

## Logistic regression



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## Model-based methods: Overview

### Structure

- Explicitly assume some probability distribution for the data, e.g., binomial, Poisson, ...
- Distinguish between the **systematic** component— explained by the model— and a **random** component, which is not
- Allow a compact summary of the data in terms of a (hopefully) small number of parameters

### Advantages

- Inferences: hypothesis tests *and* confidence intervals
- Can test **individual** model terms (`anova()`)
- Methods for model selection: adjust balance between goodness-of-fit and parsimony
- Predicted values give **model-smoothed** summaries for plotting
- $\Rightarrow$  Interpret the fitted model graphically

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## loglm() vs. glm()

With `loglm()` you can only test overall fit (`anova()`) or difference between models (`Lrstats()`)

```
> berk.mod1 <- loglm(~ Dept * (Gender + Admit),
data=UCBAdmissions)
> berk.mod2 <- loglm(~(Admit + Dept + Gender)^2,
data=UCBAdmissions)
> anova(berk.mod2)
Call:
loglm(formula = ~(Admit + Dept + Gender)^2, data =
UCBAdmissions)

Statistics:
              X^2 df P(> X^2)
Likelihood Ratio 20.20  5 0.001144
Pearson          18.82  5 0.00207
```

What we can say:

Even the model with all pairwise associations fits poorly

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Comparing models with `anova()` and `Lrstats()`

```
> anova(berk.mod1, berk.mod2, test="Chisq")
LR tests for hierarchical log-linear models

Model 1:
~Dept * (Gender + Admit)
Model 2:
~(Admit + Dept + Gender)^2

              Deviance df Delta(Dev) Delta(df) P(> Delta(Dev)
Model 1          21.74  6
Model 2          20.20  5      1.531         1      0.21593
Saturated         0.00  0      20.204         5      0.00114

> Lrstats(berk.mod1, berk.mod2)
Likelihood summary table:
              AIC BIC LR Chisq Df Pr(>Chisq)
berk.mod1 217 238    21.7  6    0.0014 **
berk.mod2 217 240    20.2  5    0.0011 **
---
```

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

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# loglm() vs. glm()

With `glm()` you can test individual terms using `anova()` or `car::Anova()`

```
> berkeley <- as.data.frame(UCBAdmissions)
> berk.glm2 <- glm(Freq ~ (Dept+Gender+Admit)^2, data=berkeley,
+                 family="poisson")
> anova(berk.glm2, test="Chisq")
Analysis of Deviance Table
```

```
Model: poisson, link: log
Response: Freq
```

Terms added sequentially (first to last)

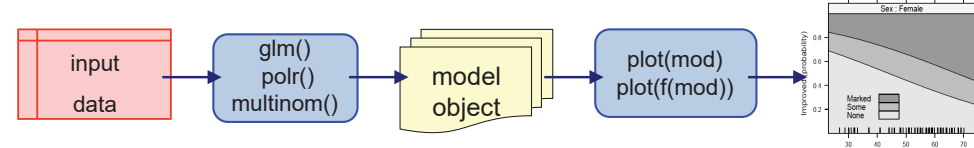
	Df	Deviance	Resid. Df	Resid. Dev	Pr(>Chi)
NULL			23	2650	
Dept	5	160	18	2491	<2e-16 ***
Gender	1	163	17	2328	<2e-16 ***
Admit	1	230	16	2098	<2e-16 ***
Dept:Gender	5	1221	11	877	<2e-16 ***
Dept:Admit	5	855	6	22	<2e-16 ***
Gender:Admit	1	2	5	20	0.22

---  
Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

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# Fitting & graphing models: Overview

Object-oriented approach in R:



- Fit model (`obj <- glm(...)`) → a model object
- `print(obj)` and `summary(obj)` → numerical results
- `anova(obj)` and `Anova(obj)` → tests for model terms
- `update(obj)`, `add1(obj)`, `drop1(obj)` for model selection

Plot methods:

- `plot(obj)` often gives diagnostic plots
- Other plot methods:
  - Mosaic plots: `mosaic(obj)` for "loglm" and "glm" objects
  - Effect plots: `plot(Effect(obj))` for nearly all linear models
  - Influence plots (`car`): `influencePlot(obj)` for "glm" objects

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# Objects & methods

How this works:

- Model objects have a "class" attribute:
  - `loglm()`: "loglm"
  - `glm()`: `c("glm", "lm")` — inherits also from `lm()`
- Class-specific methods have names like `method.class`, e.g., `plot.glm()`, `mosaic.loglm()`
- Generic functions (`print()`, `summary()`, `plot()` ...) call the appropriate method for the class

```
arth.mod <- glm(Better ~ Age + Sex + Treatment, data=Arthritis)
class(arth.mod)
```

```
## [1] "glm" "lm"
```

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# Objects & methods

Methods for "glm" objects

```
> library(MASS); library(vcdExtra)
> methods(class="glm")
 [1] add1                addterm              anova                Anova
 [5] asGnm               assoc                avPlot              avPlot3d
 [9] Boot                bootCase             brief                 ceresPlot
[13] coerce              confidenceEllipse    confint              Confint
[17] cooks.distance      deviance              drop1                dropterm
[21] effects             extractAIC            family               formula
[25] gamma.shape         influence              initialize            leveragePlot
[29] linearHypothesis    logLik                mcPlot               mmp
[33] model.frame         modFit                mosaic                ncvTest
[37] nobs                 predict               print                 profile
[41] qqPlot              residualPlot          residualPlots        residuals
[45] rootogram           rstandard            rstudent             S
[49] show                sieve                 sigmaHat             slotsFromS3
[53] summary             vcov                  weights
see '?methods' for accessing help and source code
```

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# Modeling approaches: Overview

## Association models

- Loglinear models  
(contingency table form)  
[Admit][Gender Dept]  
[Admit Dept][Gender Dept]  
[AdmitDept][AdmitGender][GenderDept]
- Poisson GLMs  
(Frequency data frame)  
Freq ~ Admit + Gender \* Dept  
Freq ~ Admit\*Dept + Gender\*Dept  
Freq ~ Admit\*(Dept + Gender) + Gender\*Dept
- Ordinal variables  
Freq ~ right + left + Diag(right, left)  
Freq ~ right + left + Symm(right, left)

## Response models

- Binary response  
• Categorical predictors: logit models  
logit(Admit) ~ 1  
logit(Admit) ~ Dept  
logit(Admit) ~ Dept + Gender
- Continuous/mixed predictors  
• Logistic regression models  
Pr(Admit) ~ Dept + Gender + Age + GRE
- Polytomous response  
• Ordinal: proportional odds model  
Improve ~ Age + Sex + Treatment
- General multinomial model  
WomenWork ~ Kids + HusbandIncome

There are many, many `plot()` methods for different types of objects  
e.g., `plot()` for a "glm" object → `plot.glm()`

```
> methods("plot")
[1] plot, ANY-method      plot, color-method    plot.acf*
[4] plot.ca*              plot.correspondence*  plot.data.frame*
[7] plot.decomposed.ts*   plot.default          plot.dendrogram*
[10] plot.density*         plot.ecdf              plot.factor*
[13] plot.formula*         plot.function          plot.glm*
[16] plot.goodfit*         plot.hcl_palettes*    plot.hclust*
[19] plot.histogram*      plot.HLtest*          plot.HoltWinters*
[22] plot.isoreg*          plot.lda*              plot.lm*
[25] plot.loddsratio*     plot.loglm*            plot.mca*
[28] plot.medpolish*      plot.mjca*             plot.mlm*
[31] plot.ppr*             plot.prcomp*          plot.princomp*
[34] plot.profile*        plot.profile.gnm*     plot.profile.nls*
[37] plot.qv*              plot.raster*          plot.ridgeglm*
[40] plot.rootogram*     plot.shingle*         plot.spec*
[43] plot.stepfun         plot.stl*              plot.structable*
[46] plot.table*          plot.trellis*         plot.ts
[49] plot.tskernel*       plot.TukeyHSD*        plot.zoo*
see '?methods' for accessing help and source code
```

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# Logistic regression

## Response variable

- Binary response: success/failure, vote: yes/no
- Binomial data:  $x$  successes in  $n$  trials (grouped data)
- Ordinal response: none < some < severe depression
- Polytomous response: vote Liberal, Tory, NDP, Green

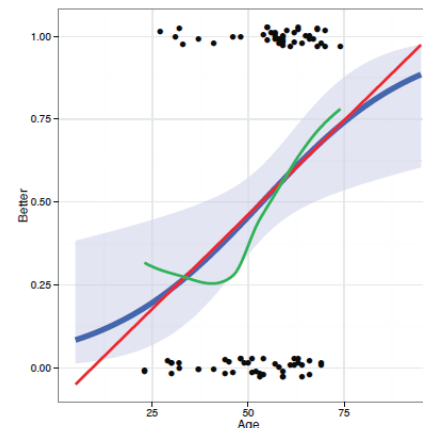
## Explanatory variables

- Quantitative regressors: age, dose
- Transformed regressors:  $\sqrt{\text{age}}$ ,  $\log(\text{dose})$
- Polynomial regressors:  $\text{age}^2$ ,  $\text{age}^3$ , ... (or better: splines)
- Categorical predictors: treatment, sex (dummy variables, contrasts)
- Interaction regressors:  $\text{treatment} \times \text{age}$ ,  $\text{sex} \times \text{age}$

This is exactly the same as in classical ANOVA, regression models

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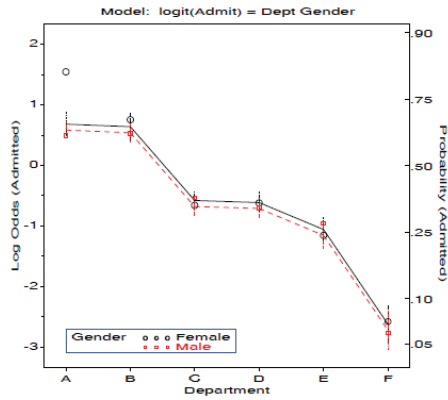
# Example: Arthritis treatment



- The response variable, `Improved` is ordinal: "None" < "Some" < "Marked"
- A binary logistic model can consider just `Better = (Improved > "None")`
- Other important predictors: Sex, Treatment
- Main Q: how does treatment affect outcome?
- How does this vary with Age and Sex?
- This plot shows the binary observations, with several model-based smoothings

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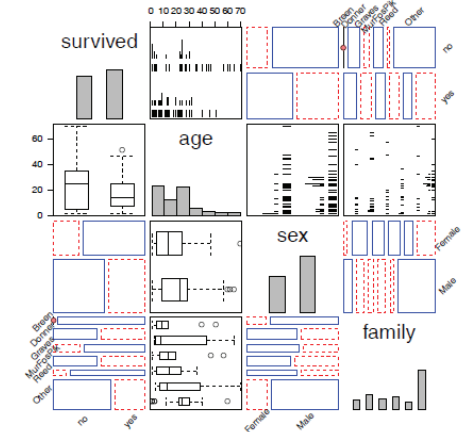
# Example: Berkeley admissions



- Admit/Reject can be considered a **binomial response** for each Dept and Gender
- Logistic regression here is analogous to an ANOVA model, but for log odds(Admit)
- (With categorical predictors, these are often called **logit models**)
- Every such model has an equivalent **loglinear model** form.
- This plot shows fitted logits for the main effects model, Dept + Gender

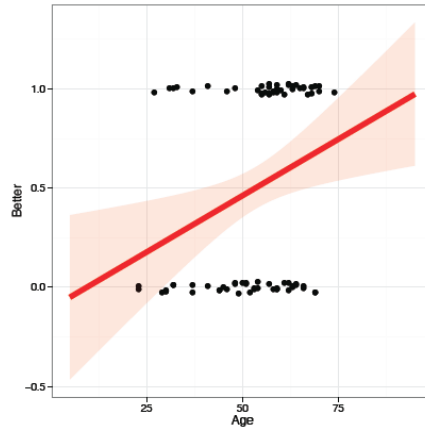
# Example: Survival in the Donner party

- Binary response: **survived**
- Categorical predictors: **sex, family**
- Quantitative predictor: **age**
- Q: Is the effect of age linear?
- Q: Are there interactions among predictors?
- This is a **generalized pairs plot**, with different plots for each pair



# Binary response: What's wrong with OLS?

- For a binary response,  $Y \in (0, 1)$ , want to predict  $\pi = \Pr(Y = 1 | X)$
- A **linear probability model** uses classical linear regression (OLS)
- Problems:
  - Gives predicted values and CIs outside  $0 \leq \pi \leq 1$
  - Homogeneity of variance is violated:  $V(\hat{\pi}) = \hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi}) \neq \text{constant}$
  - Inferences, hypothesis tests are wrong!



# Linear regression vs Logistic regression

OLS regression:  
 • Assume  $y|x \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

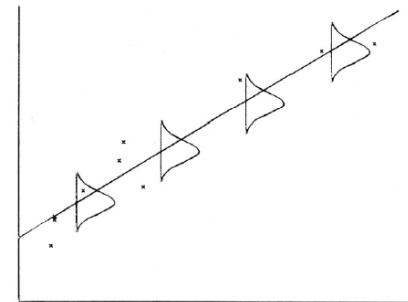


Fig. 2.1. Graphical representation of a simple linear normal regression.

Logistic regression:  
 • Assume  $\Pr(y=1|x) \sim \text{binomial}(p)$

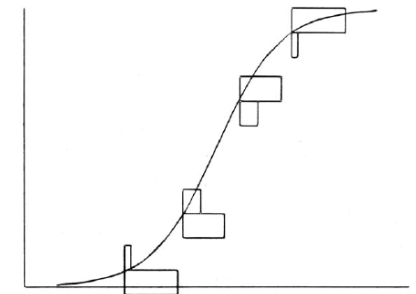


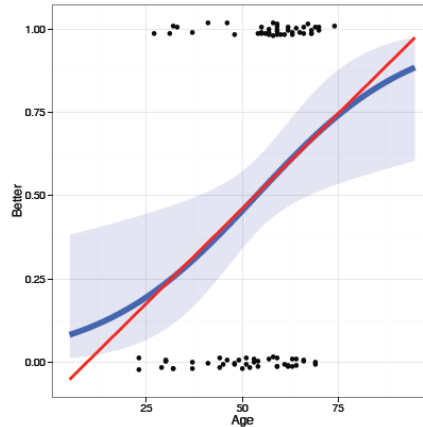
Fig. 2.2. Graphical representation of a simple linear logistic regression.

$y$  linear with  $x$   
 constant residual variance

$y \sim \text{logit}(x)$   
 non-constant residual variance  $\sim p(1-p)$

# Logistic regression

- Logistic regression avoids these problems
- Models  $\text{logit}(\pi_i) \equiv \log[\pi/(1 - \pi)]$
- logit is interpretable as “log odds” that  $Y = 1$
- A related **probit** model gives very similar results, but is less interpretable
- For  $0.2 \leq \pi \leq 0.8$  fitted values are close to those from linear regression.



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# Logistic regression: One predictor

For a single quantitative predictor,  $x$ , the simple **linear logistic regression model** posits a linear relation between the **log odds** (or **logit**) of  $\Pr(Y = 1)$  and  $x$ ,

$$\text{logit}[\pi(x)] \equiv \log\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)}\right) = \alpha + \beta x .$$

- When  $\beta > 0$ ,  $\pi(x)$  and the log odds increase as  $x$  increases; when  $\beta < 0$  they decrease with  $x$ .
- This model can also be expressed as a model for the probabilities  $\pi(x)$

$$\pi(x) = \text{logit}^{-1}[\pi(x)] = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[-(\alpha + \beta x)]}$$

Thinking logistically:

- Model is for the **log odds** of the marked response,  $Y = 1$
- Can always back transform with  $\text{logit}^{-1}$  to get **probability** of  $Y = 1$

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# Logistic regression: One predictor

The coefficients,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  of this model have simple interpretations in terms of odds & log odds

$$\text{logit}[\pi(x)] \equiv \log\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)}\right) = \alpha + \beta x \quad \text{odds}(Y = 1) \equiv \frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)} = \exp(\alpha + \beta x) = e^\alpha (e^\beta)^x$$

- $\beta$  is the change in log odds for a unit increase in  $x$   
→The odds of  $Y=1$  are multiplied by  $e^\beta$  for each unit increase in  $x$
- $\alpha$  is the log odds when  $x=0$   
→The odds of  $Y=1$  when  $x=0$  is  $e^\alpha$

In R, use `exp(coef(model))` to get these values

Another interpretation: In terms of probability, the slope of the logistic regression curve is  $\beta\pi(1-\pi)$

This has the maximum value  $\beta/4$  when  $\pi = 1/2$

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# Logistic regression: Multiple predictors

- For a binary response,  $Y \in (0, 1)$ , let  $\mathbf{x}$  be a vector of  $p$  regressors, and  $\pi_i$  be the probability,  $\Pr(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x})$ .
- The logistic regression model is a linear model for the **log odds**, or **logit** that  $Y = 1$ , given the values in  $\mathbf{x}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{logit}(\pi_i) &\equiv \log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right) = \alpha + \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ &= \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} \end{aligned}$$

- An equivalent (non-linear) form of the model may be specified for the probability,  $\pi_i$ , itself,

$$\pi_i = \{1 + \exp(-[\alpha + \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}])\}^{-1}$$

- The logistic model is also a **multiplicative** model for the odds of “success,”

$$\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i} = \exp(\alpha + \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \exp(\alpha) \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

Increasing  $x_{ij}$  by 1 increases  $\text{logit}(\pi_i)$  by  $\beta_j$ , and multiplies the odds by  $e^{\beta_j}$ .

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# Fitting the logistic regression model

Logistic regression models are the special case of generalized linear models, fit in R using `glm(..., family=binomial)`

For this example, we define **Better** as any improvement at all

```
> data(Arthritis, package="vcd")
> Arthritis$Better <- as.numeric(Arthritis$Improved > "None")
```

Fit and print:

```
> (arth.logistic <- glm(Better ~ Age, data=Arthritis, family=binomial))
Call: glm(formula = Better ~ Age, family = binomial, data = Arthritis)
Coefficients:
(Intercept)      Age
-2.6421         0.0492
Degrees of Freedom: 83 Total (i.e. Null); 82 Residual
Null Deviance:      116
Residual Deviance: 109 AIC: 113
```

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The `summary()` method gives details and tests of coefficients

```
> summary(arth.logistic)
Call:
glm(formula = Better ~ Age, family = binomial, data = Arthritis)
Deviance Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-1.5106  -1.1277   0.0794   1.0677   1.7611
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -2.6421     1.0732  -2.46  0.014 *
Age          0.0492     0.0194   2.54  0.011 *
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

    Null deviance: 116.45  on 83  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 109.16  on 82  degrees of freedom
```

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# Interpreting coefficients

```
> coef(arth.logistic)
(Intercept)  Age
-2.64207    0.04925
```

```
> exp(coef(arth.logistic))
(Intercept)  Age
0.07121     1.05048
> exp(10*coef(arth.logistic)[2])
Age
1.636
```

Interpretations:

- log odds(Better) increase by  $\beta = 0.0492$  for each year of age
- odds(Better) multiplied by  $e^\beta = 1.05$  for each year of age— a 5% increase
- over 10 years, odds(Better) are multiplied by  $\exp(10 \times 0.0492) = 1.64$ , a 64% increase.
- $\Pr(\text{Better})$  increases by  $\beta/4 = 0.0123$  for each year (near  $\pi = \frac{1}{2}$ )

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# Multiple predictors

The main interest here is the effect of Treatment. Sex and Age are **control variables**. Fit the **main effects** model (no interactions):

$$\text{logit}(\pi_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}$$

where  $x_1$  is Age and  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  are the factors representing Sex and Treatment, respectively. R uses dummy (0/1) variables for factors.

$$x_2 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if Female} \\ 1 & \text{if Male} \end{cases} \quad x_3 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if Placebo} \\ 1 & \text{if Treatment} \end{cases}$$

- $\alpha$  doesn't have a sensible interpretation here. Why?
- $\beta_1$ : increment in log odds(Better) for each year of age.
- $\beta_2$ : difference in log odds for male as compared to female.
- $\beta_3$ : difference in log odds for treated vs. the placebo group

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# Multiple predictors: Fitting

Fit the main effects model. Use  $I(\text{Age} - 50)$  to center Age, making  $\beta_1$  interpretable

```
arth.logistic2 <- glm(Better ~ I(Age - 50) + Sex + Treatment,
  data=Arthritis, family=binomial)
```

`lmtest::coeftest()` gives just the tests of coefficients provided by `summary()`

```
> lmtest::coeftest(arth.logistic2)
```

z test of coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
(Intercept)	-0.5781	0.3674	-1.57	0.116
I(Age - 50)	0.0487	0.0207	2.36	0.018 *
SexMale	-1.4878	0.5948	-2.50	0.012 *
TreatmentTreated	1.7598	0.5365	3.28	0.001 **

`broom::glance()` gives model fit statistics

```
> broom::glance(arth.logistic2)
# A tibble: 1 x 8
  null.deviance df.null logLik    AIC    BIC deviance df.residual nobs
  <dbl> <int> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <int> <int>
1 116. 83 -46.0 100. 110. 92.1 80 84
```

# Interpreting coefficients

```
> cbind(coef=coef(arth.logistic2),
+       OddsRatio=exp(coef(arth.logistic2)),
+       exp(confint(arth.logistic2)))
Waiting for profiling to be done...
      coef OddsRatio  2.5 % 97.5 %
(Intercept) -0.5781  0.561 0.2647  1.132
I(Age - 50)  0.0487  1.050 1.0100  1.096
SexMale     -1.4878  0.226 0.0652  0.689
TreatmentTreated 1.7598  5.811 2.1187 17.727
```

- $\alpha = -0.578$ : At age 50, females given placebo have odds(Better) of  $e^{-0.578} = 0.56$ .
- $\beta_1 = 0.0487$ : Each year of age multiplies odds(Better) by  $e^{0.0487} = 1.05$ , a 5% increase.
- $\beta_2 = -1.49$ : Males  $e^{-1.49} = 0.26 \times$  less likely to show improvement as females. (Or, females  $e^{1.49} = 4.437 \times$  more likely than males.)
- $\beta_3 = 1.76$ : Treated  $e^{1.76} = 5.81 \times$  more likely Better than Placebo

# Hypothesis testing: Questions

- **Overall test**: How does my model,  $\text{logit}(\pi) = \alpha + \mathbf{x}^T \beta$  compare with the null model,  $\text{logit}(\pi) = \alpha$ ?

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_p = 0$$

- **One predictor**: Does  $x_k$  significantly improve my model? Can it be dropped?

$$H_0 : \beta_k = 0 \quad \text{given other predictors retained}$$

- **Lack of fit**: How does my model compare with a perfect model (saturated model)?

For ANOVA, regression, these tests are carried out using  $F$ -tests and  $t$ -tests. In logistic regression (fit by **maximum likelihood**) we use

- $F$ -tests  $\rightarrow$  likelihood ratio  $G^2$  tests
- $t$ -tests  $\rightarrow$  Wald  $z$  or  $\chi^2$  tests

# Maximum likelihood estimation

In classical linear models using `lm()`, we fit using ordinary least squares. All `glm()` models use maximum likelihood estimation—better properties

- Likelihood,  $\mathcal{L} = \Pr(\text{data} | \text{model})$ , as function of model parameters
- For case  $i$ ,

$$\mathcal{L}_i = \begin{cases} p_i & \text{if } Y = 1 \\ 1 - p_i & \text{if } Y = 0 \end{cases} = p_i^{Y_i} (1 - p_i^{1 - Y_i}) \quad \text{where} \quad p_i = 1 / (1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}))$$

- Under independence, joint likelihood is the product over all cases

$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_i^n p_i^{Y_i} (1 - p_i^{1 - Y_i})$$

- $\Rightarrow$  Find estimates  $\hat{\beta}$  that maximize  $\log \mathcal{L}$ . Iterative, but this solves the “estimating equations”

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

# Overall model tests

## Likelihood ratio test ( $G^2$ )

- Compare **nested** models, similar to F tests in OLS
- Let  $L_1$  = maximized value for **our model**  
 $\text{logit}(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$  w/ k predictors
- Let  $L_0$  = maximized likelihood for the **null model**  
 $\text{logit}(\pi_i) = \beta_0$  under  $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_k$
- Likelihood ratio test statistic:

$$G^2 = -2 \log \left( \frac{L_0}{L_1} \right) = 2(\log L_1 - \log L_0) \sim \chi^2_k$$

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# Wald tests & confidence intervals

- Analogous to  $t$ -tests in OLS

• Test  $H_0: \beta_i = 0$   $z = \frac{b_i}{s(b_i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$  or  $z^2 \sim \chi^2_1$

• Confidence interval  $b_i \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} s(b_i)$

```
> r1 <- lmtest::coefest(arth.logistic2)
> r2 <- confint(arth.logistic2)
Waiting for profiling to be done...
> cbind(r1, r2)
```

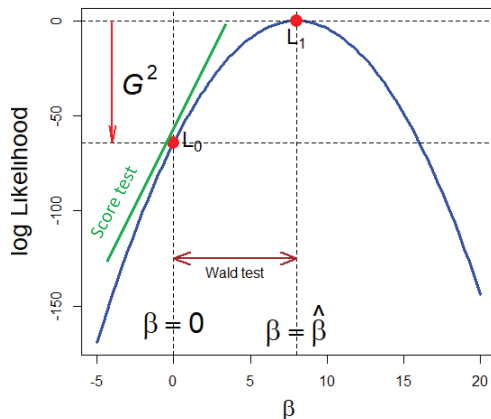
	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )	2.5 %	97.5 %
(Intercept)	-0.578	0.367	-1.6	0.116	-1.33	0.124
I (Age - 50)	0.049	0.021	2.4	0.018	0.01	0.092
SexMale	-1.488	0.595	-2.5	0.012	-2.73	-0.372
TreatmentTreated	1.760	0.536	3.3	0.001	0.75	2.875

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# LR, Wald & Score tests

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0			
Test	Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	24.3859	3	<.0001
Score	22.0051	3	<.0001
Wald	17.5147	3	0.0006

$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$



Different ways to measure departure from  $H_0: \beta = 0$

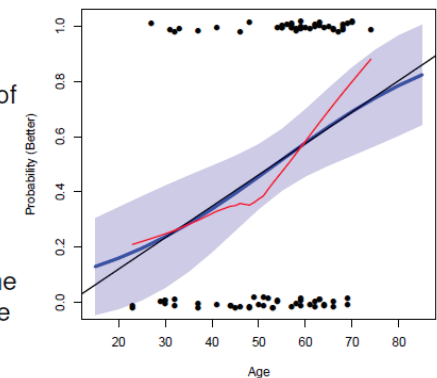
- LR test:  $\text{diff}^{\text{ce}}$  in log L
- Wald test:  $(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0)^2$
- Score test: slope at  $\beta = 0$

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# Plotting logistic regression data

Plotting a binary response together with a fitted logistic model can be difficult because the 0/1 response leads to much overplotting.

- Need to **jitter** the points
- Useful to show the fitted logistic curve
- Confidence band gives a sense of uncertainty
- Adding a non-parametric (loess) smooth shows possible nonlinearity
- NB: Can plot either on the **response scale** (probability) or the **link scale** (logit) where effects are linear

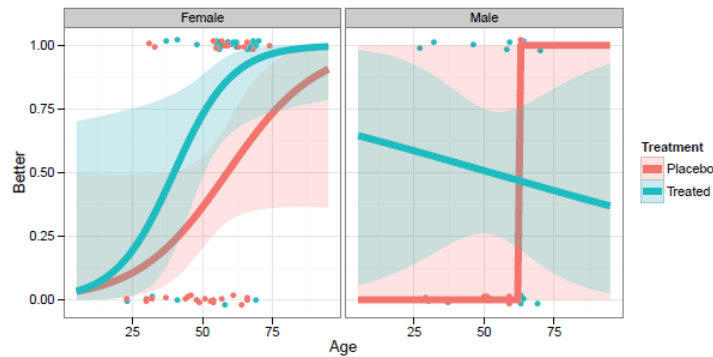


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## Types of plots

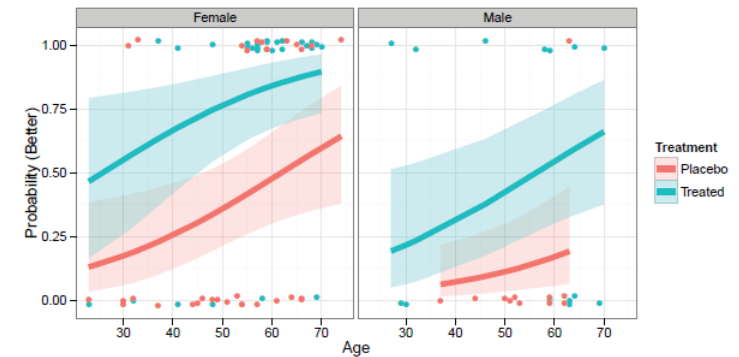
- **Conditional plots:** Stratified plot of Y or logit(Y) vs. one X, conditioned by other predictors--- only that subset is plotted for each



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## Types of plots

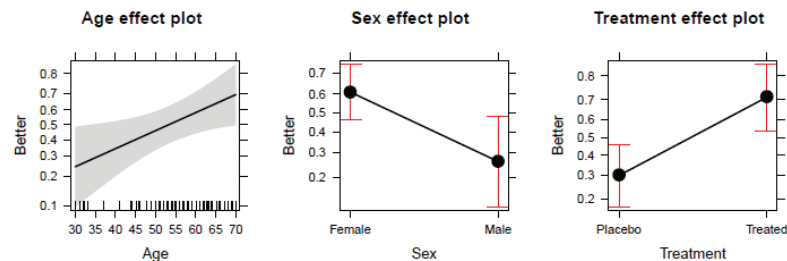
- **Full-model plots:** Plot of fitted response surface, showing all effects; usually shown in several panels



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## Types of plots

- **Effect plots:** plots of predicted effects for terms in the model, averaged over predictors not shown in a given plot

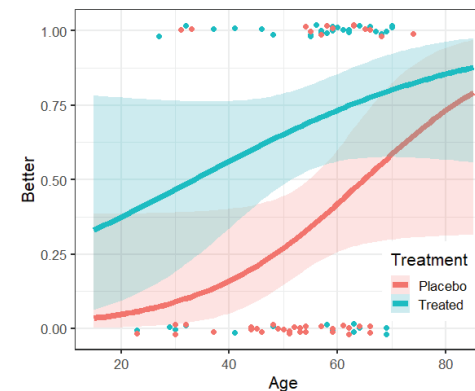


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## Conditional plots with ggplot2

Plot Arthritis data by Treatment, ignoring Sex; overlay fitted logistic reg. lines

```
gg <- ggplot(Arthritis, aes(Age, Better, color=Treatment)) +
  xlim(15, 85) +
  geom_jitter(height = 0.02, width = 0, size=2) +
  stat_smooth(method = "glm", family = binomial, alpha = 0.2,
    aes(fill=Treatment), size=2.5, fullrange=TRUE) +
  theme_bw(base_size = 16) + theme(legend.position = c(.85, .2))
gg # show the plot
```



geom\_jitter() shows the observations more distinctly

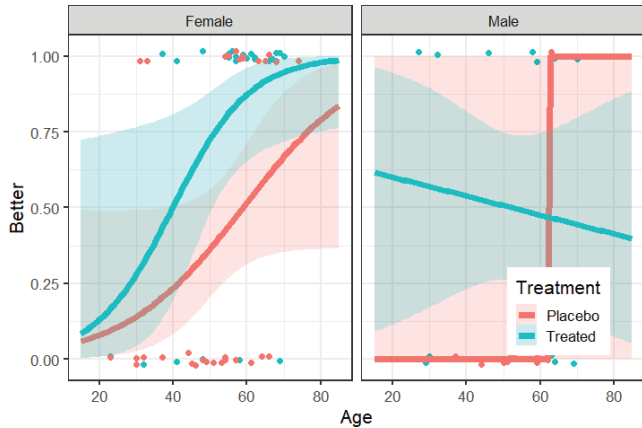
Fitted lines use method="glm", family=binomial

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# Conditional plots with ggplot2

Can show the conditional plots for M & F, simply by faceting by Sex

```
gg + facet_wrap(~ Sex)
```



Only the data for each Sex is used in each plot

Plotting the data points shows that the data for males is too thin to give good estimates of separate regression

# Full-model plots

Full-model plots show the fitted values on the logit scale or on the response scale (probability), usually with confidence bands. This often requires a bit of custom programming.

Steps:

- Obtain fitted values with `predict(model, se.fit=TRUE)` — `type="link"` (logit) is the default
- Can use `type="response"` for probability scale
- Join this to your data (`cbind()`)
- Plot as you like: `plot()`, `ggplot()`, ...

```
> arth.fit2 <- cbind(Arthritis,
+                   predict(arth.logistic2, se.fit = TRUE))
> head(arth.fit2[, -9], 4)
  ID Treatment Sex Age Improved Better  fit se.fit
1 57  Treated Male  27     Some     1 -1.43  0.758
2 46  Treated Male  29     None     0 -1.33  0.728
3 77  Treated Male  30     None     0 -1.28  0.713
4 17  Treated Male  32  Marked     1 -1.18  0.684
```

# Plotting with ggplot2

Plot the fitted log odds, confidence band and observations

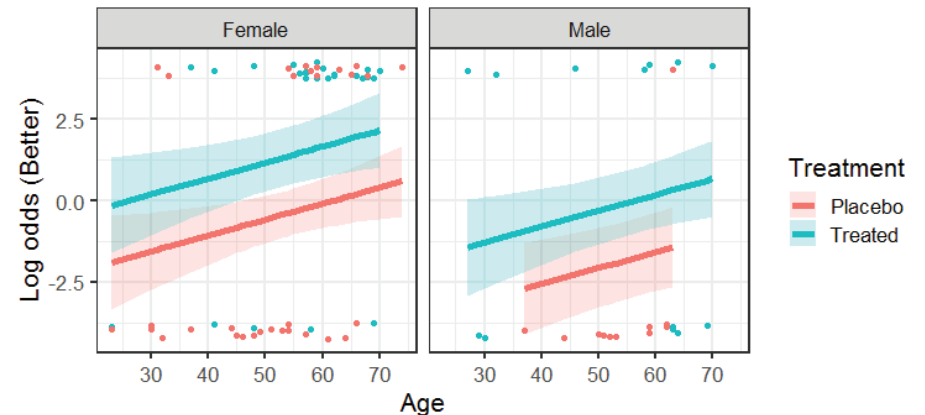
```
arth.fit2 <- arth.fit2 |>
  mutate(obs = ifelse(Better==0, -4, 4)) # show obs at -4, 4

ggplot(arth.fit2, aes(x=Age, y=fit, color=Treatment)) +
  geom_line(size = 2) +
  geom_ribbon(aes(ymin = fit - 1.96 * se.fit,
                ymax = fit + 1.96 * se.fit,
                fill = Treatment), alpha = 0.2,
            color = "transparent") +
  labs(x = "Age", y = "Log odds (Better)") +
  geom_jitter(aes(y=obs), height=0.25, width=0) +
  facet_wrap(~ Sex) +
  theme_bw(base_size = 16)
```

Using `color=Treatment` gives separate points and lines for the two groups

# Full-model plot

Plotting on the logit scale shows the additive effects of age, treatment and sex  
NB: easier to compare the treatment groups within the same panel

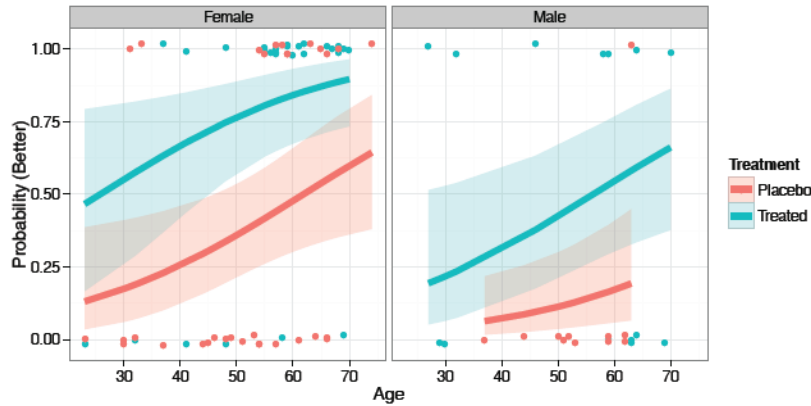


These plots show model uncertainty (confidence bands)  
Jittered points show the data

# Full-model plot

Plotting on the probability scale may be simpler to interpret  
 Use `predict(... type = "response")` to get fitted probabilities

```
arth.fit2r <- cbind(Arthritis,
  predict(arth.logistic2, se.fit = TRUE, type="response"))
```



# Models with interactions

Is the linear effect of age the same for females, males?

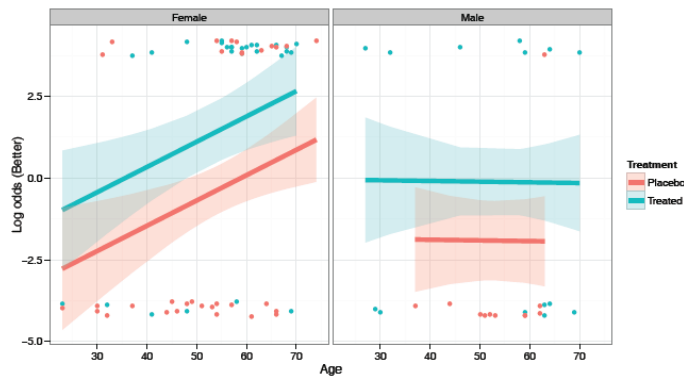
- We can test this by adding an **interaction** of Sex x Age
- `update()` makes it easy to add/subtract terms from a model
- `car::Anova()` gives partial tests of each term after all others

```
> arth.logistic4 <- update(arth.logistic2, . ~ . + I(Age-50):Sex)
> car::Anova(arth.logistic4)
Analysis of Deviance Table (Type II tests)
```

```
Response: Better
LR Chisq Df Pr(>Chisq)
I(Age - 50)      6.16  1  0.01308 *
Sex              6.98  1  0.00823 **
Treatment       11.90  1  0.00056 ***
I(Age - 50):Sex  3.42  1  0.06430 .
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

The interaction term Age:Sex is not quite significant, but plot the fitted model anyway

# Models with interactions



- Only the model changes
- `predict()` automatically incorporates the revised model terms
- Plotting steps remain the same
- This interpretation is quite different!

# Effect plots: Basic ideas

Show a given **marginal** effect, **controlling** / adjusting for other model effects

Data

	x1	x2	sex	x1:x2	y	yhat
1	1	1	F	1	4.73	4.46
2	2	1	M	0	6.10	5.55
3	3	1	F	-1	4.32	4.34
4	1	1	F	1	4.84	4.46
5	2	1	F	0	4.73	4.40
...	...	...	...	...	...	...
29	2	2	M	0	6.10	6.15
30	3	2	F	1	6.71	7.14

• Fit data:  $X\hat{\beta} \Rightarrow \hat{y}$

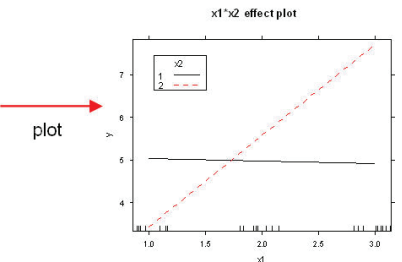
• Score data  $X * \hat{\beta} \Rightarrow \hat{y}^*$

- plot vars: vary over range
- control vars: fix at means

Score data

	x1	x2	sex	x1:x2	y	yhat*
31	1	1	0.5	1	NA	5.030
32	2	1	0.5	2	NA	4.971
33	3	1	0.5	3	NA	4.912
34	1	2	0.5	2	NA	3.437
35	2	2	0.5	4	NA	5.574
36	3	2	0.5	6	NA	7.710

plot vars      control vars



# Effect plots: Details

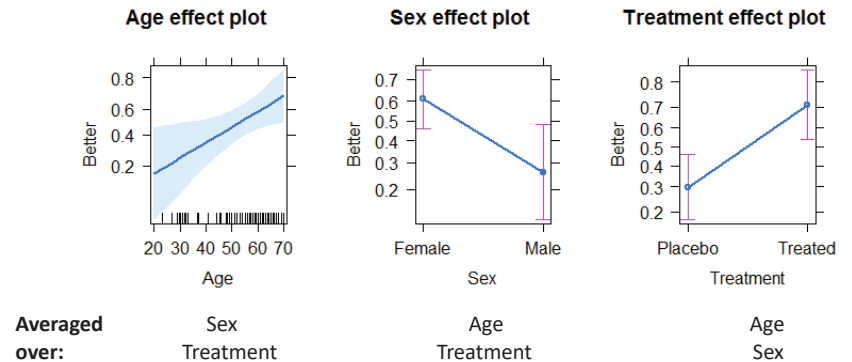
- For simple models, full model plots show the complete relation between response and *all predictors*.
- Fox(1987)— For complex models, often wish to plot a specific main effect or interaction (including lower-order relatives)— *controlling for other effects*
  - Fit full model to data with linear predictor (e.g., logit)  $\eta = \mathbf{X}\beta$  and link function  $g(\mu) = \eta \rightarrow$  estimate  $\mathbf{b}$  of  $\beta$  and covariance matrix  $\widehat{V}(\mathbf{b})$  of  $\mathbf{b}$ .
  - Construct “score data”
    - Vary each predictor in the term over its’ range
    - Fix other predictors at “typical” values (mean, median, proportion in the data)
    - $\rightarrow$  “effect model matrix,”  $\mathbf{X}^*$
  - Use `predict()` on  $\mathbf{X}^*$ 
    - Calculate fitted effect values,  $\hat{\eta}^* = \mathbf{X}^* \mathbf{b}$ .
    - Standard errors are square roots of  $\text{diag } \mathbf{X}^* \widehat{V}(\mathbf{b}) \mathbf{X}^{*T}$
  - Plot  $\hat{\eta}^*$ , or values transformed back to scale of response,  $g^{-1}(\hat{\eta}^*)$ .
- *Note:* This provides a general means to visualize interactions in *all* linear and generalized linear models.

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# Plotting main effects

`allEffects()` calculates effects for all high-order terms in the model  
The response is plotted on the logit scale, but labeled with probabilities

```
library(effects)
arth.eff2 <- allEffects(arth.logistic2)
plot(arth.eff2, rows=1, cols=3, lwd=2)
```

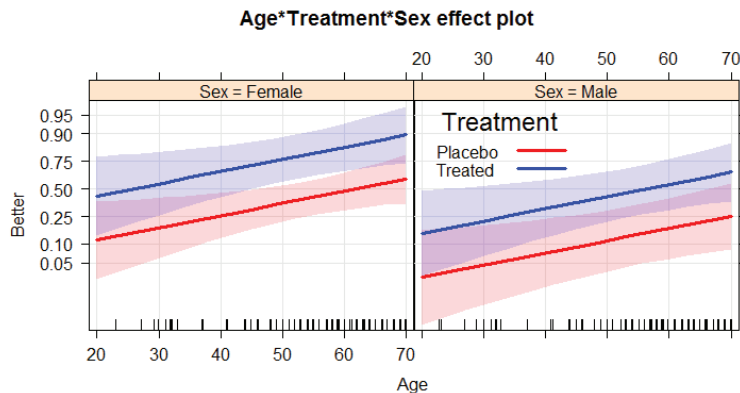


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# Full-model plot

The full-model plot is simply the `Effect()` of the highest-order interaction of factors

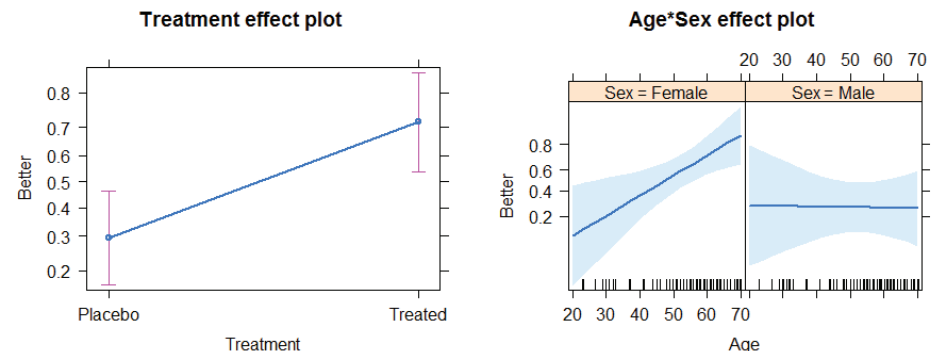
```
arth.full <- Effect(c("Age", "Treatment", "Sex"), arth.logistic2)
plot(arth.full, multiline=TRUE, ci.style="bands",
     colors = c("red", "blue"), lwd=3, . . .)
```



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# Model with interaction of Age × Sex

```
arth.eff4 <- allEffects(arth.logistic4)
plot(arth.eff4, lwd=2)
```



Only the high-order terms: Treatment & Age \* Sex are shown & need to be interpreted  
Q: How would you describe this?

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# Race & Crime

Toronto Star investigation of racial disparities in treatment by Toronto Police Services

FOI request → > ½ M arrests, 1997–2002

Evidence for racial profiling?

Only look at discretionary charges:

Simple marijuana possession  
Non-moving auto infractions



**AN INVESTIGATION INTO RACE AND CRIME**

**Chrétien expected to keep cabinet minister**  
Ethics report has 'wiggle room' to save MacAulay

**Singled out**  
Star analysis of police crime data shows justice is different for blacks and whites

**Telling numbers**  
Police records show that a black person in Toronto arrested on a slight drug possession charge was less likely to be released at the scene...

Charge	Black	White
Released at scene	61.5%	77.9%
Not held for bail	15.5%	15.5%

**Man behind the numbers**

**Man behind the numbers**  
My early attempts

**Man behind the numbers**

# Case study: Arrests for marijuana

- In Dec. 2002, the *Toronto Star* examined the issue of racial profiling, by analyzing a data base of 600,000+ arrest records from 1997-2002.
- They focused on a subset of arrests for which police action was discretionary, e.g., simple possession of small quantities of marijuana, where the police could:
  - Release the arrestee with a summons – like a parking ticket
  - Bring to police station, hold for bail, ... -- harsher treatment
- Response variable: released: "Yes", "No"
  - Main predictor of interest: skin-colour of arrestee (black, white)
  - Other predictors: year, age, sex, ...

# Toronto Star meets mosaic displays

How to communicate these results most effectively?

- What is the message? What features are directly comprehensible to the audience?

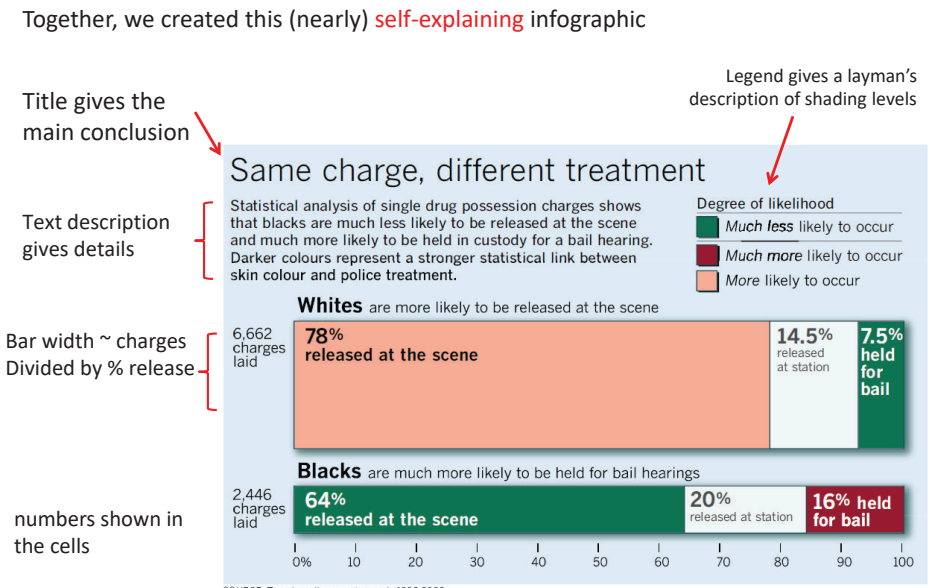
**Graphic designer's early attempts**

**Man behind the numbers**

**My early attempts**

York University professor Michael Friendly's expert statistical analysis provided confirmation for the Toronto Star's series on racial profiling by city police.

# Racial profiling: Presentation graphic





# Arrests for marijuana: Data

Response variable: released

Control variables:

- year, age, sex
- employed, citizen: Yes, No
- checks: # of police databases (previous arrests, convictions, parole status) where the arrestee's name was found

```
> library(car) # for Anova()
> data(Arrests, package = "carData")
> some(Arrests)
```

	released	colour	year	age	sex	employed	citizen	checks
218	Yes	White	2000	24	Male	Yes	Yes	0
1301	No	Black	1999	17	Male	Yes	No	1
1495	Yes	White	1998	23	Male	Yes	Yes	0
1732	Yes	Black	2000	18	Male	Yes	Yes	2
1838	Yes	Black	1997	27	Male	No	Yes	5
2257	No	White	2001	19	Male	No	Yes	2
3100	No	Black	2000	19	Male	No	Yes	4
3843	Yes	White	1999	20	Male	Yes	Yes	0
4580	Yes	Black	1999	26	Male	Yes	Yes	1
4833	Yes	Black	1998	38	Male	Yes	Yes	0

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# Arrests for marijuana: Model

year is numerical. But may be non-linear. Convert to a **factor**

Fit model with all main effects, but allow **interactions** of colour:year and colour:age

```
> Arrests$year <- as.factor(Arrests$year)
> arrests.mod <- glm(released ~ employed + citizen + checks +
  colour*year + colour*age,
  family=binomial, data=Arrests)
> Anova(arrests.mod)
```

Analysis of Deviance Table (Type II tests)

```
Response: released
```

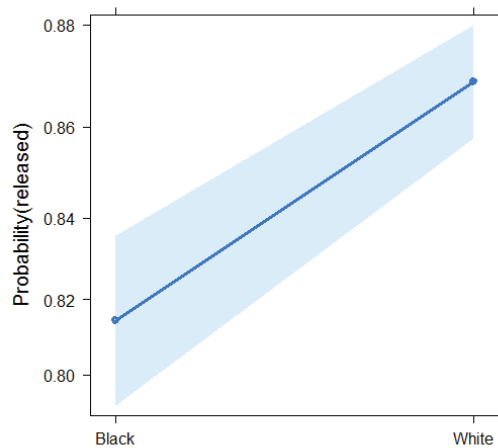
	LR	Chisq	Df	Pr(>Chisq)
employed	72.7	1		< 2e-16 ***
citizen	25.8	1		3.8e-07 ***
checks	205.2	1		< 2e-16 ***
colour	19.6	1		9.7e-06 ***
year	6.1	5		0.29785
age	0.5	1		0.49827
colour:year	21.7	5		0.00059 ***
colour:age	13.9	1		0.00019 ***

---  
Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

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# Effect plot: Skin colour

```
plot(Effect("colour", arrests.mod), lwd=3, ci.style="bands", ...)
```



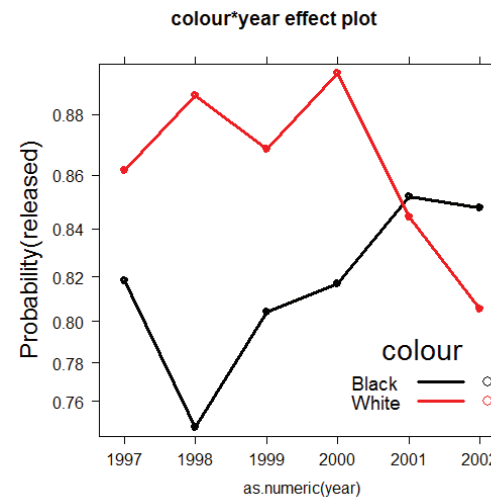
- Effect plot for colour shows average effect **controlling** (adjusting) for **all** other factors simultaneously
- (The *Star* analysis controlled for these one at a time.)
- Evidence for different treatment of blacks & whites
- Even Francis Nunziata could understand this.
- However, effect smaller than reported by the *Star*

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# Effect plots: Interactions

The story turned out to be more nuanced than reported by the *Toronto Star*

```
plot(Effect(c("colour","year"), arrests.mod), multiline=TRUE, ...)
```



Up to 2000, strong evidence for differential treatment of blacks & whites

Also: evidence to support Police claim of effect of training to reduce racial effects in treatment

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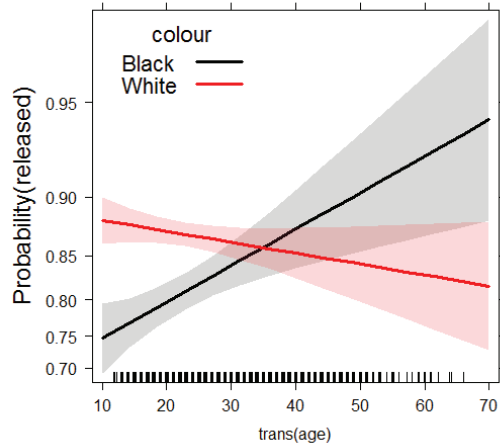


# Effect plots: Interactions

A more surprising finding ...

```
plot(Effect(c("colour", "year"), arrests.mod), multiline=TRUE, ...)
```

Effects of skin colour and age on release



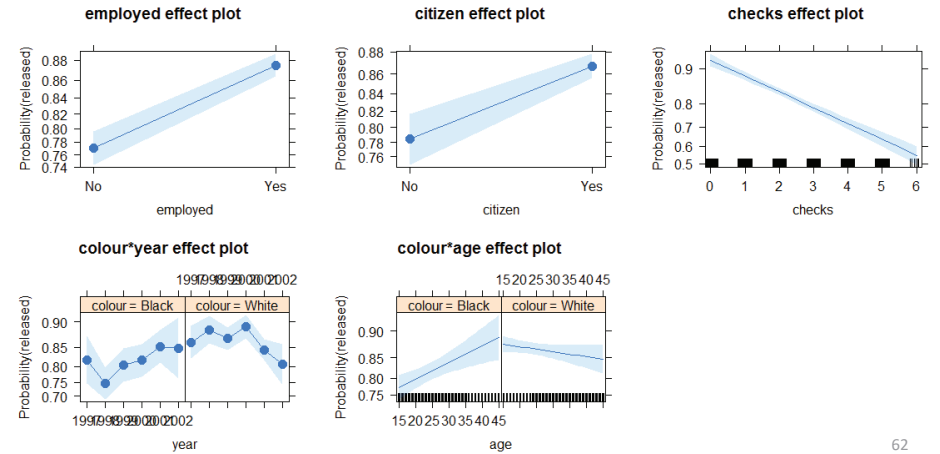
Opposite age effects for blacks & whites:

- Young blacks treated **more** harshly than young whites
- Older blacks treated **less** harshly than older whites

# Effect plots: allEffects

All high-order terms can be viewed together using plot(allEffects(mod))

```
arrests.effects <- allEffects(arrests.mod,
xlevels=list(age=seq(15,45,5)))
plot(arrests.effects, ylab="Probability(released)", ...)
```



# Model diagnostics

As in regression and ANOVA, the validity of a logistic regression model is threatened when:

- Important predictors have been omitted from the model
- Predictors assumed to be **linear** have **non-linear** effects on  $\Pr(Y = 1)$
- Important **interactions** have been omitted
- A few “wild” observations have a large impact on the fitted model or coefficients

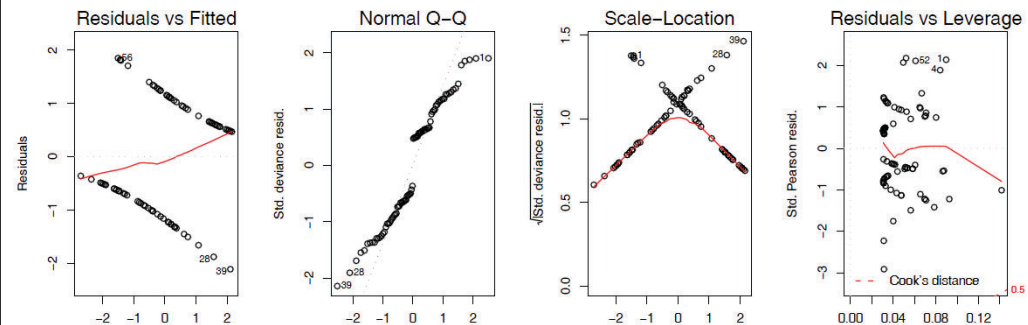
## Model specification: Tools and techniques

- Use non-parametric smoothed curves to detect non-linearity
- Consider using polynomial terms ( $X^2, X^3, \dots$ ) or **regression splines** (e.g., `ns(X, 3)`)
- Use `update(model, ...)` to test for interactions— formula: `. ~ .^2`

# Diagnostic plots in R

In R, plotting a `glm` object gives the “regression quartet” – 4 basic diagnostic plots

```
arth.mod1 <- glm(Better ~ Age + Sex + Treatment, data=Arthritis,
family='binomial')
plot(arth.mod1)
```

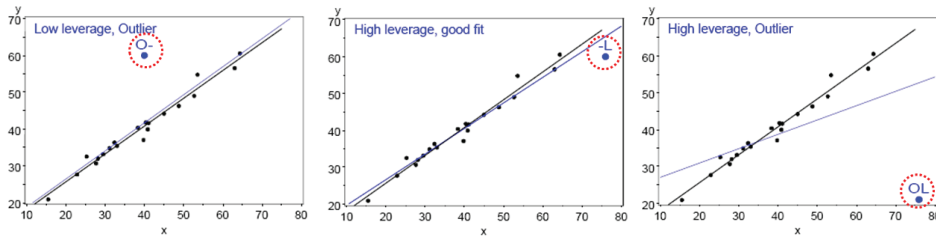


These plots often look peculiar for logistic regression models  
Better versions are available in the car package

# Unusual data: Leverage & Influence

- “Unusual” observations can have dramatic effects on least-squares estimates in linear models
- Three archetypal cases:
  - Typical X (low leverage), bad fit -- Not much harm
  - Unusual X (high leverage), good fit -- Not much harm
  - Unusual X (high leverage), bad fit -- **BAD, BAD, BAD**
- Influential observations: unusual in *both* X & Y
- Heuristic formula:

$$\text{Influence} = X \text{ leverage} \times Y \text{ residual}$$



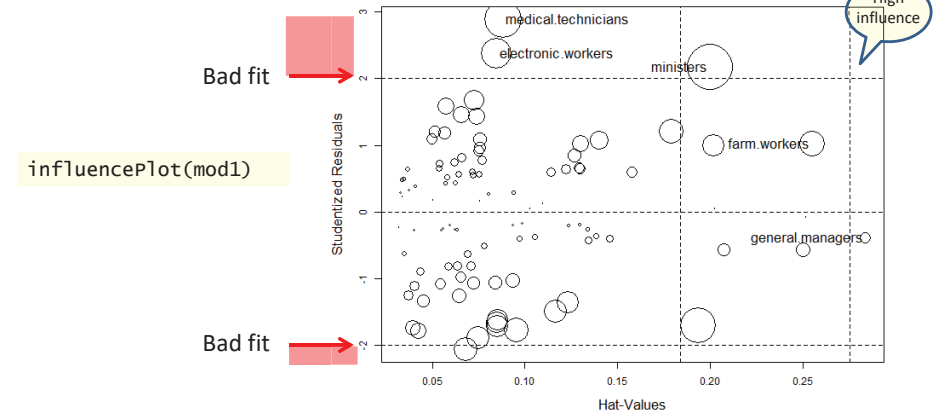
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# Influence plots

Influence (Cook's D) measures impact of individual obs. on coefficients, fitted values

$$\text{Influence} \sim \text{Residual } (y - \hat{y}) \times \text{Hat-value } (X - \bar{X})^2$$

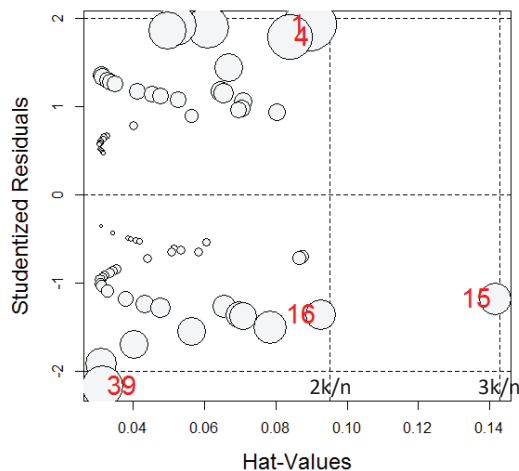
Bubble size ~ influence



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# Influence plots in R

```
library(car)
influencePlot(arth.logistic2, ...)
```



X axis: Leverage (“hat values”) notable values: > 2k/n, 3k/n

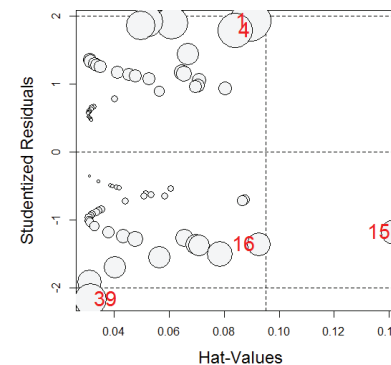
Y axis: Studentized residuals

Bubble size ~ Cook's D (influence on coefficients)

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# Which cases are influential?

	Treatment	Sex	Age	Better	StudRes	Hat	CookD
1	Treated	Male	27	1	1.92	0.0897	0.1128
4	Treated	Male	32	1	1.79	0.0840	0.0818
15	Treated	Female	23	0	-1.18	0.1416	0.0420
16	Treated	Female	32	0	-1.36	0.0926	0.0381
39	Treated	Female	69	0	-2.17	0.0314	0.0690



case 1: younger male: moderate Hat, better than predicted → large Cook D

case 39: older female: small Hat, but did not improve with treatment

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## Looking ahead

- Logistic regression models need not always have linear effects— models **nonlinear** in Xs sometimes useful
- **Polytomous** outcomes can be handled as well
  - e.g., Improved = {"None", "Some", "Marked"}
- If ordinal,
  - the **proportional odds** model is a simple extension
  - **nested dichotomies** provides an alternative approach
- Otherwise, **multinomial logistic regression** is the way

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## Summary

- Model-based methods provide hypothesis tests, CIs & tests for individual terms
- Logistic regression: A `glm()` for a binary response
  - linear model for the log odds  $\Pr(Y=1)$
  - All similar to classical ANOVA, regression models

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