is **not** a parsimonious method, i.e., does not reduce features

Regularization methods

- Lasso (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator) regression:

$$S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1^2$$

  where $\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1^2 = |\alpha| + \sum_{i=1}^{k} |\beta_i|$.
  - Notice that λ_1 is not in the parameters of the minimization problem!
  - Variable with minor contribution have their coefficients **equal** to zero
  - It improves prediction error by reducing overfitting through a bias-variance trade-off
  - It **is** a parsimonious method, i.e., does reduce features
- Penalized linear regression (or Elastic net regularization):

$$S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_2 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1^2$$

  - Both Ridge and Lasso regularization parameters
- How to solve the minimization problems? **Lagrange multiplier method** or **reduction to Support Vector Machine** learning
- How to find the best λ_1 and/or λ_2? Cross-validation!

See R script

Multivariate linear regression

- The multivariate linear model accommodates two or more dependent variables

$$\boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{U}$$

where

  - $\boldsymbol{Y}$ is $n \times m$: n observations, m dependent variables
  - $\boldsymbol{X}$ is $n \times (k+1)$: n observations, k dependent variables $+1$ constants
  - $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is $(k+1) \times m$: k parameters β $+1$ parameter α for each of the m dependent variables
  - $\boldsymbol{U}$ is $n \times m$: n observations, m error terms

- It is **not** just a collection of m multiple linear regressions
- Errors in rows (observations) of $\boldsymbol{U}$ are independent, as in a single multiple linear regression
- Errors in columns (dependent variables) are allowed to be correlated.
  - E.g., errors of plasma level and amitriptyline due to usage of drugs
  - Hence, coefficients from the models covary! More later on confidence intervals for coefficients

See R script

Logistic regression

- Consider a bivariate dataset

$$(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$$

where $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$, i.e., Y_i i binary variable

- Using directly use linear regression:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + U_i$$

results in poor performances (R^2)

See R script

Logistic regression

- Consider a bivariate dataset
$$(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$$
where $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$, i.e., Y_i i binary variable
- Group by x values:
$$(d_1, f_1), \ldots, (d_m, f_m)$$
where $d_1, \ldots, d_m$ are the distinct values of $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ and f_i is the fraction of 1's:
$$f_i = \frac{|\{j \in [1, n] \mid x_j = d_i \wedge y_j = 1\}|}{|\{j \in [1, n] \mid x_j = d_i\}|}$$
- Consider the linear model:
$$F_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + U_i$$

See R script

Logistic regression

- Rather than f_i, we model the logit of f_i

$$logit(F_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i + U_i$$

where logit and its inverse (logistic function) are:

$$logit(p) = \log \frac{p}{1-p} \qquad inv.logit(x) = \frac{e^x}{1+e^x}$$

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Logistic regression and generalized linear models

- Since Y_i's are binary, $F_i = P(Y_i = 1|X = x_i) \sim Ber(f_i)$, where $n_i = |\{\}|$ and U_i is not necessary
$$logit(F_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$
and then $F_i = P(Y_i = 1|X = x_i) = inv.logit(\alpha + \beta x_i) = \frac{e^{\alpha+\beta x_i}}{1+e^{\alpha+\beta x_i}}$
- Linear regression predict the value Y_i
- Logistic regression predict the probability $P(Y_i = 1)$
- Generalized linear models:
  - family = distribution + link function
  - E.g., Binomial + logit for logistic regression
  - For $Y_i \in \{0, 1\}$, actually Bernoulli + logit *[Binary logistic regression]*
- Since distribution is known, MLE can be adopted for estimating α and β:

$$\ell(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[y_i \log\left(inv.logit(\alpha + \beta x_i)\right) + (1 - y_i) \log\left(1 - inv.logit(\alpha + \beta x_i)\right)\right]$$

See R script

Penalized/Elastic net logistic regression

- Penalized linear regression minimizes:

$$\|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_2 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1^2$$

  - $\lambda_1 = 0$ is the Ridge penalty
  - $\lambda_2 = 0$ is the Lasso penalty
- Elastic net regularization for logistic regression minimizes:

$$-\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda \left(\frac{(1-\alpha)}{2} \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \alpha \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1^2 \right)$$

  - $\alpha = 0$ is the Ridge penalty
  - $\alpha = 1$ is the Lasso penalty
  - λ is to be found, e.g., by cross-validation

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