



COMPUTER SCIENCE

INDIANA UNIVERSITY

School of Informatics and Computing
Bloomington

Generalized linear models and logistic regression



Reminders/Comments

- Write your name on the assignment to make it easier for Als
 - assignments must be written in some kind of editor, not by hand
- Assignment 1 marks are released today
- Thought questions 3 for
 - Chapter 5: Generalized Linear Models
 - Chapter 6: Linear classification
- Changed deadlines for thought questions
- Note: will have to balance completing project and last two assignments, so consider getting started early



Thought question

- I assume we don't use Newton's method because the requirements are more strict (smoothness of the function). Are there any other reasons? From what I understand, Newton's method is much more efficient than Gradient descent.
 - In many cases, smoothness is not the issue for us
 - Rather, computing the Hessian is expensive
 - First-order (just gradient) is $O(dn)$
 - Second-order (newton with Hessian) is $O(d^3 + d^2n)$
 - e.g. for $d = 10$ features, $n = 100$ samples, first-order = 1000 and second order = 11000; this gets significantly worse for larger d
 - **Compromise:** quasi-Newton methods that keep a small $d \times m$ approximation ($m < d$) to the true $d \times d$ Hessian and avoid expensive inverses with a clever order of operations, giving $O(dmn)$



Thought question

- In Linear Regression we use Least Squared sum. Why do we use squares? Why not the least sum of absolute values of the errors?
 - There are multiple answers to this question
 - First, we assumed that $p(y | x)$ is Gaussian distributed \rightarrow forming the maximum likelihood optimization results in the squared error
 - However, we did not have to make this assumption; we could have assumed $p(y | x)$ is Laplace distribution, for which the maximum likelihood optimization would give the sum of absolute errors (i.e., l_1)
 - We did not do this because
 - (a) there is not a closed form solution for the minimization of the sum of absolute errors, but there is for the squared error
 - (b) using gradient descent with the absolute values is more problematic



Clarification about assumptions

- We have made distributional assumptions for modeling
- In Chapter 2, assumed distributions on variables
 - e.g. commute time variable X was Gamma distribution
 - e.g. multivariate Gaussian distribution on a collection of features
 - these can be pretty strong assumptions on many (complex) variables in a dynamical system
- For conditional distributions, predicting $E[y | x]$ and making distributional assumption on noise
 - intuitively, in most cases, this is not that strong of an assumption, as it is not unreasonable to assume noise simple, but variables complex
 - $E[y|x]$ not a complete picture of $p(y | x)$, but still useful for prediction
 - this is one of the reasons we can gain so much by improving features

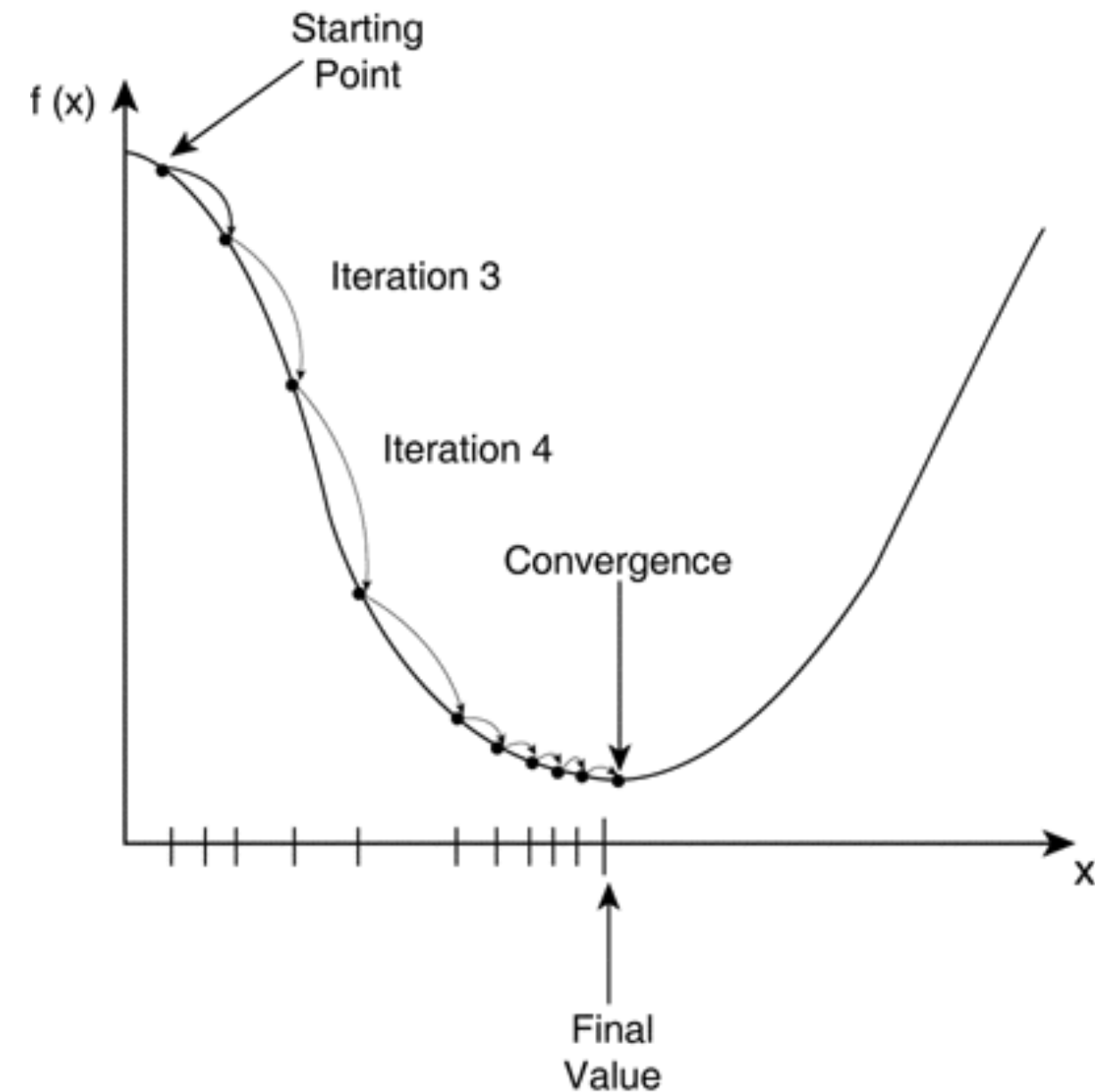


Comments from last time

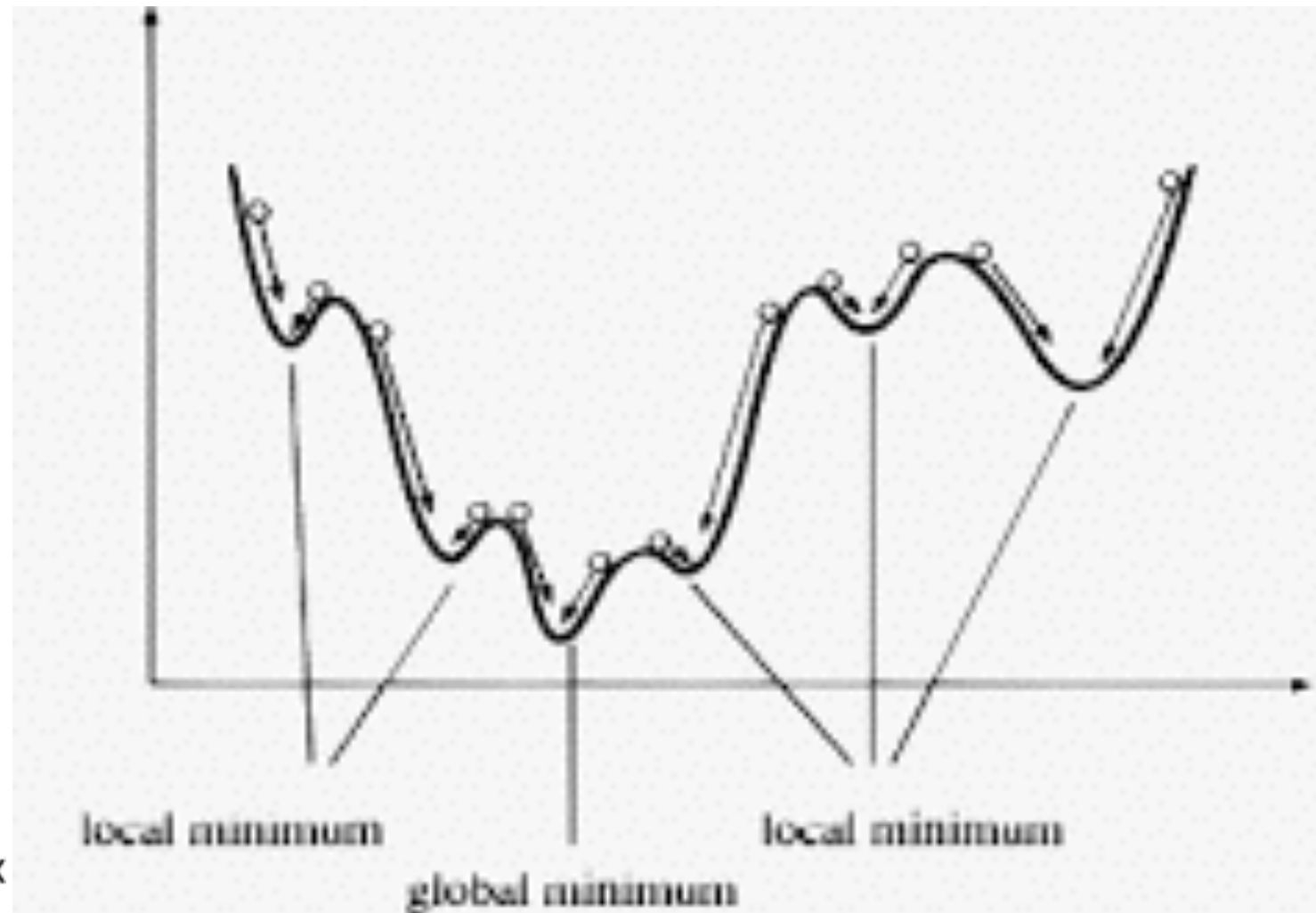
- Convexity of negative log likelihood of (many) exponential families
 - The negative log likelihood of many exponential families is convex, which is an important advantage of the maximum likelihood approach
 - We will focus on natural exponential family distributions (also called regular exponential family distributions)
- Why is convexity important?
 - e.g., why is $(\text{sigmoid}(xw) - y)^2$ not a good choice for binary classification?
 - we'll see that this Euclidean loss (squared loss) results in a non-convex function later



Convex versus nonconvex



Convex function



Non-convex function



How can we check convexity?

- Can check the definition of convexity

$$f(tx_1 + (1-t)x_2) \leq tf(x_1) + (1-t)f(x_2)$$

- Can check second derivative for scalar parameters (e.g. λ) and Hessian for multidimensional parameters (e.g., \mathbf{w})
 - e.g., for linear regression (least-squares), the Hessian is $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$ and so clearly positive semi-definite
 - e.g., for Poisson regression, the Hessian of the negative log-likelihood is $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{C} \mathbf{X}$ and so clearly positive semi-definite
- Note: for Poisson regression, in notes used log likelihood, so function concave and Hessian was negative semi-definite



Poisson regression

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \text{Poisson}(y|\lambda = \exp(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w}))$$

$$1. \log(E[y|\mathbf{x}]) = \boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{x}$$

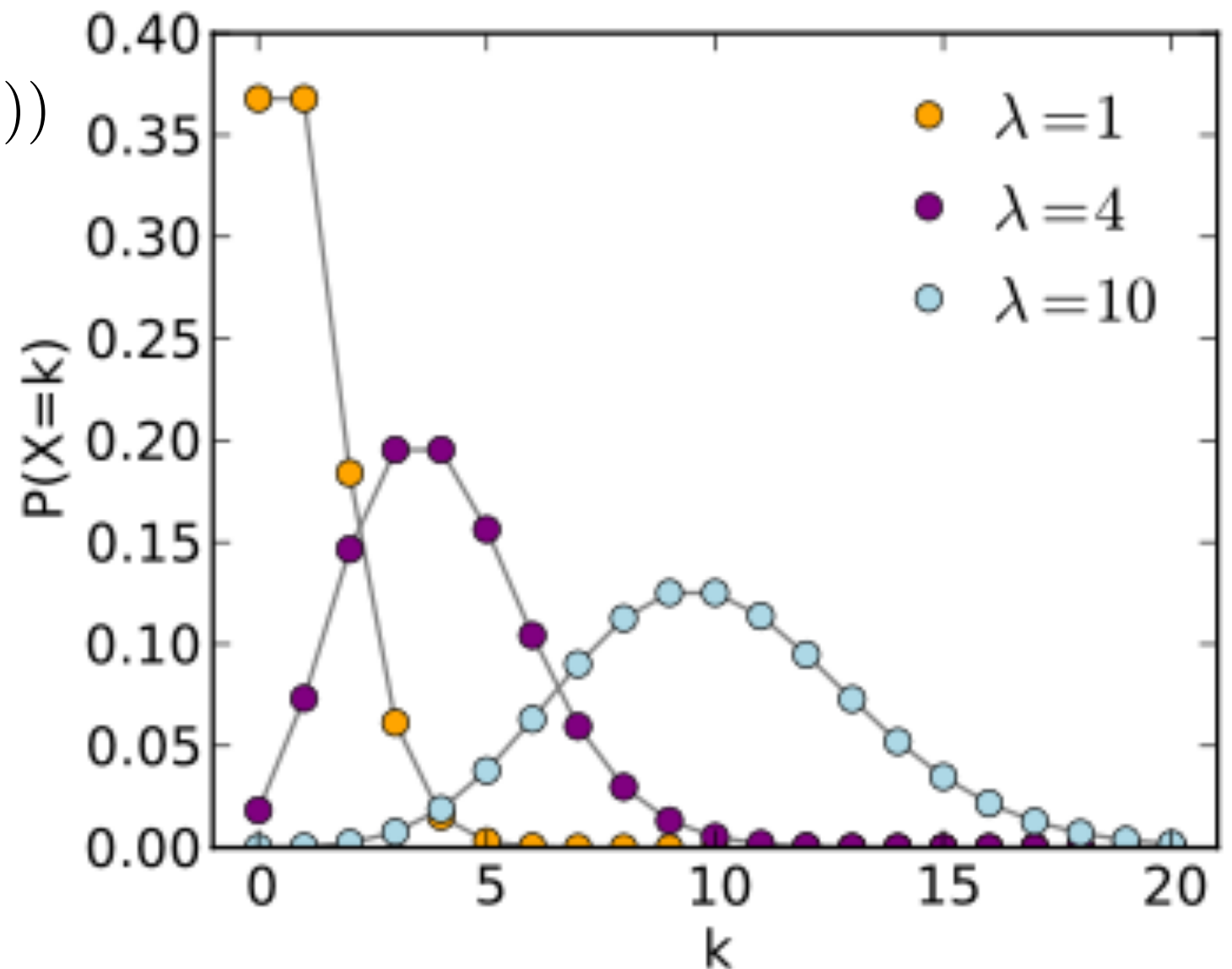
$$2. p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$$

$$\begin{aligned} p(x|\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^m \theta_i t_i(x) - a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + b(x)\right) \\ &= \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{t}(x) - a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + b(x)), \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{t}(x) = (t_1(x), t_2(x), \dots, t_m(x))$.

$$p(y|\lambda) = \exp(y \log \lambda - \lambda - \log y!)$$

$$\theta = \log \lambda, t(y) = y, a(\theta) = \exp^\theta, b(y) = -\log y!$$





GLMs

$\nabla a(\theta) = g(\theta)$ where $g(\theta) = E[t(x)]$, $g = f^{-1}$

e.g. for conditional distribution on y :

$$\theta = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w}$$

$$a(\theta) = \exp(\theta)$$

$$g(\theta) = \exp(\theta) = \exp(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w}) = E[y|\mathbf{x}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} ll(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \log \prod_{i=1}^n e^{\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{t}(x_i) - a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + b(x_i)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{t}(x_i) - n \cdot a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \sum_{i=1}^n b(x_i). \end{aligned}$$

← Note: this is a generic x ,
here we intend y
not the features x



GLM log-likelihood

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x|\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \exp \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \theta_i t_i(x) - a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + b(x) \right) \\
 &= \exp \left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{t}(x) - a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + b(x) \right),
 \end{aligned}$$

← This is a generic x , here we intend y not the features x

Final log-likelihood
and gradient
in terms of \mathbf{w}

$$\begin{aligned}
 ll(\mathbf{w}) &= \log \prod_{i=1}^n e^{\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{t}(x_i) - a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + b(x_i)} \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_m \theta_m t_m(x_i) - n \cdot a(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \sum_i b(x_i) \\
 &= \sum_i ll_i(\mathbf{w})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial ll_i(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_j} = \sum_m \frac{\partial \theta_m}{\partial w_j} t_m(x_i) - \frac{\partial a(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial w_j}$$

Exercise: what do each of these terms look like for Poisson regression?

$$p(y|\lambda) = \exp(y \log \lambda - \lambda - \log y!)$$

$$\theta = \log \lambda, t(y) = y, a(\theta) = \exp^\theta, b(y) = -\log y!$$



Logistic regression

1. $\text{logit}(E[y|\mathbf{x}]) = \boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{x}$

2. $p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \text{Bernoulli}(\alpha)$

where $\text{logit}(x) = \ln \frac{x}{1-x}$, $y \in \{0, 1\}$, and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

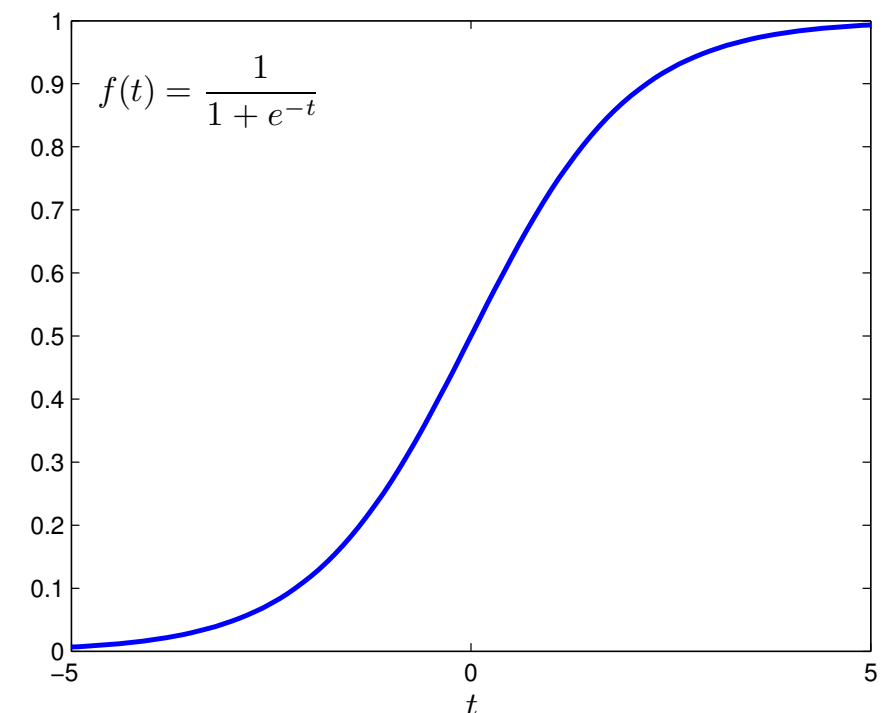
$$E[y|\mathbf{x}] = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{x}}}$$

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-\boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{x}}} \right)^y \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{x}}} \right)^{1-y}.$$

$$\alpha = p(y = 1|\mathbf{x})$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = \text{logit}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$$

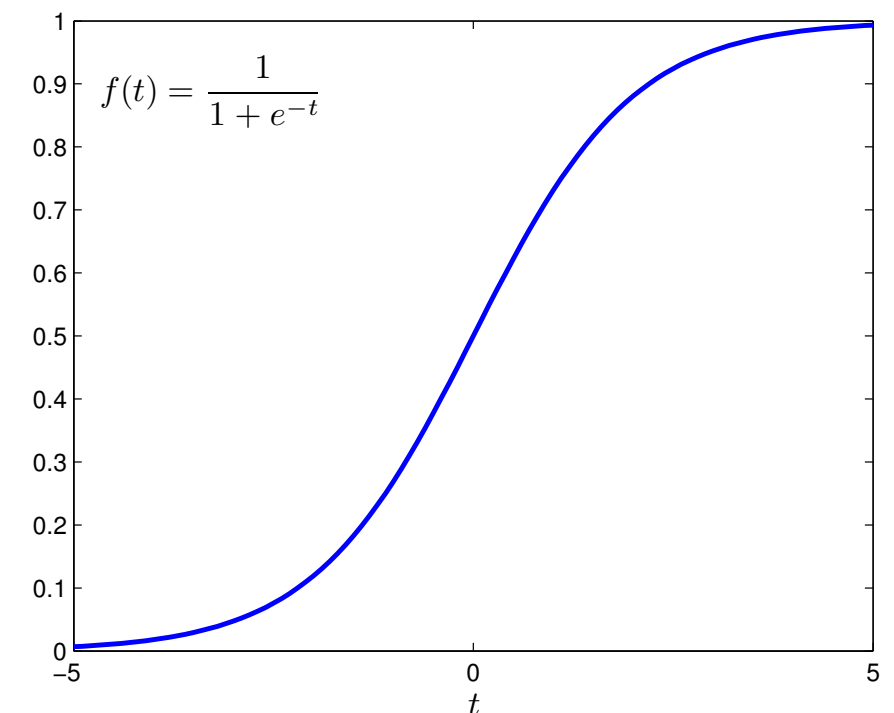
$$\begin{aligned} g(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) &= f^{-1}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \\ &= E[y|\mathbf{x}] \end{aligned}$$





Prediction with logistic regression

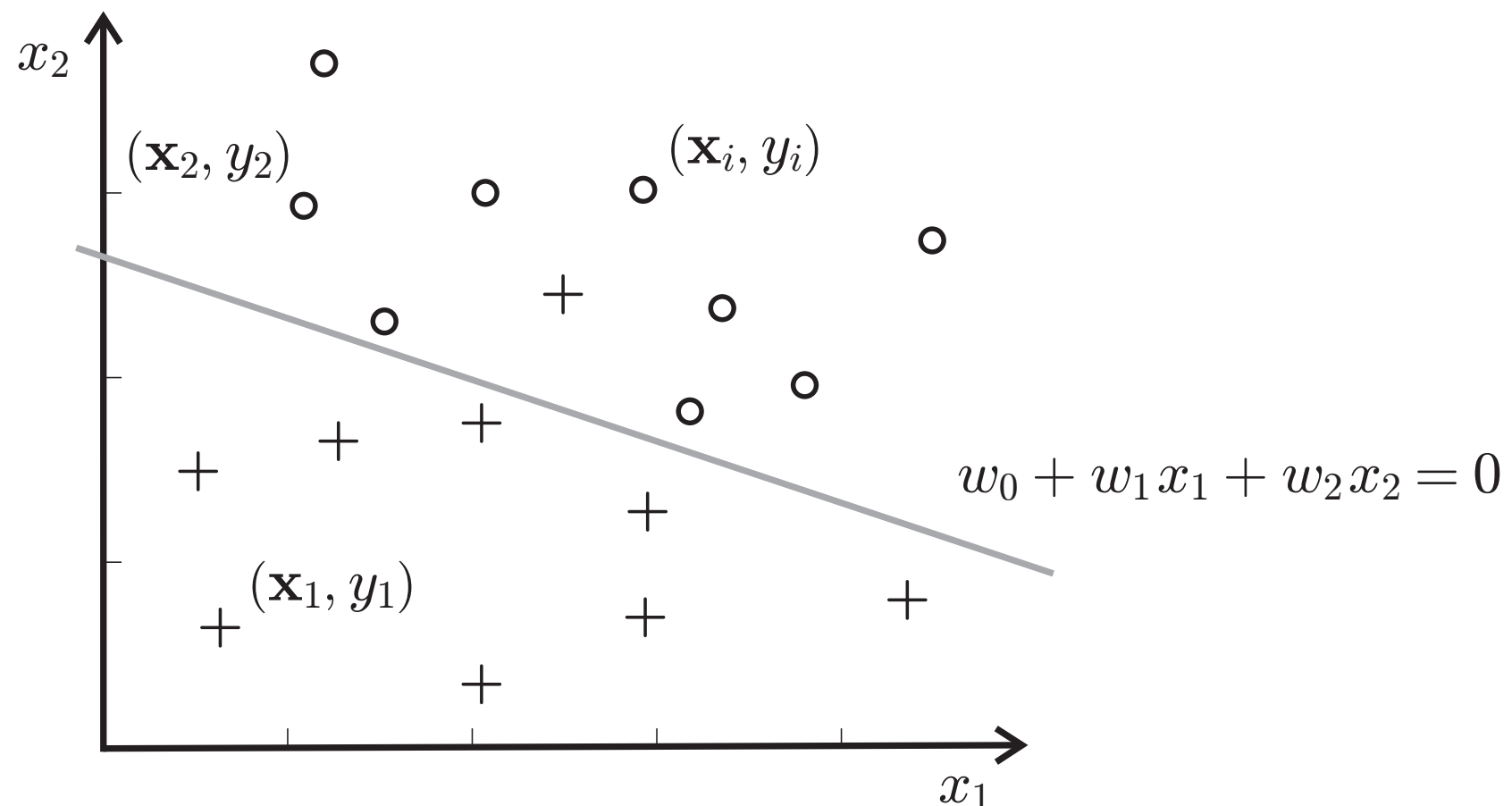
- So far, we have used the prediction $g(xw)$
 - eg., xw for linear regression, $\exp(xw)$ for Poisson regression
- For binary classification, want to output 0 or 1, rather than the probability value $p(y=1 \mid x) = \text{sigmoid}(xw)$
- Sigmoid has few values xw mapped close to 0.5; most values somewhat larger than 0 are mapped close to 0 (and vice versa for 1)
- Decision threshold:
 - $\text{sigmoid}(xw) < 0.5$ is class 0
 - $\text{sigmoid}(xw) > 0.5$ is class 1





Logistic regression is a linear classifier

- Hyperplane $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} = 0$ separates the two classes
 - $P(y=1 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) > 0.5$ only when $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} \geq 0$.
 - $P(y=0 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) > 0.5$ only when $P(y=1 \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) < 0.5$, which happens when $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} < 0$





Whiteboard

- Logistic regression
 - maximum likelihood
 - stochastic optimization
- Next class:
 - issues with minimizing Euclidean distance for sigmoid
 - multiclass with multinomial logistic regression
 - generative approach: naive Bayes