

Binary outcome regression models

B.D. in Business Administration and Economics
Course in Quantitative Methods III

Rosario Barone
University of Rome “Tor Vergata”

rosario.barone@uniroma2.it

Why Generalized Linear Models?

Let suppose to be in the ordinary linear regression framework, such that:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2).$$

in cases where the response variable Y is expected to be always positive and varying over a wide range, these assumptions turn out to be inappropriate.

The GLM is a flexible generalization of ordinary linear regression.

More specifically, GLMs are generalization of linear models for situations in which the outcome is not Gaussian, summarized as follows:

- specify distribution for the dependent variable $f(Y|\theta)$;
- specify a link function $g(\cdot)$;
- specify a linear predictor.

The distribution of the dependent variable $f(Y|\theta)$ is assumed to belong to the exponential family. Some examples:

- Normal
- Poisson
- binomial (with fixed n)
- multinomial (with fixed n)
- negative binomial (with fixed number of failures).

*Note that the parameters which must be fixed determine a limit on the size of observations.

Model definition

We define the distribution $f(Y|X)$, with mean μ of the depending on the independent variables, X , through:

$$E(Y|X) = \mu = g^{-1}(X\beta)$$

where:

- $E(Y|X)$ is the expected value of Y conditional on X ;
- $X\beta$ is the linear predictor;
- g is the link function.

The variance is typically a function, V , of the mean:

$$\text{var}(Y|X) = \nu(g^{-1}(X\beta)).$$

However, by choosing ν as a distribution of the exponential family we get a more flexible model.

Let Y denote a binary response variable ($Y \in \{0, 1\}$) and let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$ be the vector of observed covariates.

We denote with

- $\pi(\mathbf{x})$ the mean $E(Y|X) = P(Y = 1)$, for underlining its dependence on the covariates \mathbf{x} ;
- $\text{var}(Y) = \pi(\mathbf{x})(1 - \pi(\mathbf{x}))$.

We present three GLMs for binary data:

- Linear probability model
- Logit model
- Probit model

A *linear probability model* is a GLM with binomial random component Y and *identity link* function

$$\pi(x) = \alpha + \beta x$$

A structural problem due to the identity link:

- 1 linear functions take values over the entire real line;
- 2 $\pi(x) \in [0, 1]$ (it is a probability);
- 3 for sufficiently large or small x , $\pi(x)$ falls outside the $[0, 1]$ interval.

In the multiple predictor extension ($\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$)

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

we have the same fitting problems as in the univariate case:

- $\hat{\pi}(\mathbf{x})$ may fall outside the range $[0, 1]$ for some observed individuals.
- The model can be valid over a restricted range of x values.

So, what's the advantage with this model?

The advantage is its **simple interpretation**: β represents the increment in $\pi(x)$ as x increases of one-unit.

Since the model is *linear*, one may think to estimate it via *Ordinary Least Squares* instead of *MLE*. Is it a good guess?

- 1 *OLS* assumes constant variance: condition not satisfied;
- 2 the binomial ML estimator is more efficient than *OLS*.

However, *OLS* and *MLE* estimates are similar when $\hat{\pi}(x)$ is in the range within which the variance is relatively stable.

Usually, binary data result from a nonlinear relationship between $\pi(x)$ and x , that is for a fixed change in x , there is:

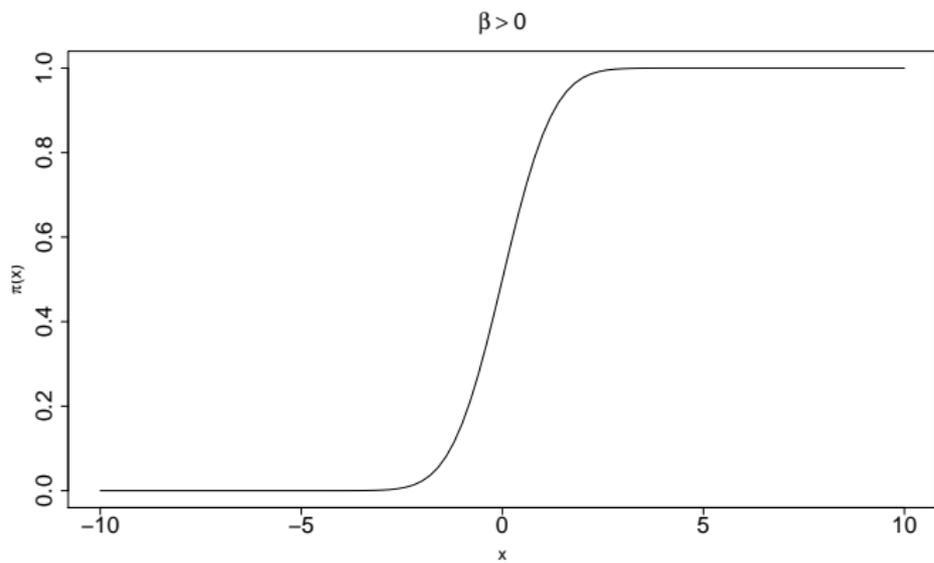
- lower impact if $\pi(x)$ is close to 0 or 1
- higher impact if $\pi(x)$ lies in a neighborhood of 0.5

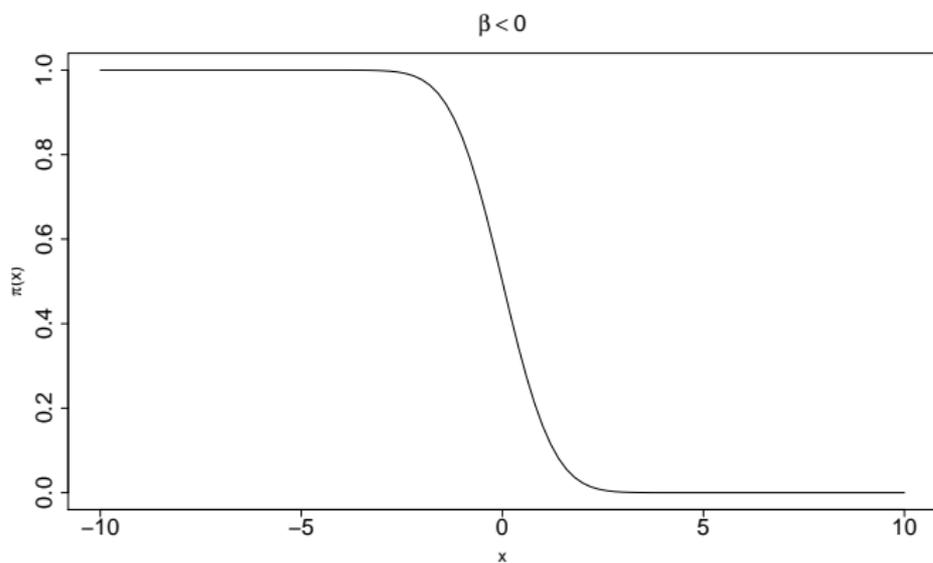
Let Y be a binary variable and let x be an observed covariate. We define the *Logistic regression model* or equivalently *Logit model* as:

$$\pi(x) = \frac{\exp(\alpha + \beta x)}{1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta x)}.$$

As $x \rightarrow \infty$

- if $\beta < 0$, $\pi(x)$ gets closer to 0;
- if $\beta > 0$, $\pi(x)$ gets closer to 1.





From the model definition, the *odds* of the logistic regression are:

$$\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)} = \exp(\alpha + \beta x)$$

thus, the *log-odds* has the linear relationship with the covariate

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)}\right) = \alpha + \beta x.$$

This is also called *logit link*.

$$\log \left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)} \right) = \alpha + \beta x.$$

How to interpret β ?

- its sign determines whether $\pi(x)$ is increasing or decreasing as x increases;
- the rate of climb or descent increases as β increases;
- as $\beta \rightarrow 0$ the curve flattens to a horizontal straight line;
- when $\beta = 0$, Y is independent of X ;

Interpretation: the odds increases multiplicatively by e^β as x increases of 1-unit.

"Approximating" the interpretation



Binary
outcome
regression
models

Rosario
Barone

Most scientists are not familiar with odds or logits. Two solutions proposed:

- Linear approximation (Berkson 1951);
- calculate $\pi(x)$ at certain x values.

Logistic regression models (Logit models) are GLMs with:

- binary outcome variable;
- logit link function.

Advantages of logit models:

- the logit link is the natural parameter of the binomial distribution (canonical link);
- the logit link can be any real number and $\pi(x)$ always belong to $[0, 1]$.

By defining a binary response having form $\pi(x) = F(x)$ for some cdf F permits the curve to be more flexible.

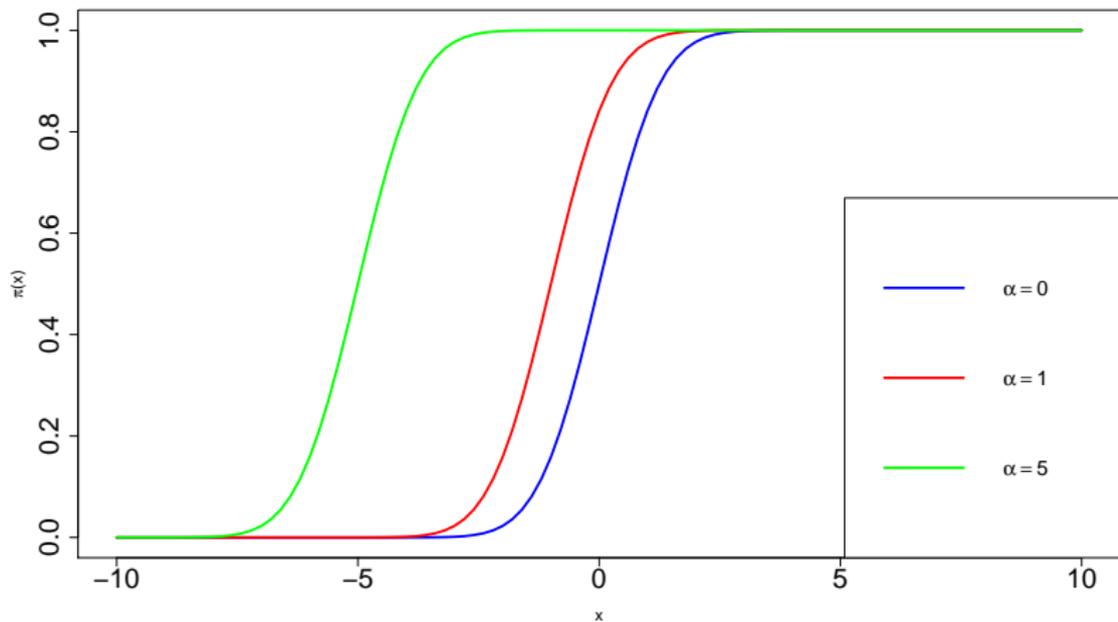
Let assume to use a standard Normal cdf Φ ($N(0,1)$) to define a model

$$\pi(x) = \Phi(\alpha + \beta x).$$

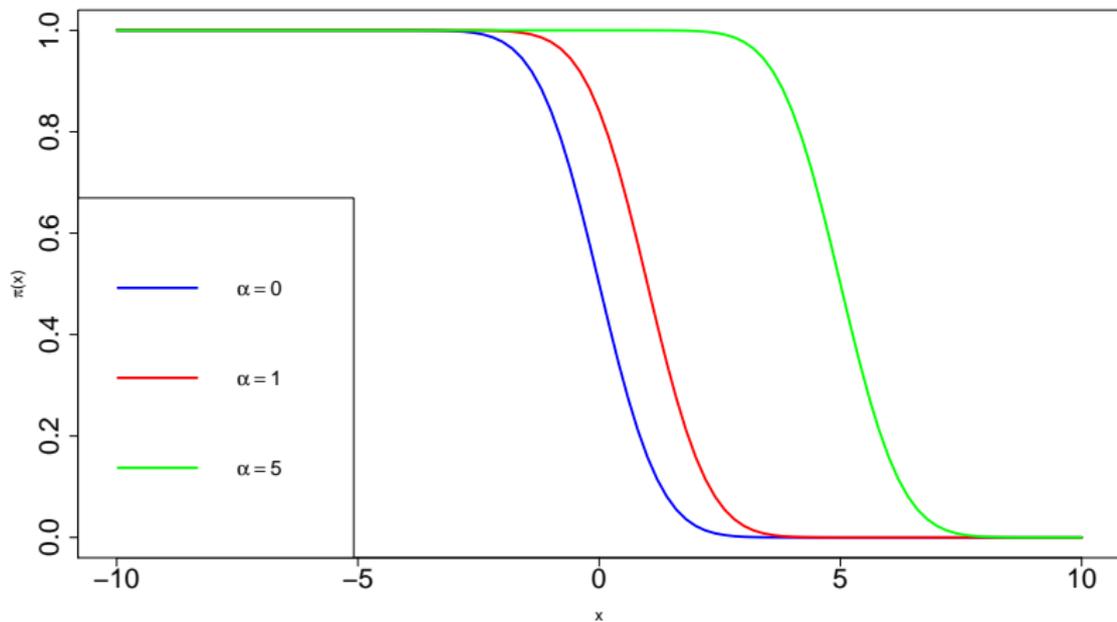
Shapes of different cdf's in the class occur as α and β vary.

- β controls the rate of increasing (if $\beta > 0$) or decreasing (if $\beta < 0$) of the cdf;
- α controls the location of the curve.

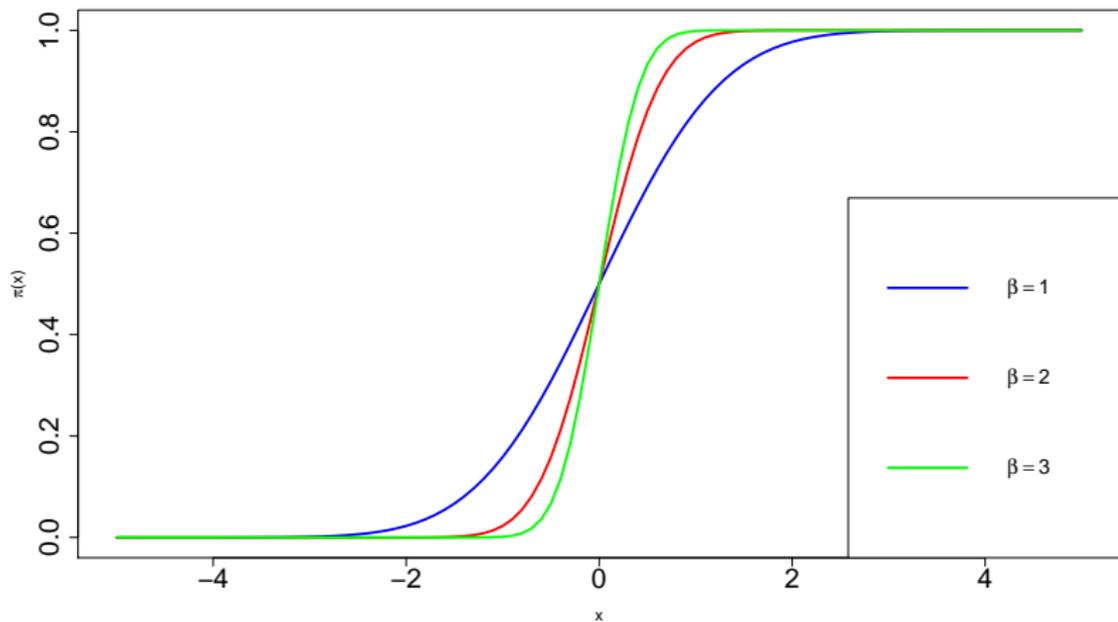
With $\beta > 0$, as α varies...



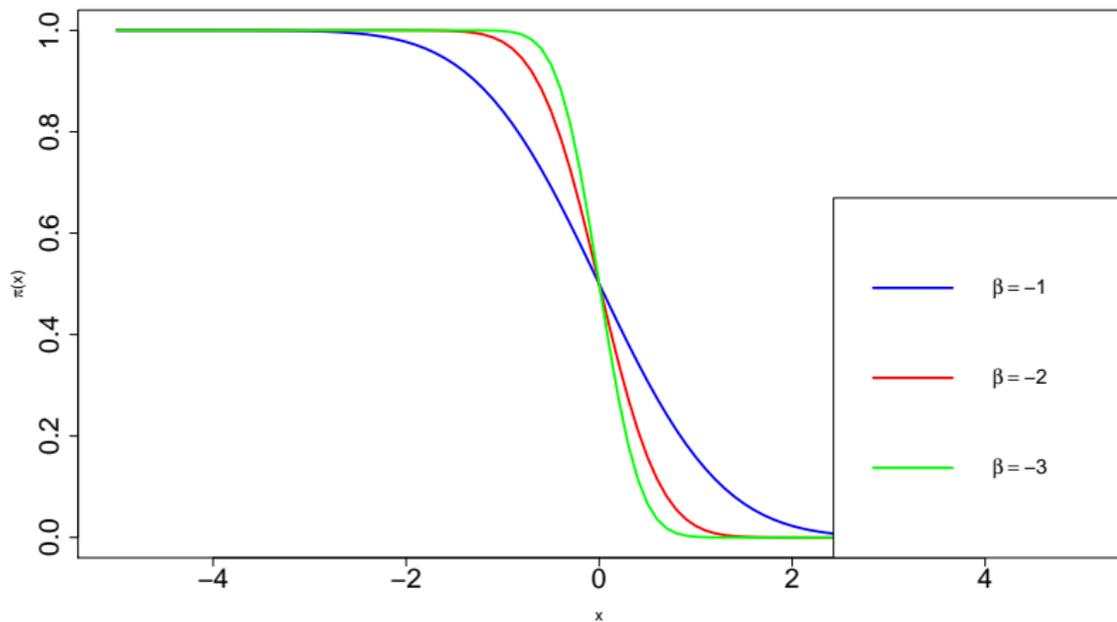
With $\beta < 0$, as α varies...



With $\alpha = 0$, as β varies in $[0, \infty]$...



With $\alpha = 0$, as β varies in $[-\infty, 0]$...



When Φ is strictly increasing over \mathbb{R} its inverse function exists and

$$\Phi^{-1}(\pi(x)) = \alpha + \beta x$$

is called *Probit model*. Here Φ^{-1} (the quantile function of the standard Normal distribution) is the link function.

With this model setting, β indicates how much the (conditional) probability of the outcome variable changes when you change the value of x .

As for probit models, we may consider the logistic regression curve as the cdf of the *logistic distribution*, having expression

$$F(x) = \frac{\exp((x - \mu)/\tau)}{1 + \exp((x - \mu)/\tau)},$$

where μ is the mean and $\tau > 0$ is the dispersion parameter.

The standardized logistic distribution ($\mu = 0$ and $\tau = 1$) is then:

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

Hence, the logit model is

$$\pi(x) = \Phi(\alpha + \beta x) = \frac{\exp(\alpha + \beta x)}{1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta x)}$$

Therefore, the logit transformation is simply the quantile function (inverse cdf) for the standard logistic distribution

$$x = \Phi^{-1}(\pi(x)) = \log\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)}\right).$$

Let consider $n_i Y_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, \pi_i)$. Then, y_i is the sample proportion of successes for n_i trials. We define the moments of the Binomial GLM as

- $E(Y_i) = \pi_i$
- $\text{var}(Y_i) = \pi_i(1 - \pi_i)/n_i$

For n independent observations, the likelihood function is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(f(y_i; \theta_i, \psi))$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\phi)} + \sum_{i=1}^n c(y_i, \phi)$$

After some analytics, we get the *likelihood equations*:

$$\frac{\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(y_i - \mu_i) x_{ij}}{\text{var}(Y_i)} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_j} = 0.$$

Let consider $n_i Y_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, \pi_i)$. Then, y_i is the sample proportion of successes for n_i trials. Then,

$$\pi_i = \Phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{ij} \right)$$

with Φ being the standard cdf of some classes of continuous distributions.

We know that

$$\mu_i = \pi_i = \Phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{ij} \right) = \Phi(\eta_i).$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_i} = \frac{\partial \Phi(\eta_i)}{\partial \eta_i} = \frac{\partial \Phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{ij} \right)}{\partial \eta_i} = \phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{ij} \right)$$

where $\phi = \partial \Phi(u) / \partial u$.

Therefore, the likelihood equations for the binomial GLM are:

$$\frac{\mathcal{L}(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{n_i (y_i - \pi_i) x_{ij}}{\pi_i (1 - \pi_i)} \phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x_{ij} \right) = 0.$$

Overdispersion for Binomial GLMs and Quasi-likelihood

The quasi-likelihood approach can handle overdispersion for counts based on binary data.

As shown before,

- $E(Y_i) = \pi_i$;
- $\text{var}(Y_i) = \pi_i(1 - \pi_i)/n_i$.

A simple quasi-likelihood approach uses the alternative variance function

$$\nu(\pi_i) = \phi \pi_i(1 - \pi_i),$$

overdispersion occurs when $\phi > 1$. Estimates are equal to the *ML* case for the Binomial response (ϕ drops out from likelihood equations and it is estimated separately) and the standard errors multiply by $\sqrt{\phi}$.

- Deviance of the model
- Likelihood ratio
- Statistics on the residuals (RSS-like statistics):
 - deviance residuals
 - Pearson residuals

- Logit: `glm(formula, family = binomial(link = "logit"), data, ...)`

- Probit: `glm(formula, family = binomial(link = "probit"), data, ...)`