GBUS 738 Data Mining

Logistic Regression David Svancer – George Mason University School of Business



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Is there a relationship between sales revenue and advertising budget?

We can answer this question by fitting a multiple linear regression of **Sales** using TV, Radio, and Newspaper as predictor variables and testing the following hypothesis:

 $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ **vs** H_a : At least one β_j is non – zero

From the output on the right, we have an F statistic of **570.3** with a highly significant p-value.

This provides strong evidence **against** the null hypothesis, and we conclude that Sales revenue is associated with **at least one advertising type**.

 $Sales = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TV + \beta_2 Radio + \beta_3 Newspaper$

Coefficients	:				
	Estimate S	td. Error	t value P	r(> t)	
(Intercept)	2.938889	0.311908	9.422	<2e-16 **	*
TV	0.045765	0.001395	32.809	<2e-16 **	*
Radio	0.188530	0.008611	21.893	<2e-16 **	*
Newspaper	-0.001037	0.005871	-0.177	0.86	
Signif. code	s: 0 (***)	0.001 '**	*' 0.01 '*	' 0.05'.'	0.1 ·
Residual sta	ndard error	: 1.686 or	n 196 degr	ees of fre	edom
Multiple R-s	quared: 0.	8972, /	Adjusted R	-squared:	0.8956

p-value: < 2.2e-16

F-statistic: 570.3 on 3 and 196 DF,



Which advertising media contribute to sales revenue?

To answer this question, we must examine the **partial F-test results** in the summary output. We find that the coefficient of Newspaper is not statistically significant. This corresponds to the following hypothesis:

 $H_0: \beta_3 = 0$ vs $H_a: \beta_3 \neq 0$

Interpretation: given that I am using TV and Radio as predictors, Newspaper does not provide increased accuracy to the multiple linear regression model. This suggests that TV and Radio are the primary drivers of Sales revenue $Sales = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TV + \beta_2 Radio + \beta_3 Newspaper$

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	Estimate S	td. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	2.938889	0.311908	9.422	<2e-16 **	*
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Residual standard error: 1.686 on 196 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8972, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8956 F-statistic: 570.3 on 3 and 196 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16



How large is the effect of each advertising type on Sales revenue?

The estimated coefficients associated with TV and Radio advertising budgets are:

0.045 and **0.19** [remember that all units in the Advertising data set are in **thousands**]

Interpretation: For a \$1,000 increase in TV advertising budget, we estimate that the increase in **average** Sales revenue will be **\$45 for a fixed budget of Radio**

For a \$1,000 increase in Radio advertising budget, we estimate that the increase in **average** Sales revenue will be **\$190, for a fixed budget of TV**

Overall, the effect of Radio advertising on average Sales is nearly **5 times greater** than that of TV advertising

 $Sales = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TV + \beta_2 Radio$

Coefficient	s:				
	Estimate St	d. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	2.92110	0.29449	9.919	<2e-16	***
TV	0.04575	0.00139	32.909	<2e-16	***
Radio	0.18799	0.00804	23.382	<2e-16	***
Signif. code	es: 0 (***)	0.001 🗘	**' 0.01	'*' 0.05	'.' 0.1 '

Residual standard error: 1.681 on 197 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8972, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8962



How strong is the relationship between sales revenue and advertising budgets for TV and Radio?

The R^2 of the multiple linear regression on the right is 0.90 when rounded to 2 decimal places

Interpretation: TV and Radio advertising budgets explain approximately 90% of the total variance in Sales revenue, indicating a strong relationship between Sales revenue and advertising budgets $Sales = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TV + \beta_2 Radio$

Coefficients	5:				
	Estimate St	d. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	2.92110	0.29449	9.919	<2e-16	***
TV	0.04575	0.00139	32.909	<2e-16	***
Radio	0.18799	0.00804	23.382	<2e-16	***
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Residual sta	andard error	: 1.681 0	on 197 de	egrees of	freedom
Multiple R-9	squared: 0.	8972,	Adjusted	d R-square	ed: 0.8962



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 $Sales = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TV + \beta_2 Radio$

Coefficients:

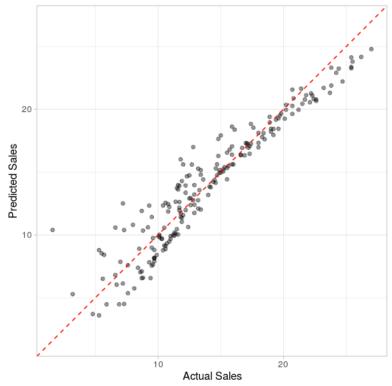
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)(Intercept) 2.92110 0.29449 <2e-16 *** TV 0.04575 0.00139 32.909 <2e-16 *** Radio 0.18799 0.00804 23.382 <2e-16 *** Signif. codes: 0 (**** 0.001 (*** 0.01 (** 0.05 (.' 0.1 (Residual standard error: 1.681 on 197 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8972, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8962

How accurately can we predict future Sales revenue?

The residual standard error (**RSE**) for this model is 1.681. As a proportion of the average Sales revenue in the data (**14.02**), the RSE represents approximately 12%.

Interpretation: Roughly speaking, we can expect 12% prediction error, on average. We also note from the visualization of R^2 that the highest prediction accuracy occurs for Sales values between approximately \$14,000 and \$22,000

Actual Sales vs Predicted



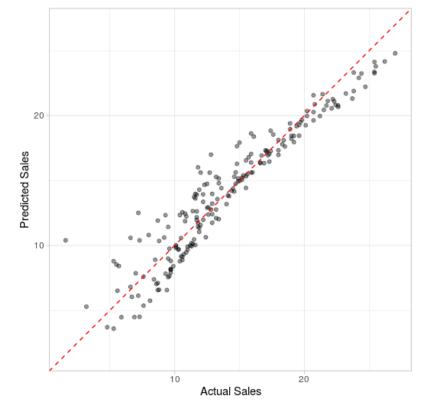


Residual Scatter Plot for Sales ~ TV + Radio

Is the relationship between average Sales revenue and advertising budgets linear?

We see a slight **non-linear** relationship in both the residual plot and the R² visualization of predicted Sales versus actual Sales. The non-linearity mainly occurs at the lower and upper bounds of Sales revenue. However, the model provides a reasonable approximation that is easy to interpret

Actual Sales vs Predicted





Machine Learning Methods Supervised Learning - Classification

Classification

Supervised learning methods used to predict **categorical** response variables

Example

• Predict whether a customer will purchase a product based on the seconds they have spent browsing a company's homepage and product page

Outcome	Prec	lictors
Outcome	Seconds Homepage	Seconds Product Page
Did Not Purchase	4	30
Purchased	32	43
Did Not Purchase	2	22
Purchased	24	36

Segmenting the predictor values into distinct, non-overlapping regions to predict a category



Seconds Spent on Homepage

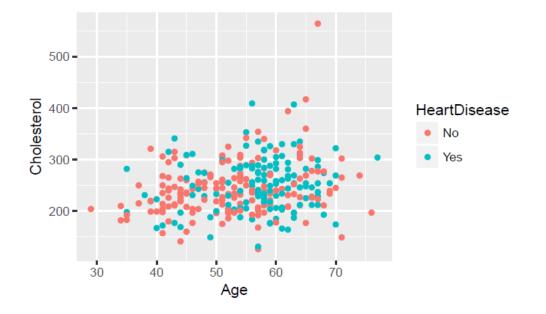


Classification Predicting Categorical Outcomes

An example of classification would include predicting whether a patient will develop heart disease (Yes/No) using the Heart Disease data set on the right

- There are many classification techniques, or classifiers, that can be used to predict categorical outcome variables
- This lecture will focus on logistic regression
 - Logistic regression is used to predict **dichotomous** outcome variables these are categorical variables with two levels
 - The heart_disease variable on the right is dichotomous

heart_disease	age	chest_pain	resting_bp	cholesterol
No	63	typical	145	233
Yes	67	asymptomatic	160	286
Yes	67	asymptomatic	120	229
No	37	nonanginal	130	250
No	41	nontypical	130	204





Logistic Regression The Bernoulli Distribution

A Bernoulli random variable can be used to model the probabilistic behavior of dichotomous outcomes

• A common example would be tossing a fair coin

Positive class

- Event of interest to predict
- "Yes" in **heart_disease** outcome

Negative class

- Remaining class
- "No"

The Bernoulli distribution is indexed by a parameter **p**, which represents the probability that the outcome variable will be the **positive class**



Logistic Regression Setting

In logistic regression, we are predicting a dichotomous outcome variable Y

- We map the event of interest to the **Positive** class
- "Yes" in the *heart_disease* variable

We assume that each individual observation of **Y** follows a **Bernoulli distribution**

Given predictor variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p , we assume that

$$E(Y_i|X_1 = x_1, ..., X_p = x_p) = p_i$$

heart_disease	age	chest_pain	resting_bp	cholesterol
No	63	typical	145	233
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Logistic Regression Setting

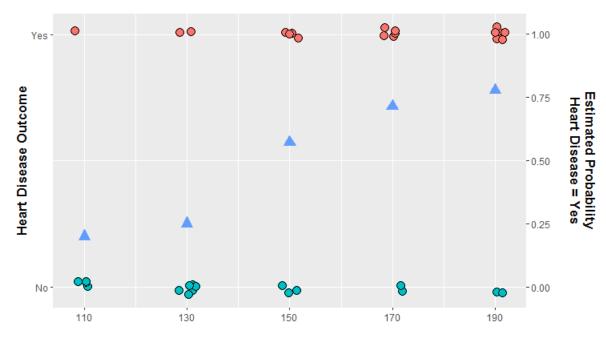
 $E(Y_i | X_1 = x_1, ..., X_p = x_p) = p_i$

In most textbooks, the above is denoted as p(x) and represents the probability of the positive class given the values of the predictor variable(s)

In logistic regression, we are modeling the relationship between p(x) and the predictor variable values

We are interested in estimating p(x) as a continuous function of the predictor variable values

Resting Blood Pressure	Heart Disease Yes	Heart Disease No	Estimated Probability of (Heart Disease = Yes)
110	1	4	0.20
130	2	6	0.25
150	4	З	0.57
170	5	2	0.71
190	7	2	0.78





Resting Blood Pressure

Logistic Regression Why not linear regression?

How should we estimate p(x)?

For the case of one predictor variable *X*, why not use linear regression? This would be represented by the following model

 $E(Y|X = x) = p(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$

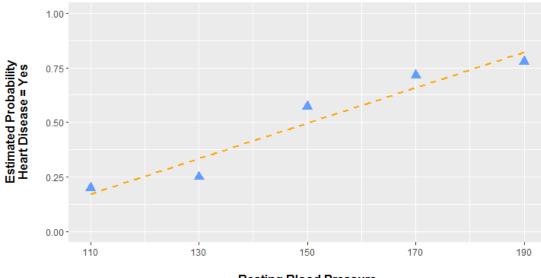
For our example on the right, this gives us an estimated regression line of

p(x) = -0.71 + 0.008(Resting Blood Pressure)

Problems with this model

- For resting blood pressure of 70, the estimated probability that a patient will develop heart disease is -0.15
- In linear regression the ε are assumed to have the same common variance, but by the properties of the Bernoulli distribution make this impossible

Resting Blood Pressure	Heart Disease Yes	Heart Disease No	Estimated Probability of (Heart Disease = Yes)
110	1	4	0.20
130	2	6	0.25
150	4	З	0.57
170	5	2	0.71
190	7	2	0.78



Estimating p(x) with a Linear Function

Resting Blood Pressure

Logistic Regression The logistic function

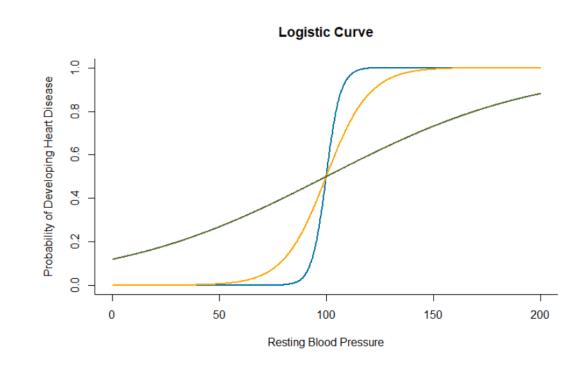
To avoid the problems we encountered on the previous slide, we must model p(x) using a function that gives outputs between 0 and 1

In logistic regression, we use the **logistic function**. For the case of one predictor variable *X*, the logistic function takes the form below

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)}}$$

Three logistic curves are plotted to the right, using various values of β_0 and β_1

Estimating p(x) = P(Y = positive class | X = x) with the logistic function is a good choice since the logistic curve can take various shapes, from almost linear to extremely "S" shaped





Logistic Regression The *logit* Transformation

 $p(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)}}$ is not a linear function of the predictor variable X

However, using a **logit transformation**, we can transform both sides of the equation to get a linear function of the predictor variable *X*

$$logit(p(x)) = \log\left(\frac{p(x)}{1-p(x)}\right) = \log\left(\frac{\frac{1}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}}{1-\frac{1}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}}\right) = \log\left(\frac{\frac{1}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}}{\frac{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}} - \frac{1}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}}\right)$$

$$= \log\left(\frac{\frac{1}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}}{\frac{e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}}\right) = \log\left(\frac{1}{e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}}\right) = \log(e^{(\beta_0+\beta_1x)}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1x$$



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Logistic Regression The *logit* Transformation

Once we have our estimated coefficients, we can obtain an estimated probability for the **positive** class for any predictor value, **x**, with:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)}}$$

How do we predict the outcome categories?

- If our estimated probability for a given **x** is greater than or equal to 0.5
 - We predict the **positive** class
 - Negative class otherwise



Logistic Regression Modeling Process

art_disease	resting_bp		Logit (resting_bp)		Probability of Positive Class "Yes"		Predicted Heart Disease
No	127	Estimated	-2.19		0.10		No
Yes	145	Parameters	2.31	Logistic Function	0.91	Threshold	Yes
Yes	135		-0.19		0.45		No
No	130		-1.44		0.19	0.5	No
No	135	$\beta_0 = -33.94$	-0.19	1	0.45		No
No	90	$\beta_1 = 0.25$	-11.44	$1 + e^{-(-33.94 + 0.25x)}$	0.0		No
Yes	130		-1.44		0.19		No



heart_

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Logistic Regression Multiple Logistic Regression

The logistic regression model can easily be extended to incorporate multiple predictor variables

Just like in the multiple regression setting, predictors can be quantitative or categorical

In this case

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p)}}$$

and

$$logit(p(x)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$$



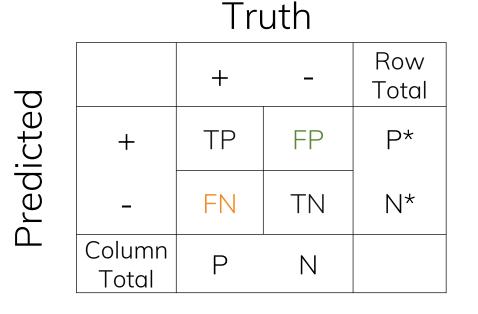
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Confusion Matrix Evaluating Prediction Accuracy

A **confusion matrix** can be created for any classifier that is used to predict a dichotomous outcome variable

The positive class is associated with the level of the outcome variable representing our event of interest

In the heart disease data set, a positive (+) is associated with the "Yes" outcome for the **heart_disease** variable



Key Performance Measures:

Metric	Meaning
True Positive (TP)	Predicted Positive – Truth is Positive
True Negative (TN)	Predicted Negative – Truth is Negative
False Positive (FP)	Predicted Positive – Truth is Negative
False Negative (FN)	Predicted Negative – Truth is Positive



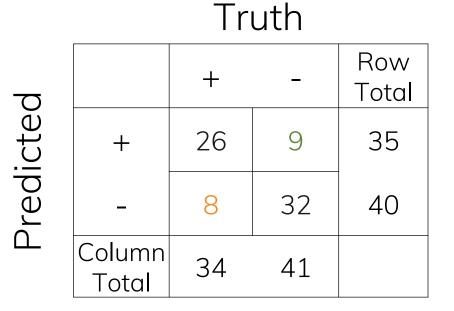
Confusion Matrix An Example Using the Heart Disease Data Set

conf_mat(test_results, truth = heart_disease, estimate = .pred_class)

Truth Prediction yes no yes 26 9 no 8 32

Interpretation

Overall, 58 patients (77%) were correctly classified. We predicted that 8 patients would not develop heart disease when in fact they did develop heart disease (false negative).



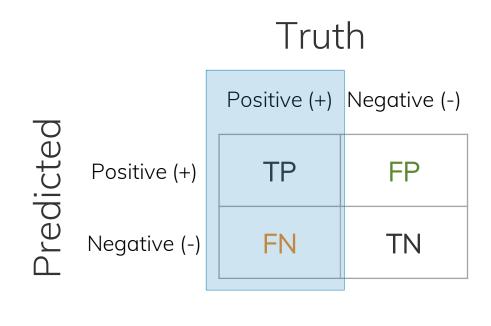


Performance Metrics Sensitivity (Recall)

Sensitivity

- Proportion of actual positive cases that were correctly classified
- Also called **recall**
- Values near 1 are optimal

Of patients who **did develop heart disease**, what proportion did our model predict correctly?



 $\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$



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Performance Metrics Specificity

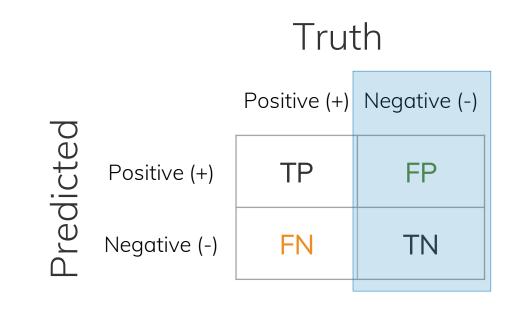
Specificity

- Proportion of actual negative cases that were correctly classified
- Values near 1 are optimal

Of patients who **did not develop heart disease**, what proportion did our model predict correctly?

1 – Specificity

- False positive rate (FPR)
- Proportion of false positives among true negatives



 $\frac{TN}{TN + FP}$



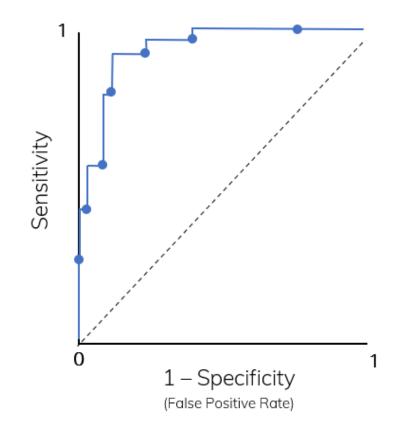
Performance Metrics ROC Curves and Area Under the ROC Curve

ROC curve plots the **sensitivity** vs (1 - specificity) for all possible probability cut-off values.

- The default probability cut-off value used by classification models is 0.5
 - Changing this can guard against either false positives or false negatives. The ROC curve plots all this information in one plot

What to look for

• The best ROC curve is as close as possible to the point (0, 1) that is at the top left corner of the plot. The closer the ROC curve is to that point throughout the entire range, the better the classification model



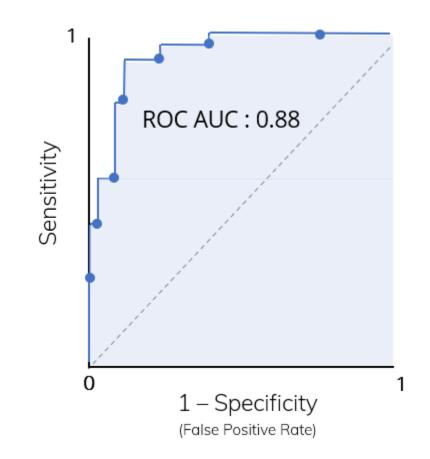


Performance Metrics ROC Curves and Area Under the ROC Curve

Area Under the ROC Curve (AUC)

Another common performance metric. Can be interpreted as a letter grade for model performance:

- 0.9 1 = A
- 0.8 0.89 = B
- 0.7 0.79 = C
- 0.6 0.69 = D
- Below 0.6 = F





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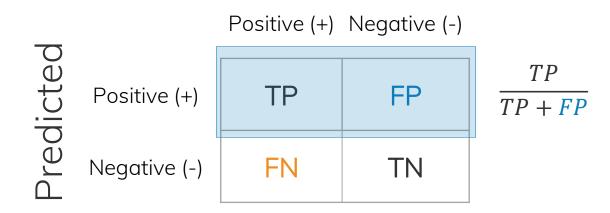
Performance Metrics Precision

Precision

- Proportion of predicted positive cases that were correctly classified
- Values near 1 are optimal

Of patients who **were predicted to develop heart disease**, what proportion did our model predict correctly?

Truth





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Performance Metrics F1 Score – a single measure of performance

Instead of having to look at both false positive and false negative rates, the F_1 score combines both metrics into one overall score

- The F₁ score gives equal weight to precision and recall
 - Precision function of false positives
 - Recall (Sensitivity) function of false negatives
- The F₁ score ranges from 0 (worst) to 1 (best)



$$2\left(\frac{PR}{P+R}\right) = 2 * \frac{(0.74)(0.76)}{0.74 + 0.76} = 0.75$$



