

ColumbiaX: Machine Learning

Lecture 9

Prof. John Paisley

Department of Electrical Engineering
& Data Science Institute

Columbia University

LOGISTIC REGRESSION

BINARY CLASSIFICATION

Linear classifiers

Given: Data $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$

A **linear classifier** takes a vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and scalar $w_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and predicts

$$y_i = f(x_i; w, w_0) = \text{sign}(x_i^T w + w_0).$$

We discussed two methods last time:

- ▶ Least squares: Sensitive to outliers
- ▶ Perceptron: Convergence issues, assumes linear separability

Can we combine the separating hyperplane idea with probability to fix this?

BAYES LINEAR CLASSIFICATION

Linear discriminant analysis

We saw an example of a linear classification rule using a Bayes classifier.

For the model $y \sim \text{Bern}(\pi)$ and $x | y \sim N(\mu_y, \Sigma)$, declare $y = 1$ given x if

$$\ln \frac{p(x|y=1)p(y=1)}{p(x|y=0)p(y=0)} > 0.$$

In this case, the *log odds* is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \frac{p(x|y=1)p(y=1)}{p(x|y=0)p(y=0)} &= \underbrace{\ln \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_0} - \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 + \mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_0)}_{\text{a constant } w_0} \\ &\quad + x^T \underbrace{\Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_0)}_{\text{a vector } w} \end{aligned}$$

LOG ODDS AND BAYES CLASSIFICATION

Original formulation

Recall that originally we wanted to declare $y = 1$ given x if

$$\ln \frac{p(y = 1|x)}{p(y = 0|x)} > 0$$

We didn't have a way to define $p(y|x)$, so we used Bayes rule:

- ▶ Use $p(y|x) = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{p(x)}$ and let the $p(x)$ cancel each other in the fraction
- ▶ Define $p(y)$ to be a Bernoulli distribution (coin flip distribution)
- ▶ Define $p(x|y)$ however we want (e.g., a single Gaussian)

Now, we want to directly define $p(y|x)$. We'll use the log odds to do this.

LOG ODDS AND BAYES CLASSIFICATION

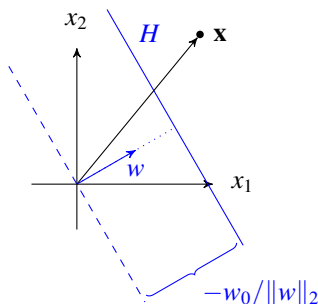
Log odds and hyperplanes

Classifying x based on the log odds

$$L = \ln \frac{p(y = +1|x)}{p(y = -1|x)},$$

we notice that

1. $L \gg 0$: more confident $y = +1$,
2. $L \ll 0$: more confident $y = -1$,
3. $L = 0$: can go either way



The linear function $x^T w + w_0$ captures these three objectives:

- ▶ The distance of x to a hyperplane H defined by (w, w_0) is $|\frac{x^T w}{\|w\|_2} + \frac{w_0}{\|w\|_2}|$.
- ▶ The sign of the function captures which side x is on.
- ▶ As x moves away/towards H , we become more/less confident.

LOG ODDS AND HYPERPLANES

Logistic link function

We can directly plug in the hyperplane representation for the log odds:

$$\ln \frac{p(y = +1|x)}{p(y = -1|x)} = x^T w + w_0$$

Question: What is different from the previous Bayes classifier?

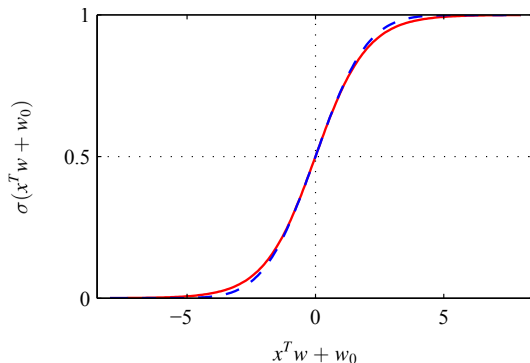
Answer: There was a formula for calculating w and w_0 based on the prior model and data x . Now, we put no restrictions on these values.

Setting $p(y = -1|x) = 1 - p(y = +1|x)$, solve for $p(y = +1|x)$ to find

$$p(y = +1|x) = \frac{\exp\{x^T w + w_0\}}{1 + \exp\{x^T w + w_0\}} = \sigma(x^T w + w_0).$$

- ▶ This is called the *sigmoid function*.
- ▶ We have chosen $x^T w + w_0$ as the *link function* for the log odds.

LOGISTIC SIGMOID FUNCTION



- ▶ Red line: Sigmoid function $\sigma(x^T w + w_0)$, which maps x to $p(y = +1|x)$.
- ▶ The function $\sigma(\cdot)$ captures our desire to be more confident as we move away from the separating hyperplane, defined by the x -axis.
- ▶ (Blue dashed line: On a later slide.)

LOGISTIC REGRESSION

As with regression, absorb the offset: $w \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w \end{bmatrix}$ and $x \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \end{bmatrix}$.

Definition

Let $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ be a set of binary labeled data with $y \in \{-1, +1\}$. *Logistic regression* models each y_i as independently generated, with

$$P(y_i = +1|x_i, w) = \sigma(x_i^T w), \quad \sigma(x_i; w) = \frac{e^{x_i^T w}}{1 + e^{x_i^T w}}.$$

Discriminative vs Generative classifiers

- ▶ This is a *discriminative* classifier because x is not directly modeled.
- ▶ Bayes classifiers are known as *generative* because x is modeled.

Discriminative: $p(y|x)$ Generative: $p(x|y)p(y)$.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION LIKELIHOOD

Data likelihood

Define $\sigma_i(w) = \sigma(x_i^T w)$. The joint likelihood of y_1, \dots, y_n is

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_1, \dots, y_n | x_1, \dots, x_n, w) &= \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | x_i, w) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(w)^{\mathbb{1}(y_i=+1)} (1 - \sigma_i(w))^{\mathbb{1}(y_i=-1)} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Notice that each x_i modifies the probability of success for its y_i .
- ▶ Predicting new data is the same:
 - ▶ If $x^T w > 0$, then $\sigma(x^T w) > 1/2$ and predict $y = +1$, and vice versa.
 - ▶ We now get a confidence in our prediction via the probability $\sigma(x^T w)$.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION AND MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD

More notation changes

Use the following fact to condense the notation:

$$\underbrace{\frac{e^{y_i x_i^T w}}{1 + e^{y_i x_i^T w}}}_{\sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)} = \left(\underbrace{\frac{e^{x_i^T w}}{1 + e^{x_i^T w}}}_{\sigma_i(w)} \right)^{\mathbb{1}(y_i=+1)} \left(\underbrace{1 - \frac{e^{x_i^T w}}{1 + e^{x_i^T w}}}_{1 - \sigma_i(w)} \right)^{\mathbb{1}(y_i=-1)}$$

therefore, the data likelihood can be written compactly as

$$p(y_1, \dots, y_n | x_1, \dots, x_n, w) = \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)$$

We want to maximize this over w .

LOGISTIC REGRESSION AND MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD

Maximum likelihood

The maximum likelihood solution for w can be written

$$\begin{aligned}w_{\text{ML}} &= \arg \max_w \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w) \\ &= \arg \max_w \mathcal{L}\end{aligned}$$

As with the Perceptron, we can't directly set $\nabla_w \mathcal{L} = 0$, so we need an iterative algorithm. At step t , we can update

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta \nabla_w \mathcal{L}, \quad \nabla_w \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)) y_i x_i.$$

We will see that this results in an algorithm similar to the Perceptron.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION ALGORITHM (STEEPEST ASCENT)

Input: Training data $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ and step size $\eta > 0$

1. **Set** $w^{(1)} = \vec{0}$

2. **For step** $t = 1, 2, \dots$ **do**

- Update $w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)) y_i x_i$

Perceptron: Search for misclassified (x_i, y_i) , update $w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta y_i x_i$.

Logistic regression: Something similar except we sum over all data.

- ▶ Recall that $\sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)$ picks out the probability assigned to the observed y_i .
- ▶ Therefore $1 - \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)$ is the probability assigned to the *wrong* value.
- ▶ Perceptron is “all-or-nothing.” Either it’s correctly or incorrectly classified.
- ▶ Logistic regression has a probability “fudge-factor.”

BAYESIAN LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Problem: If a hyperplane can separate all training data, then $\|w_{\text{ML}}\|_2 \rightarrow \infty$. This drives $\sigma_i(y_i \cdot w) \rightarrow 1$ for each (x_i, y_i) .

Even for nearly separable data it might get a few very wrong in order to be more confident about the rest. This is a case of “over-fitting.”

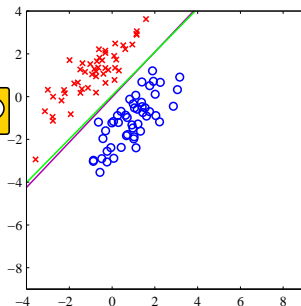
A solution: Regularize w with $\lambda w^T w$:

$$w_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_w \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w) - \lambda w^T w$$



We've seen how this corresponds to a Gaussian prior distribution on w .

How about the posterior $p(w|x, y)$?



LAPLACE APPROXIMATION

BAYESIAN LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Posterior calculation

Define the prior distribution on w to be $w \sim N(0, \lambda^{-1}I)$. The posterior is

$$p(w|x, y) = \frac{p(w) \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w)}{\int p(w) \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(y_i \cdot w) dw}$$

This is not a “standard” distribution and we can’t calculate the denominator.

Therefore we can’t actually say what $p(w|x, y)$ is.

Can we approximate $p(w|x, y)$?

LAPLACE APPROXIMATION

One strategy

Pick a distribution to approximate $p(w|x, y)$. We will say

$$p(w|x, y) \approx \text{Normal}(\mu, \Sigma).$$

Now we need a method for setting μ and Σ .

Laplace approximations

Using a condensed notation, notice from Bayes rule that

$$p(w|x, y) = \frac{e^{\ln p(y, w|x)}}{\int e^{\ln p(y, w|x)} dw}.$$

We will approximate $\ln p(y, w|x)$ in the numerator and denominator.

LAPLACE APPROXIMATION

Let's define $f(w) = \ln p(y, w|x)$.

Taylor expansions

We can approximate $f(w)$ with a **second order Taylor expansion**.

Recall that $w \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. For any point $z \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$,

$$f(w) \approx f(z) + (w - z)^T \nabla f(z) + \frac{1}{2} (w - z)^T (\nabla^2 f(z)) (w - z)$$

The notation $\nabla f(z)$ is short for $\nabla_w f(w)|_z$, and similarly for the matrix of second derivatives. We just need to pick z .

The Laplace approximation defines $z = w_{\text{MAP}}$.

LAPLACE APPROXIMATION (SOLVING)

Recall $f(w) = \ln p(y, w|x)$ and $z = w_{\text{MAP}}$. From Bayes rule and the Laplace approximation we now have

$$\begin{aligned} p(w|x, y) &= \frac{e^{f(w)}}{\int e^{f(w)} dw} \\ &\approx \frac{e^{f(z) + (w-z)^T \nabla f(z) + \frac{1}{2} (w-z)^T (\nabla^2 f(z)) (w-z)}}{\int e^{f(z) + (w-z)^T \nabla f(z) + \frac{1}{2} (w-z)^T (\nabla^2 f(z)) (w-z)} dw} \end{aligned}$$

This can be simplified in two ways,

1. The term $e^{f(w_{\text{MAP}})}$ in the numerator and denominator can be viewed as a constant since it doesn't vary in w . It therefore cancels out.
2. By definition of how we find w_{MAP} , the vector $\nabla_w \ln p(y, w|x)|_{w_{\text{MAP}}} = 0$.

LAPLACE APPROXIMATION (SOLVING)

We're therefore left with the approximation

$$p(w|x, y) \approx \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(w-w_{\text{MAP}})^T(-\nabla^2 \ln p(y, w_{\text{MAP}}|x))(w-w_{\text{MAP}})}}{\int e^{-\frac{1}{2}(w-w_{\text{MAP}})^T(-\nabla^2 \ln p(y, w_{\text{MAP}}|x))(w-w_{\text{MAP}})} dw}$$

The solution comes by observing that this is a multivariate normal,

$$p(w|x, y) \approx \text{Normal}(\mu, \Sigma),$$

where

$$\mu = w_{\text{MAP}}, \quad \Sigma = (-\nabla^2 \ln p(y, w_{\text{MAP}}|x))^{-1}$$

We can take the second derivative (Hessian) of the log joint likelihood to find

$$\nabla^2 \ln p(y, w_{\text{MAP}}|x) = -\lambda I - \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma(y_i \cdot x_i^T w_{\text{MAP}}) (1 - \sigma(y_i \cdot x_i^T w_{\text{MAP}})) x_i x_i^T$$

BAYESIAN LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Laplace approximation for logistic regression

Given labeled data $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ and the model

$$P(y_i|x_i, w) = \sigma(y_i x_i^T w), \quad w \sim N(0, \lambda^{-1} I), \quad \sigma(y_i x_i^T w) = \frac{e^{y_i x_i^T w}}{1 + e^{y_i x_i^T w}}$$

1. Find: $w_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_w \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \sigma(y_i x_i^T w_{\text{MAP}}) - \frac{\lambda}{2} w^T w$
2. Set: $-\Sigma^{-1} = -\lambda I - \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma(y_i x_i^T w_{\text{MAP}}) (1 - \sigma(y_i x_i^T w_{\text{MAP}})) x_i x_i^T$
3. Approximate: $p(w|x, y) = N(w_{\text{MAP}}, \Sigma)$.