

Machine Learning Regression

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Based on C. Friguet's lecture.

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Introduction

Logistic model

- Bernoulli's law

- Logistic function

Logistic regression by using the gradient descent algorithm

- Recall

- For the logistic regression

- Optimisation

Recall

- Modelling the relationship between the target variable y and the explanatory variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_d
 - y is the **qualitative** (binary) variable to be explained
 - X_i are quantitative or qualitative explanatory variables
- The **linear model** is **not tailored**

Recall

- Modelling the relationship between the target variable y and the explanatory variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_d
 - y is the **qualitative** (binary) variable to be explained
 - X_i are quantitative or qualitative explanatory variables
- The **linear model** is **not tailored** because the variable y is not **quantitative**!

Example B

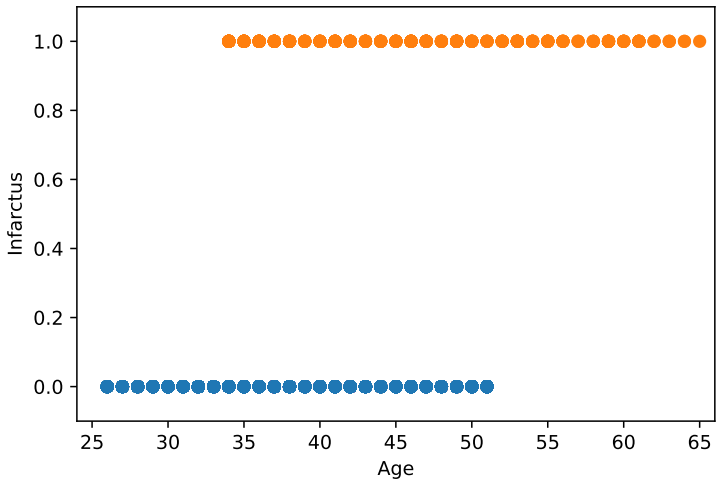
We want to evaluate the risk of myocardial infarction (heart attack) on women from a case-study. The collected factors are: taking contraceptive, age, weight, smoking, high blood pressure, a family history of cardiovascular disease, *etc.*

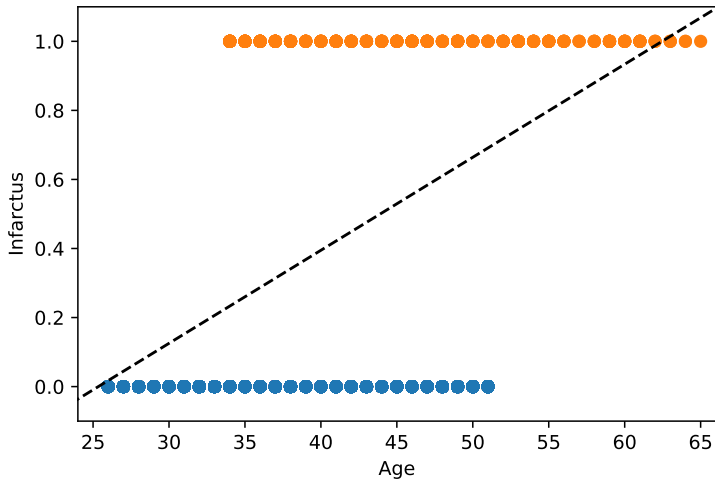
Data subset:

Infarction	Taking contraceptive	Age	Weight	...
no	no	47	48	...
no	no	35	53	...
no	yes	62	41	...
yes	yes	47	45	...
yes	yes	63
yes	no	45	69	...
yes	no	90	84	...
.
.
.

Data from Institut de Santé Publique, d'Epidémiologie et de Développement (ISPED), Bordeaux

Source: <http://www.biostatisticien.eu/springerR/jeuxDonnees5.html>





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Adjustment

- we do not modelled Y by a linear relationship
- we look at the probabilities: $\mathbf{P}(Y = 0|X = x)$ and $\mathbf{P}(Y = 1|X = x)$
- the knowledge of $\mathbf{P}(Y = 1|X = x)$ induces the knowledge of $\mathbf{P}(Y = 0|X = x)$ because

Adjustment

- we do not modelled Y by a linear relationship
- we look at the probabilities: $\mathbf{P}(Y = 0|X = x)$ and $\mathbf{P}(Y = 1|X = x)$
- the knowledge of $\mathbf{P}(Y = 1|X = x)$ induces the knowledge of $\mathbf{P}(Y = 0|X = x)$ because $\mathbf{P}(Y = 0|X = x) = 1 - \mathbf{P}(Y = 1|X = x)$

Bernoulli's law

Let us write out

$$\mathbf{P}(Y = 1|X = x) = \pi(x)$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}(Y = 0|X = x) = 1 - \pi(x),$$

where $\pi(x) \in [0, 1]$.

We can model Y by

$$Y|X = x \sim \mathcal{B}(\pi(x))$$

(Bernoulli's law)

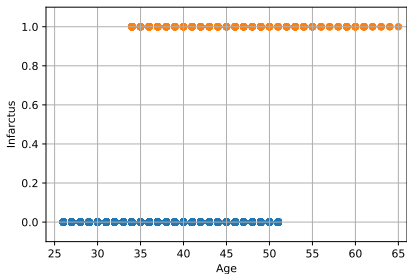
Properties (Bernoulli's law)

$$\mathbf{P}(Y = y|X = x) = \pi(x)^y (1 - \pi(x))^{1-y}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|X = x) = \pi(x) \quad \text{Var}(Y|X = x) = \pi(x)(1 - \pi(x))$$

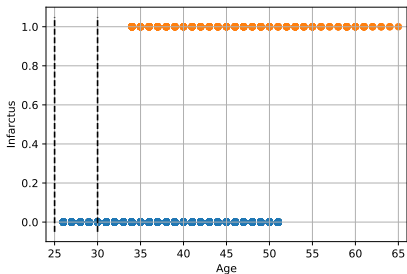
- Estimation of $\pi(x)$: $\hat{\pi}(x)$ = proportion of $Y = 1$ for X divided into categories

categ.	n_c	#0	#1	$\hat{\pi}(x)$



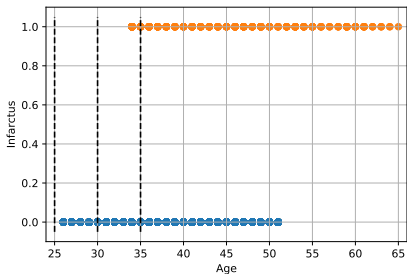
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[25,30]	454	454	0	0.00



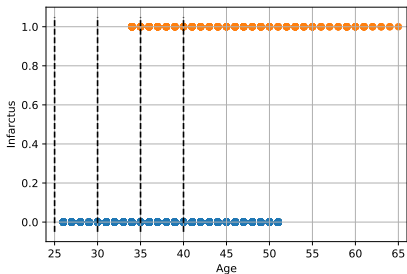
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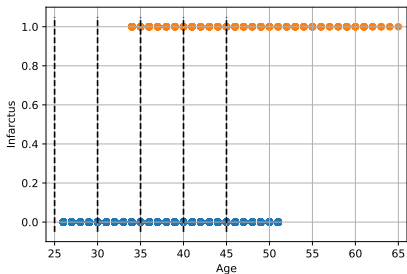
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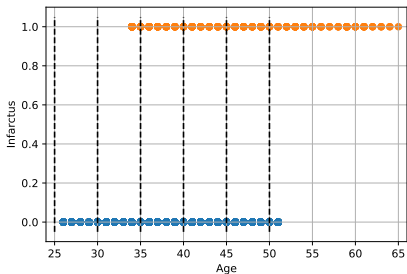
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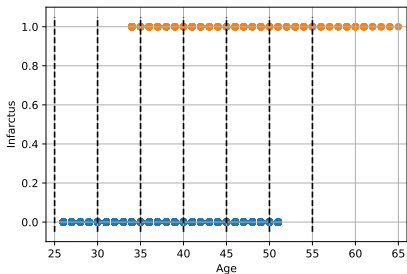
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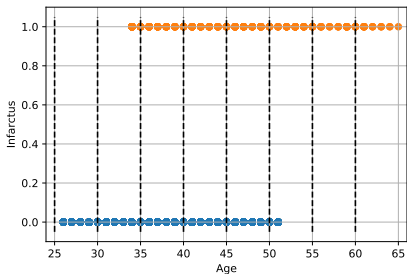
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(50,55]	134	30	104	0.78



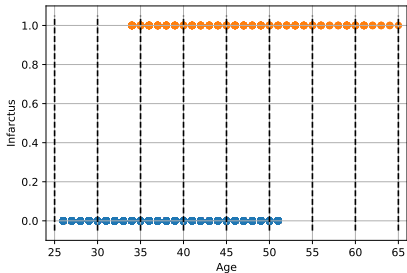
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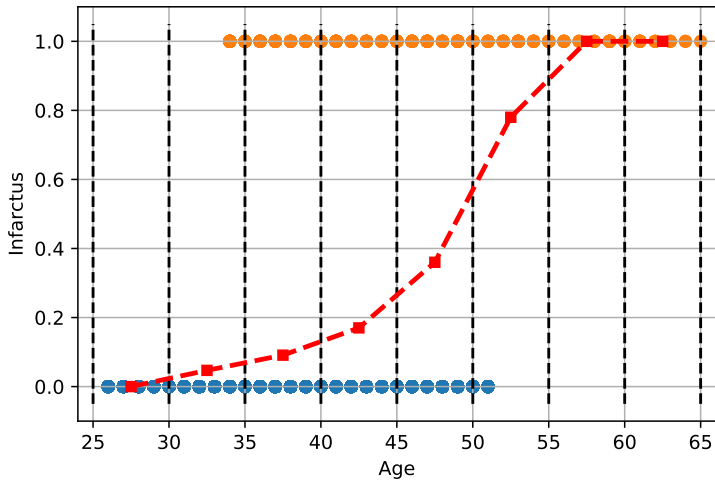
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(45,50]	554	355	199	0.36
(50,55]	134	30	104	0.78
(55,60]	33	0	33	1.00



- Estimation of $\pi(x)$: $\hat{\pi}(x)$ = proportion of $Y = 1$ for X divided into categories

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(55,60]	33	0	33	1.00
(60,65]	17	0	17	1.00





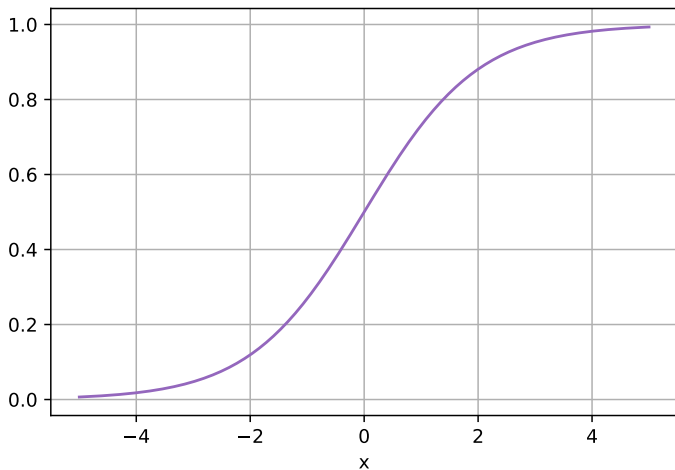
- $\pi(x)$ is not a linear function of x !
- We rather want to model $\pi(x)$ by a function with a "S" shape \Rightarrow one possibility is the logistic function

Logistic function

$$s : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow]0, 1[$$
$$x \rightarrow s(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

It is a specific case of the sigmoid function.

Logistic function



Shape of the function curve (more general)

$$s : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow]0, 1[$$

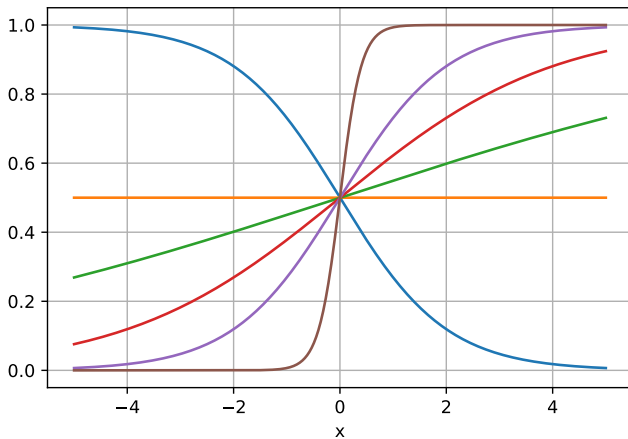
$$x \mapsto s(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x\beta}} = \frac{e^{x\beta}}{1 + e^{x\beta}}$$

for several β values

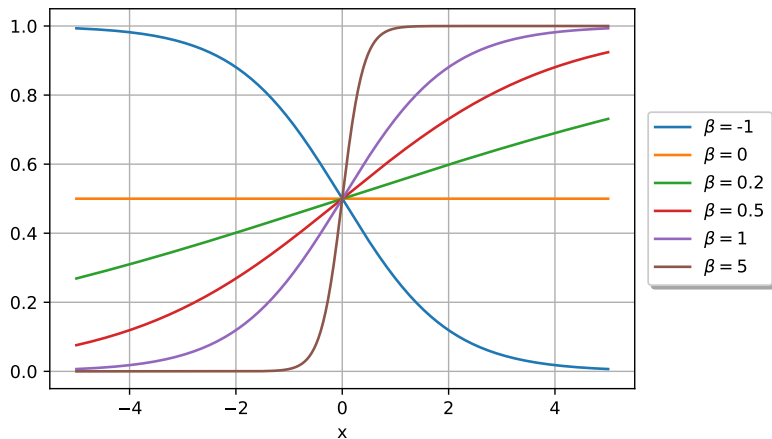
- $\beta = 0 \Rightarrow$ constant function
- "small" β values \Rightarrow wide range of x values for which the function is around 0.5 \Rightarrow difficult discrimination
- "big" β values \Rightarrow small range of x values for which the function is around 0.5 \Rightarrow easier discrimination

⚠ It depends on the scale of x !

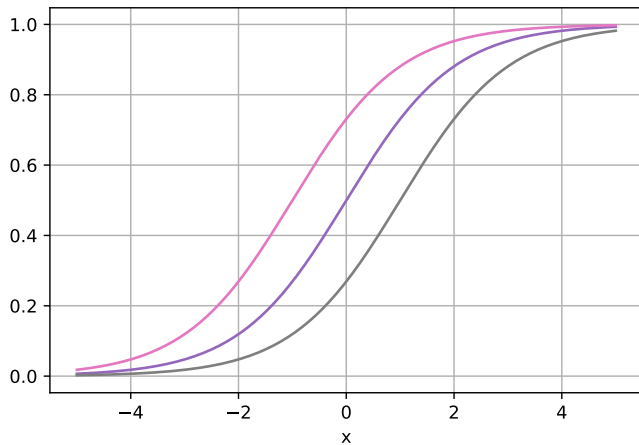
Logistic function



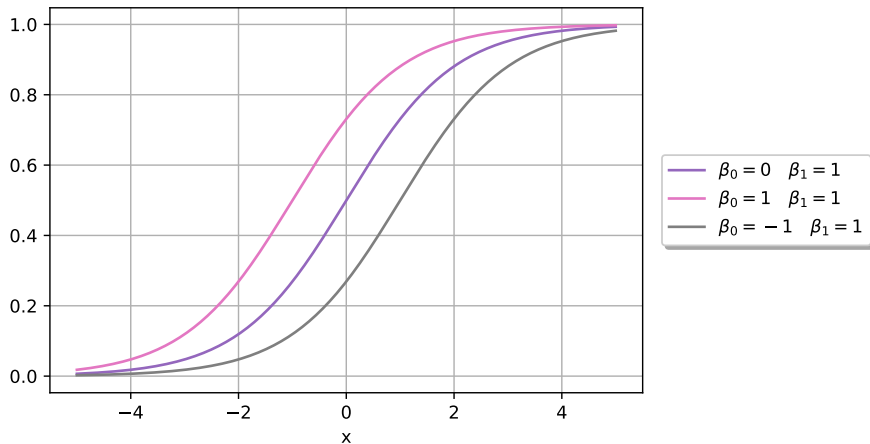
Logistic function



Logistic function



Logistic function



Logistic model

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{e^{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}\boldsymbol{\beta}}}{1 + e^{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}\boldsymbol{\beta}}} = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_d x_d}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_d x_d}} \\ &\quad \Updownarrow \\ \text{logit}(\pi(\mathbf{x})) &= \log\left(\frac{\pi(\mathbf{x})}{1 - \pi(\mathbf{x})}\right) = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_d x_d\end{aligned}$$

- Transformation g that creates a linear link between $g(\pi(\mathbf{x}))$ and \mathbf{x} : **link function**

Logit function

$$\begin{aligned}\text{logit} &:]0, 1[\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ p &\rightarrow \text{logit}(p) = \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)\end{aligned}$$

- Let us write out:

$$f_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{e^{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i \beta}}{1 + e^{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i \beta}} = \mathbb{P}(Y = 1 | X = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i)$$

- We want β such that $f_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is as close as possible to y_i for all the training data $\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$ where $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$

- Model likelihood:

$$L(\beta, y) = \prod_{i=1}^m \mathbf{P}(Y = y_i | X = \mathbf{x}_i) = \prod_{i=1}^m f_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_i)^{y_i} \times (1 - f_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_i))^{1-y_i}$$

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- Log-likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta, y) = \sum_{i=1}^m \left[y_i \log(f_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_i)) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - f_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_i)) \right]$$

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- Maximisation of (log-)likelihood
 \Rightarrow cancel the derivatives of $L(\beta, y)$
 - **no explicit analytical solution**
 - there is a need for **optimisation iterative algorithms**

- **Objective:** find the best β to minimise the global (quadratic) cost:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \left(J(\beta) \right)$$

where

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

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Optimisation

- Objective: find the minimum of the cost-function
- Principle: iterative algorithm
 1. initialisation: $\beta^{(0)}$
 2. at each step k , change the $\beta^{(k-1)}$ value to decrease $J(\beta^{(k)})$
 3. stop the process when a minimum is reached

Iteration k of the gradient descent algorithm

For the β_j parameter

$$\beta_j^{(k)} := \beta_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} J(\beta^{(k-1)})$$

where:

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j}$:
- α :

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For the β_j parameter

$$\beta_j^{(k)} := \beta_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} J(\beta^{(k-1)})$$

where:

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j}$: partial derivatives
- α : learning rate (hyperparameter to be determined by the user)

- Iteration k of the gradient descent algorithm?

Iteration k of the gradient descent algorithm - logistic regression

$$\beta_j^{(k)} := \beta_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(f_{\beta^{(k-1)}}(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i \right) x_{ij}$$

Note: $\forall i, x_{i0} = 1$

- Iteration k of the gradient descent algorithm?
- Same formula than for the linear regression...

Iteration k of the gradient descent algorithm - logistic regression

$$\beta_j^{(k)} := \beta_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(f_{\beta^{(k-1)}}(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i \right) x_{ij}$$

Note: $\forall i, x_{i0} = 1$

There are more advanced versions of the gradient descent algorithm:

- conjugated gradient, BFGS¹, (limited-memory) L-BFGS
 - no need to fix α (it is done automatically by the algorithm)
 - faster (it requires less iterations) than the classical gradient descent algorithm
 - **but** more complex to implement (these variants are available in most of the software/programming languages)

¹Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno