

Logistic Regression – Complete Beginner-to-Advanced Revision Guide

1. Introduction

What is Logistic Regression?

Logistic Regression is a **supervised learning** algorithm used for **classification**, primarily **binary classification** (two possible outcomes).

Despite its name, logistic regression is **not a regression model for continuous outputs**. It models the **probability** that an input belongs to a particular class.

Typical output: $P(y = 1 \mid x) \in [0, 1]$

When to Use Logistic Regression

- Binary outcomes (Yes/No, Spam/Not spam)
 - Multiclass problems (with extensions)
 - Interpretable models
 - Probabilistic predictions required
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Real-World Applications

- Medical diagnosis (disease vs no disease)
 - Credit scoring (default vs non-default)
 - Marketing (customer churn)
 - Fraud detection
 - Admission prediction
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2. Mathematical Foundations

2.1 Linear Model

We start with a **linear combination** of features:

$$z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Where:

- \mathbf{w} = weights (parameters)
 - \mathbf{x} = input features
 - z = logit (raw score)
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2.2 Why We Need the Sigmoid Function

Linear regression outputs values from $(-\infty, +\infty)$, but probabilities must lie in $[0, 1]$.

Sigmoid Function

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

Properties:

- Smooth, differentiable
 - Maps real numbers \rightarrow probabilities
 - S-shaped curve
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2.3 Logistic Regression Model

Combining linear model and sigmoid:

$$P(y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$$

2.4 Odds and Log-Odds

Odds

$$\text{Odds} = \frac{P(y=1)}{1 - P(y=1)}$$

Log-Odds (Logit)

$$\log \left(\frac{P(y=1)}{1 - P(y=1)} \right) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Key insight: Logistic regression is **linear in log-odds**, not probabilities.

3. Loss Function and Training

3.1 Likelihood Function

For a dataset of m samples:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^m P(y_i \mid x_i)$$

For binary labels:

$$P(y_i \mid x_i) = \hat{y}_i^{y_i} (1 - \hat{y}_i)^{1 - y_i}$$

3.2 Log-Likelihood

Taking log (numerical stability):

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \left[y_i \log(\hat{y}_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{y}_i) \right]$$

3.3 Binary Cross-Entropy Loss

Loss to minimize:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[y_i \log(\hat{y}_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{y}_i) \right]$$

3.4 Gradient Descent

Gradient

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial w_j} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}_i - y_i) x_j$$

Update Rule

$$w_j := w_j - \alpha \frac{\partial J}{\partial w_j}$$

Where:

- α = learning rate
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4. Regularization

4.1 Why Regularization?

Prevents:

- Overfitting
 - Large coefficients
 - Poor generalization
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4.2 L2 Regularization (Ridge)

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \text{Loss} + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum w_j^2$$

4.3 L1 Regularization (Lasso)

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \text{Loss} + \frac{\lambda}{m} \sum |w_j|$$

Key difference:

- L1 → feature selection (sparse)
 - L2 → weight shrinkage
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5. Model Evaluation

5.1 Confusion Matrix

| Actual \ Predicted | 0 | 1 |
|--------------------|----|----|
| 0 | TN | FP |
| 1 | FN | TP |

5.2 Metrics

Accuracy

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

Precision

$$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recall (Sensitivity)

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

F1-Score

$$2 \cdot \frac{\text{Precision} \cdot \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

5.3 ROC Curve and AUC

- ROC: TPR vs FPR
 - AUC measures ranking ability
 - Threshold-independent
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6. Interpretation of Coefficients

Coefficient Meaning

$$\beta_j > 0 \rightarrow x_j \text{ increases probability}$$

Odds Ratio

$$e^{\beta_j}$$






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1 increases odds - <1 decreases odds

7. Assumptions

- Binary outcome
 - Independent observations
 - Linearity in log-odds
 - No multicollinearity
 - Large sample size preferred
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8. Common Pitfalls & Misconceptions

-  Interpreting coefficients as linear change in probability
 -  Using accuracy on imbalanced data
 -  Forgetting feature scaling
 -  Assuming normality of variables
 -  Perfect separation causing infinite coefficients
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9. Python Implementation

9.1 From Scratch (NumPy)

```
import numpy as np

def sigmoid(z):
    return 1 / (1 + np.exp(-z))

def train_logistic(X, y, lr=0.1, epochs=1000):
    m, n = X.shape
    w = np.zeros(n)

    for _ in range(epochs):
        z = X @ w
        y_hat = sigmoid(z)
        gradient = (1/m) * X.T @ (y_hat - y)
        w -= lr * gradient

    return w
```

9.2 Using scikit-learn

```
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report

X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2)

model = LogisticRegression(penalty='l2', solver='lbfgs')
model.fit(X_train, y_train)
```

```
y_pred = model.predict(X_test)
print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred))
```

9.3 Decision Boundary Visualization

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

plt.scatter(X[:,0], X[:,1], c=y)
plt.show()
```

10. Extensions

- Multinomial Logistic Regression (Softmax)
- One-vs-Rest
- Regularized Logistic Regression
- Bayesian Logistic Regression

11. When NOT to Use Logistic Regression

- Highly non-linear boundaries
- Complex feature interactions
- Very small datasets

12. Best Practices

- Scale features
- Tune regularization
- Use ROC-AUC for imbalance
- Check multicollinearity (VIF)
- Interpret coefficients carefully

13. Summary

Logistic Regression is:

- Simple
- Powerful

- Interpretable
- Foundational for ML understanding

Mastering it builds intuition for:

- Neural networks
- Generalized linear models
- Probabilistic ML

End of Revision Guide