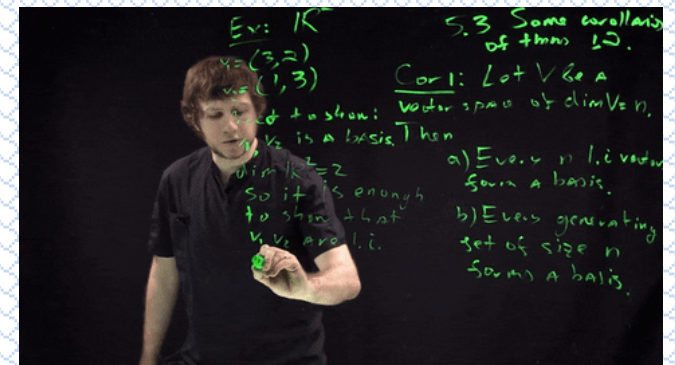


Biostatistics 200

Linear and Logistic Models Multiple Regression & Logistic Regression



Multiple regression

- Additional explanatory variables might increase our understanding of a dependent variable
- We can posit the population equation
$$\mu_{y|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q} = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_q x_q$$
- α is the mean of y when all the explanatory variables are 0
- β_i is the change in the mean value of y that corresponds to a 1 unit change in x_i when all the other explanatory variables are held constant
- $y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_q x_q + \varepsilon$

Multiple regression

- $y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_q x_q + \varepsilon$
- Assumptions
 - $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q$ are measured without error
 - The distribution of y is normal with mean $\mu_{y|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q}$ and standard deviation $\sigma_{y|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q}$
 - The population regression model holds
 - For any set of values of the explanatory variables, $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q$, $\sigma_{y|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q}$ is constant – homoscedasticity
 - The y outcomes are independent
- We estimate the regression line

$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_q x_q$ using the method of least squares to minimize

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_q x_{qi})]^2\end{aligned}$$

Multiple regression

- For one explanatory variable – the regression model represents a straight line through a cloud of points in 2 dimensions
- With 2 explanatory variables, the model is a plane in 3 dimensional space (one for each variable), etc
- In Stata we just add explanatory variables to the regress statement
- regress fev age ht

Now the F-test has 2 degrees of freedom in the numerator because there are 2 explanatory variables

R^2 will always increase as you add more variables into the model

The Adj R-squared accounts for the addition of variables and is comparable across models with different numbers of parameters

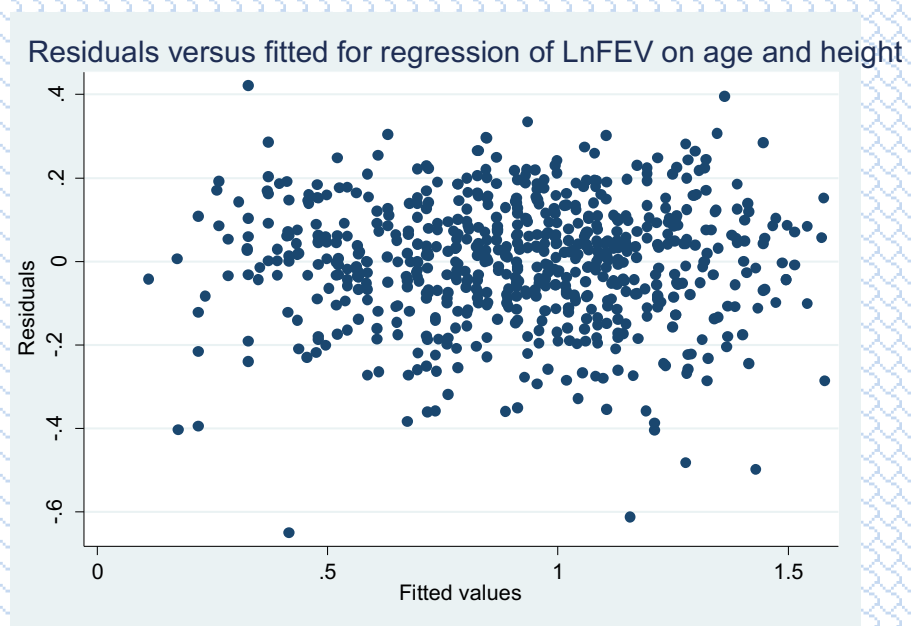
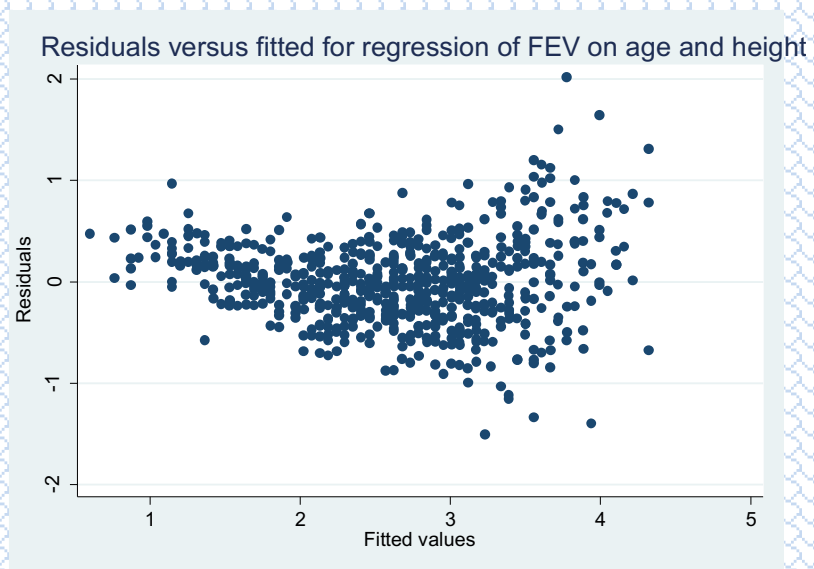
```
. regress fev age ht
```

Source	SS	df	MS
Model	376.244941	2	188.122471
Residual	114.674892	651	.176151908
Total	490.919833	653	.751791475

Number of obs = 654
 F(2, 651) = 1067.96
 Prob > F = 0.0000
 R-squared = 0.7664
 Adj R-squared = 0.7657
 Root MSE = .4197

fev	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
age	.0542807	.0091061	5.96	0.000	.0363998 .0721616
ht	.1097118	.0047162	23.26	0.000	.100451 .1189726
_cons	-4.610466	.2242706	-20.56	0.000	-5.050847 -4.170085

Examine the residuals...



Logistic regression

- For linear regression
 - The predicted values can be from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$
 - Y values are assumed to follow a normal distribution
- For many situations we want to model a dichotomous outcome, such as disease/no disease and cannot use linear regression
- We want to model p , the probability of disease

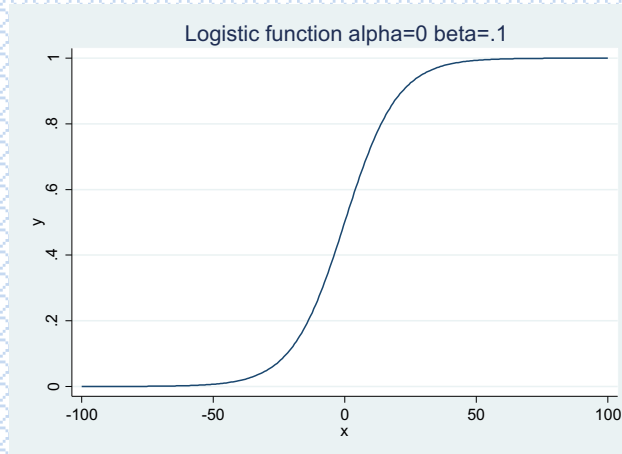
Logistic regression

- $p = P(Y=1)$ i.e. $P(\text{outcome}=\text{disease})$
- A model of the form $p = \alpha + \beta x$ would be able to take on negative values or values more than 1
- $p = e^{\alpha + \beta x}$ is an improvement because it cannot be negative, but it still could be greater than 1
- $p = P(Y=1)$ i.e. $P(\text{outcome}=\text{disease})$
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Logistic regression

- How about the function?

$$p = \frac{e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}$$



- When $\alpha + \beta x = 0$, $p = 1/(1+1) = 0.5$
- When $x = \text{big negative number}$, p nears $0/(1+0) = 0$
- When $x = \text{big positive number}$, p nears $(\text{big number})/(1+\text{big number}) = 1$
- The function models the probability slowly increasing over the values of X , until there is a steep rise, and another leveling off

Logistic regression

- The logistic function

$$p = \frac{e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}$$

- Now check this out:

$$1 - p = 1 - \frac{e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}} = \frac{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x} - e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}$$

- So odds of disease/success are

$$\frac{p}{1 - p} = \frac{\frac{e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}}{\frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}} = e^{\alpha + \beta x}$$

- And therefore $\ln(p/(1-p)) = \ln(e^{\alpha + \beta x}) = \alpha + \beta x$

Logistic regression

- So instead of assuming that the relationship between p and X is linear (as in linear regression), we are assuming that the relationship between $\ln(p/(1-p))$ and X is linear.
- $\ln(p/(1-p))$ is called the logit function, $\text{Logit}(p) = \ln(p/(1-p))$
- In generalized linear models, some function of the outcome variable is assumed to be linear
e.g. $f(y) = \alpha + \beta x$ or $f(p) = \alpha + \beta x$
e.g. $\text{logit}(p) = \alpha + \beta x$

Interpretation of coefficients

- One dichotomous explanatory variable
- For $x=0$
 $\text{logit}(p_0) = \ln(p_0/(1-p_0))$
 $= \ln(P(Y=1|X=0)/(1-P(Y=1|X=0)))$
 $= \ln(\text{odds of the outcome when } x=0)$
 $= \alpha + \beta \cdot x = \alpha + \beta \cdot 0 = \alpha$
- For $x=1$
 $\text{logit}(p_1) = \ln(p_1/(1-p_1))$
 $= \ln(P(Y=1|X=1)/(1-P(Y=1|X=1)))$
 $= \text{odds of the outcome when } x=1$
 $= \alpha + \beta \cdot 1 = \alpha + \beta$

Difference between treatment arms in PEth outcome (>50 ng/ml)*

```
logistic peth_audit_50 i.studyarm_n
```

Logistic regression

Number of obs = 324

LR chi2(1) = 1.14

Prob > chi2 = 0.2858

Pseudo R2 = 0.0025

Log likelihood = -223.91123

peth_audit_50	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
1.studyarm_n	.7869577	.1768227	-1.07	0.286	.5066332 1.222388
_cons	1.05618	.1562084	0.37	0.712	.7903976 1.411335

*BREATH cohort and comparisons_v3.dta

Difference between treatment arms in PEth outcome (>50 ng/ml)

logistic depvar indepvar

```
logistic peth_audit_50 i.studyarm_n
```

Logistic regression

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$=e^{\beta}$

This is used in comparing models of the same data set

Test of whether the model fit differs from the model with only α and no covariates

The Pseudo R^2 is an attempt to be analogous with linear regression but it is not

Stata logistic notes

- logistic depvar indepvars
 - gives you odds ratios
- logistic depvar indepvars, coef
 - gives you coefficients (alphas and betas)
- logit depvar indepvars
 - gives you coefficients
- logit depvar indepvars, or
 - gives you odds ratios

```
logit peth_50 i.studyarm_n
```

```
Iteration 0:    log likelihood = -198.01065
```

```
Iteration 1:    log likelihood = -197.99359
```

```
Iteration 2:    log likelihood = -197.99359
```

```
Logistic regression
```

```
Number of obs   =      287
```

```
LR chi2(1)      =      0.03
```

```
Prob > chi2     =     0.8534
```

```
Pseudo R2      =     0.0001
```

```
Log likelihood = -197.99359
```

```
-----+-----  
      peth_50 |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]  
-----+-----  
1.studyarm_n |   -.0453478   .2455377    -0.18   0.853    - .5265928    .4358972  
      _cons |   -.1438942   .1490438    -0.97   0.334    - .4360146    .1482262  
-----+-----  
-
```

Odds ratio of P_{Eth} ≥ 50 for comparison vs. standard group

```
tabodds peth_audit_50 studyarm_n, or
```

studyarm_n	Odds Ratio	chi2	P>chi2	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	1.000000	.	.	.	.
1	0.786958	1.13	0.2867	0.505895	1.224172
Test of homogeneity (equal odds):					
		chi2(1)	=	1.13	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.2867	
Score test for trend of odds:					
		chi2(1)	=	1.13	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.2867	

For one independent variable that is categorical, the odds ratio estimate is the same for logistic regression as for tabular methods.

What is the odds ratio?

- The odds ratio represents the change in the odds of membership in the “target” category (e.g., the category coded as 1.0), given a 1-unit increase in the predictor variable.
- Odds ratio is the increase (or decrease if negative) in odds of being in one outcome category when the value of the predictor variable increases by one unit.
- The odds ratio is calculated by the formula: e^g (where $e = 2.718$, and g = the b coefficient from the logistic regression output).
- For example:
 - An odds ratio of 1.5 indicates that that outcome of “1” is 1.5 times as likely (or 50% more likely) with a 1-unit increase in the predictor. The odds increase by 50%.
 - An odds ratio of 0.80 indicates that an outcome of “1” is 0.8 times as likely (or 20% less likely [$1 - 0.8 = 0.2$] with a 1-unit increase in the predictor; the odds are decreased by 20%.

How do you compute the probability of being in the “target” group, for a specific individual?

- Multiply each predictor value by its “b” coefficient, and add them to the constant. That sum is called “g.”
- Use “g” in the following formula:
- $e^g / 1 + e^g$