# Lecture 4. Logistic Regression. Basis Expansion

COMP90051 Statistical Machine Learning

Semester 2, 2019 Lecturer: Ben Rubinstein



#### This lecture

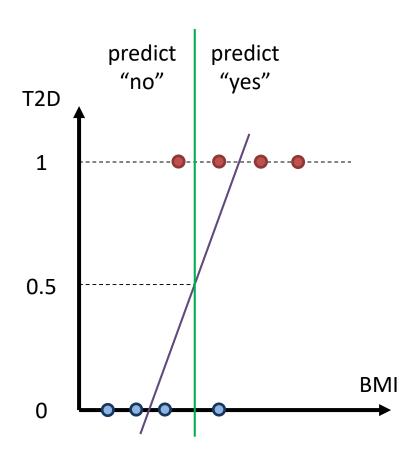
- Logistic regression
  - Workhorse of binary classification
- Basis expansion
  - \* Extending model expressiveness via data transformation
  - Examples for linear and logistic regression
  - Theoretical notes

# Logistic Regression Model

A workhorse of binary classification

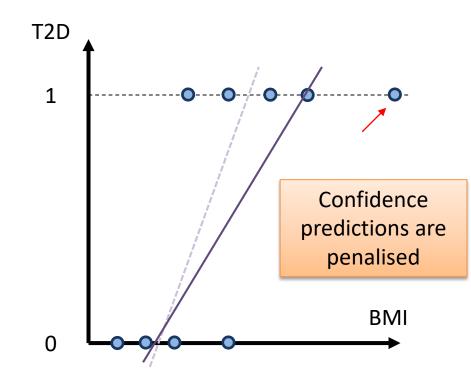
# Binary classification: Example

- <u>Example</u>: given body mass index (BMI) does a patient have type 2 diabetes (T2D)?
- This type of problem is called binary classification
- One can use linear regression
  - Fit a line/hyperplane to data (find weights w)
  - \* Denote  $s \equiv x'w$
  - \* Predict "Yes" if  $s \ge 0.5$
  - \* Predict "No" if s < 0.5



# Approaches to classification

- This approach can be susceptible to outliers
- Overall, the least-squares criterion looks unnatural in this setting
- There are many methods developed specifically with binary classification in mind
- Examples include logistic regression, perceptron, support vector machines (SVM)



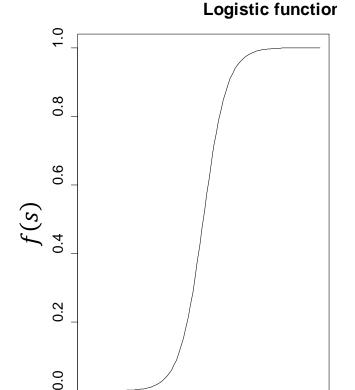
# Logistic regression model

- Probabilistic approach to classification
  - \* P(Y = 1|x) = f(x) = ?
  - \* Use a linear function? E.g., s(x) = x'w
- Problem: the probability needs to be between 0 and 1.
- Logistic function  $f(s) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-s)}$
- Logistic regression model

$$P(Y = 1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x'w)}$$

Equivalent to linear model for log-odds ratio

$$\log \frac{P(Y=1|\mathbf{x})}{P(Y=0|\mathbf{x})} = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{w}$$



-10

-5

0

ls

S

5

10

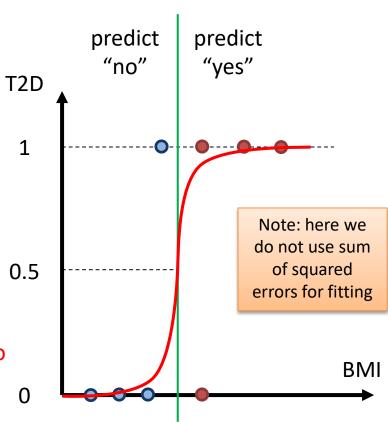
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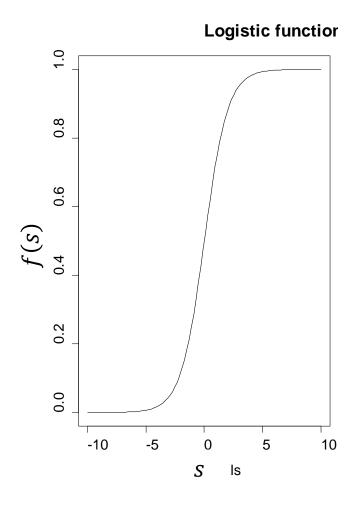
$$P(Y = 1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x'w)}$$

Equivalent to linear model for log-odds ratio

$$\log \frac{P(Y=1|x)}{P(Y=0|x)} = x'w$$



# Is logistic regression a linear method?



# Logistic regression is a linear classifier

Logistic regression model:

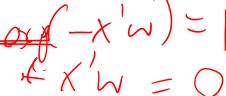
Sion model:
$$P(Y = 1 | x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x'w)}$$

WX=h

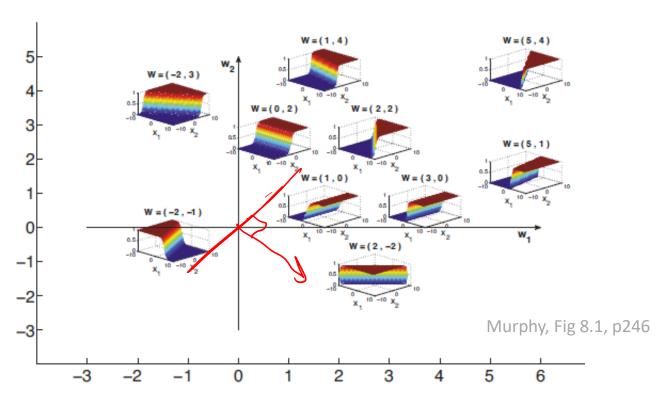
Classification rule:

if 
$$\left(P(Y=1|x) > \frac{1}{2}\right)$$
 then class "1", else class "0"

• Decision boundary  $\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x'w)} = \frac{1}{2}$ 



### Effect of parameter vector (2D problem)



- Decision boundary is the line where P(Y = 1 | x) = 0.5
  - \* In higher dimensional problems, the decision boundary is a plane or hyperplane
- Vector w is perpendicular to the decision boundary (see supplemental LMS vector slides)
  - That is, w is a normal to the decision boundary
  - Note: in this illustration we assume  $w_0 = 0$  for simplicity

# Linear vs. logistic probabilistic models

- Linear regression assumes a Normal distribution with a fixed variance and mean given by linear model  $p(y|\mathbf{x}) = Normal(\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$
- Logistic regression assumes a <u>Bernoulli distribution</u> with parameter given by logistic transform of linear model  $p(y|\mathbf{x}) = Bernoulli(\text{logistic}(\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{w}))$
- Recall that Bernoulli distribution is defined as

$$p(1) = \theta$$
 and  $p(0) = 1 - \theta$  for  $\theta \in [0,1]$ 

• Equivalently  $p(y) = \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{(1-y)}$  for  $y \in \{0,1\}$ 

#### Training as Max Likelihood Estimation

Assuming independence, probability of data

$$p(y_1, ..., y_n | \mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i)$$

Assuming Bernoulli distribution we have

$$p(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = (\theta(\mathbf{x}_i))^{y_i} (1 - \theta(\mathbf{x}_i))^{1 - y_i}$$
 where  $\theta(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\mathbf{x}_i'\mathbf{w})}$ 

Training: maximise this expression wrt weights w

#### Apply log trick, simplify

Instead of maximising likelihood, maximise its logarithm

$$\log\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$$

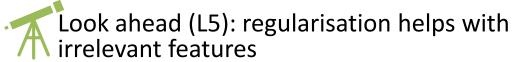
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log\left(\left(\theta(\mathbf{x}_i)\right)^{y_i} \left(1 - \theta(\mathbf{x}_i)\right)^{1 - y_i}\right)$$

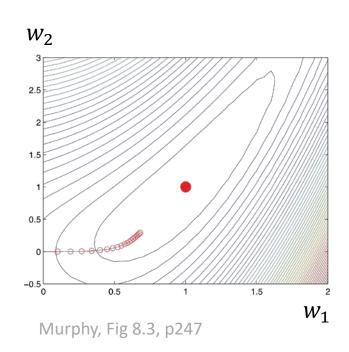
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i \log(\theta(\mathbf{x}_i)) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \theta(\mathbf{x}_i))\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left((y_i - 1)\mathbf{x}_i'\mathbf{w} - \log(1 + \exp(-\mathbf{x}_i'\mathbf{w}))\right)$$

# Iterative optimisation

- Training logistic regression amounts to finding w that maximise log-likelihood
- Analytical approach: Set derivatives of objective function to zero and solve for w
- Bad news: No closed form solution, iterative method necessary (e.g., gradient descent, Newton-Raphson, or iteratively-reweighted least squares)
- Good news: Problem is strictly convex (like a bowl) if there are no irrelevant features → optimisation guaranteed to work!





# Logistic Regression: Decision-Theoretic View

Where loss is cross entropy

#### Side note: Cross entropy

- <u>Cross entropy</u> is a method for comparing two distributions
- Cross entropy is a measure of a divergence between reference distribution  $g_{ref}(a)$  and estimated distribution  $g_{est}(a)$ . For discrete distributions:

$$H(g_{ref}, g_{est}) = -\sum_{a \in A} g_{ref}(a) \log g_{est}(a)$$

A is support of the distributions, e.g.,  $A = \{0,1\}$ 

#### Training as cross-entropy minimisation

- Consider log-likelihood for a single data point  $\log p(y_i|\mathbf{x_i}) = y_i \log(\theta(\mathbf{x_i})) + (1 y_i) \log(1 \theta(\mathbf{x_i}))$
- This expression is the negative cross entropy
- Cross entropy  $H(g_{ref}, g_{est}) = -\sum_{a} g_{ref}(a) \log g_{est}(a)$
- The reference (true) distribution is

$$g_{ref}(1) = y_i \text{ and } g_{ref}(0) = 1 - y_i$$

Logistic regression aims to estimate this distribution as

$$g_{est}(1) = \theta(\mathbf{x}_i)$$
 and  $g_{est}(0) = 1 - \theta(\mathbf{x}_i)$ 

It finds w that minimises sum of cross entropies per training pt

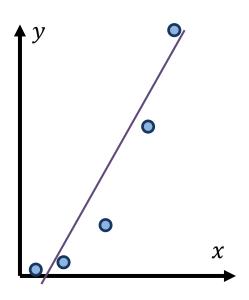
# **Basis Expansion**

Extending the utility of models via data transformation

# Basis expansion for linear regression

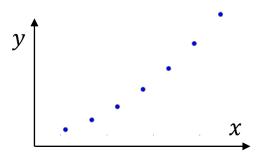
- Let's take a step back. Back to linear regression and least squares
- Real data is likely to be non-linear
- What if we still wanted to use a linear regression?
  - \* It's simple, easier to understand, computationally efficient, etc.
- How to marry non-linear data to a linear method?





#### Transform the data

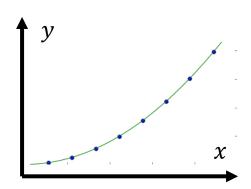
- The trick is to transform the data: Map data onto another features space, s.t. data is linear in that space
- Denote this transformation  $\varphi \colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$ . If x is the original set of features,  $\varphi(x)$  denotes new feature set
- <u>Example</u>: suppose there is just one feature x, and the data is scattered around a parabola rather than a straight line



# Example: Polynomial regression

No worries, mate: define

$$\varphi_1(x) = x$$
$$\varphi_2(x) = x^2$$



• Next, apply linear regression to  $\varphi_1$ ,  $\varphi_2$ 

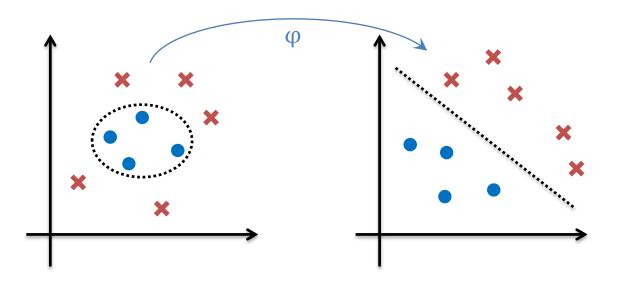
$$y = w_0 + w_1 \varphi_1(x) + w_2 \varphi_2(x) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2$$

and here you have quadratic regression

• More generally, obtain polynomial regression if the new set of attributes are powers of x

## Basis expansion

- Data transformation, also known as basis expansion, is a general technique
  - \* We'll see more examples throughout the course
- It can be applied for both regression and classification
- There are many possible choices of  $\phi$

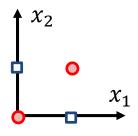


# Basis expansion for logistic regression

- Example binary classification problem: Dataset not linearly separable
- Define transformation as

$$\varphi_i(x) = ||x - z_i||$$
, where  $z_i$  some pre-defined constants

• Choose  $\mathbf{z}_1 = [0,0]'$ ,  $\mathbf{z}_2 = [0,1]'$ ,  $\mathbf{z}_3 = [1,0]'$ ,  $\mathbf{z}_4 = [1,1]'$ 



$x_1$	$x_2$	У
0	0	Class A
0	1	Class B
1	0	Class B
1	1	Class A

there exist weights that make new data separable, e.g.:

$w_1$	$W_2$	$W_3$	$W_4$
1	0	0	1

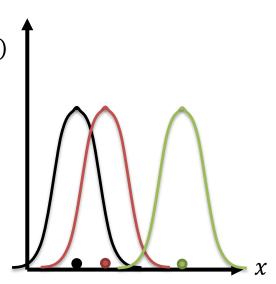
$arphi_1$	$arphi_2$	$arphi_3$	$arphi_4$
0	1	1	$\sqrt{2}$
1	0	$\sqrt{2}$	1
1	$\sqrt{2}$	0	1
$\sqrt{2}$	1	1	0

The transformed data is linearly separable!

$\boldsymbol{\varphi}' \boldsymbol{w}$	у
$\sqrt{2}$	Class A
2	Class B
2	Class B
$\sqrt{2}$	Class A

#### Radial basis functions

- The above transformation is an example of the use of radial basis functions (RBFs)
  - \* Their use has been motivated from approximation theory, where sums of RBFs are used to approximate given functions
- A radial basis function is a function of the form  $\varphi(x) = \psi(\|x z\|)$ , where z is a constant
- Examples:
- $\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\sigma}\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{z}\|^2\right)$



# Challenges of basis expansion

- Basis expansion can significantly increase the utility of methods, especially, linear methods
- In the above examples, one limitation is that the transformation needs to be defined beforehand
  - Need to choose the size of the new feature set
  - \* If using RBFs, need to choose  $z_i$
- Regarding  $z_i$ , one can choose uniformly spaced points, or cluster training data and use cluster centroids
- Another popular idea is to use training data  $oldsymbol{z}_i \equiv oldsymbol{x}_i$ 
  - \* E.g.,  $\varphi_i(x) = \psi(||x x_i||)$
  - Nowever, for large datasets, this results in a large number of features → computational hurdle



# Further directions

- There are several avenues for taking the idea of basis expansion to the next level
  - Will be covered later in this subject
- One idea is to *learn* the transformation  $\varphi$  from data
  - \* E.g., Artificial Neural Networks
- Another powerful extension is the use of the kernel trick
  - \* "Kernelised" methods, e.g., kernelised perceptron
- Finally, in sparse kernel machines, training depends only on a few data points
  - \* E.g., SVM

## Summary

- Logistic regression
  - Workhorse linear binary classifier
- Basis expansion
  - Extending model expressiveness via data transformation
  - Examples for linear and logistic regression
  - Theoretical notes

#### Next time:

regularisation for avoiding overfitting and ill-posed optimisation; with example algorithms