Logistic Regression



Logistic Regression

Binary Classification

- Given an instance x, we must classify it to either positive (1) or negative (0) class.
 - We can use $\{1, -1\}$ instead of $\{1, 0\}$
 - (but we will use 1, 0 as it simplifies the notation in subsequent derivations)
- Binary classification can be seen as learning a function f such that f(x) returns either 1 or 0 indicating the predicted class.

Logistic Regression 2 / 3

Some terms in Machine Learning

- Training dataset with N instances
 - $\{(x_1,t_1),...,(x_N,t_N)\}$ This can also be written as $\{(x_n,t_n)\}_{n=1}^N$
- Target label (class)
 - t: The class labels in the training dataset
 - Annotated by humans (supervised learning)
- Predicted label
 - Labels predicted by our model f(x)

◆□▶◆□▶◆■▶◆■▶ ■ からで 3

From Naive Bayes to Logistic Regression

- Recall Naive Bayes Classifier
 - Predict:

$$\hat{Y} = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(\mathbf{X} \mid Y) = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(\mathbf{X} \mid Y) P(Y)$$

• We use independence assumption:

$$P(X \mid Y) = P(X_1, X_2, ... X_m \mid Y) P(Y) = \prod_{i=1}^m P(X_i \mid Y)$$

• Can we model $P(Y \mid \mathbf{X})$ directly?



Logistic Regression 4/3

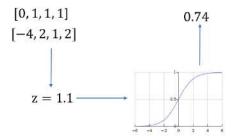
From Naive Bayes to Logistic Regression

- Can we model $P(Y \mid \mathbf{X})$ directly?
 - We use logistic regression model to achieve this
 - Given X, **W** we compute $P(Y = 1 \mid X)$

Logistic Regression 5 / 37

From Naive Bayes to Logistic Regression

- Can we model $P(Y \mid \mathbf{X})$ directly?
 - We use logistic regression model to achieve this
 - Given X, **W** we compute $P(Y = 1 \mid X)$



Logistic Regression 6 / 37

Generative vs. Discriminative Classifier



Generative

- goal of understanding how dogs look and cats look
- model can 'generate' (draw) a dog
- given a test image, choose the closest model as 'label'



Discriminative

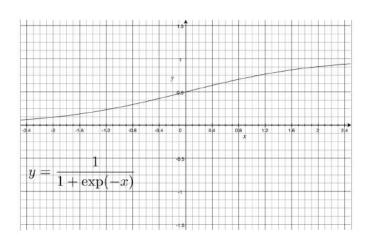
- trying to learn to distinguish the classes (not learning much about them)
- If one feature neatly separates the classes, the model is satisfied.
- e.g., dogs wearing collars and cat aren't

Logistic Regression

- is not a regression model
- is a classification model
- is a **Discriminative** classifier and not a **Generative** classifier
- is the basis of many advanced machine learning methods
 - neural networks, deep learning, conditional random fields,
- try to fit a logistic Sigmoid function to predict the class labels

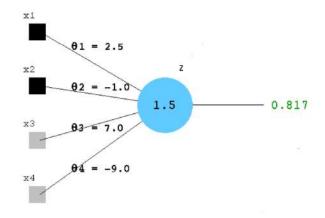
8 / 37

Logistic Sigmoid Function



Logistic Regression 9 / 37

Logistic Regression Example



How to find Parameters of the Model

- In logistic regression, given \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{w} we compute $P(Y = y \mid \mathbf{x})$
- How to compute **w**?

- Maximum Likelihood Estimate/Principle (MLE): parameter estimation method to find parameters of the model
- The parameter values are found such that the values maximise the *likelihood* of making the observations given the parameters.

- Consider a bag containing 3 balls.
- Each ball is either red or blue (we have no other information)
- number of blue balls (θ) might be 0, 1, 2, or 3
- we are allowed to choose 4 balls at random with replacement.
- the random variables X_1, X_2, X_3 and X_4 are defined as follows:

$$X_i = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & ext{if the ith chosen ball is blue} \ 0 & ext{if the ith chosen ball is red} \end{array}
ight.$$

→ **()** → **()**

- X_i 's are i.i.d and $X_i \sim Bernoulli(\frac{\theta}{3})$.
- let us say the following values for X_i 's are observed:

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 1, x_4 = 1$$

- Given the above:
 - For each possible value of θ , can we compute the probability of the observed sample
 - Can we find the value of θ for which the probability of the observed sample is the largest?

Logistic Regression 13 / 37

• Since $X_i \sim Bernoull(\frac{\theta}{3})$, we have:

$$P_{X_i}(x) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{ heta}{3} & ext{for } x=1 \ & & & & & & \ 1 - rac{ heta}{3} & ext{for } x=0 \end{array}
ight.$$

• Since X_i 's are independent, the joint PMF of X_1, X_2, X_3 and X_4 , can be written as:

$$P_{X_1X_2X_3X_4}(x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4) = P_{X_1}(x_1)P_{X_2}(x_2)P_{X_3}(x_3)P_{X_4}(x_4) \\$$

◆ロト ◆卸 ト ◆ 恵 ト ◆ 恵 ・ 夕 Q ② 14

Logistic Regression 14 / 37

Thus:

$$P_{X_1X_2X_3X_4}(1,0,1,1) = \frac{\theta}{3} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\theta}{3}\right) \cdot \frac{\theta}{3} \cdot \frac{\theta}{3}$$
$$= \left(\frac{\theta}{3}\right)^3 \left(1 - \frac{\theta}{3}\right).$$

θ	$P_{X_1X_2X_3X_4}(1,0,1,1; heta)$
0	0
1	0.0247
2	0.0988
3	0

Logistic Regression

Log Likelihood

- Parameters of logistic regression model are chosen using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method.
- There are two steps:
 - write the log-likelihood function (define cross entropy function)
 - find the values of w that maximise the log-likelihood function

16 / 37

Logistic Regression

Logistic Regression Model

• for an individual training instance (\mathbf{x}_i, t_i) :

$$P(t_i = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = y_i = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{(-\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i)}}$$

 $P(t_i = 0 \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = 1 - y_i$

• using the equation form of the PMF of Bernoulli distribution, where $t_n \in \{0,1\}$, the probability of a single instance can be written as:

$$P(t_i = t \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = y_i^{t_i} \{1 - y_i\}^{(1-t_i)}$$

Logistic Regression 17 / 3

Likelihood

• for a dataset $\{x_n, t_n\}$, where where $t_n \in \{0, 1\}$, with n = 1, ..., N, the likelihood function can be written as:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = P(\mathbf{t} \mid \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} y_n^{t_n} \{1 - y_n\}^{(1-t_n)}$$

where $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_N)^{\top}$ and $y_n = p(t_n = 1 \mid x_n)$



Logistic Regression 18 / 37

Cross Entropy

• define a negative logarithm of the likelihood to get cross entropy error function E(w):

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} y_n^{t_n} \{1 - y_n\}^{(1-t_n)}$$

$$LL(\mathbf{w}) = E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n \ln y_n + (1-t_n) \ln(1-y_n)\}$$

Logistic Regression 19 / 37

• differentiating E(w) w.r.t **w**, we get the gradient $\nabla E(w)$:

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n \ln y_n + (1 - t_n) \ln(1 - y_n) \right\}$$

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n \frac{1}{y_n} \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} + (1 - t_n) \frac{1}{1 - y_n} \left(-\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} \right) \right\}$$

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ \frac{t_n}{y_n} - \frac{1 - t_n}{1 - y_n} \right\} \left(\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} \right)$$

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ \frac{t_n(1 - y_n) - (1 - t_n)y_n}{y_n(1 - y_n)} \right\} \left(\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} \right)$$

20 / 37

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ \frac{t_n(1-y_n) - (1-t_n)y_n}{y_n(1-y_n)} \right\} \left(\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} \right)$$

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ \frac{(t_n - y_n)}{y_n (1 - y_n)} \right\} \left(\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} \right) \tag{1}$$

Logistic Regression 21 / 37

• differentiating y_n w.r.t **w**:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \left\{ \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \right\} \\ \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} &= \frac{(1 + \exp^{-wx_n}) \frac{\partial (1)}{\partial w} - 1 \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (1 + \exp^{-wx_n})}{(1 + \exp^{-wx_n})^2} \\ \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} &= \frac{-(\exp^{-wx_n}) (-x_n)}{(1 + \exp^{-wx_n})^2} \\ \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \frac{\exp^{-wx_n} x_n}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \end{split}$$

Logistic Regression 22 / 37

• differentiating y_n w.r.t **w**:

$$\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \frac{\exp^{-wx_n} x_n}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}}$$

$$\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \frac{(1 + \exp^{-wx_n}) - 1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} x_n$$

$$\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \left(\frac{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} - \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}}\right) x_n$$

$$\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-wx_n}}\right) x_n$$

$$\frac{\partial y_n}{\partial w} = y_n (1 - y_n) x_n$$
(2)

Logistic Regression 23 / 37

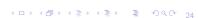
• Substituting (2) in (1), we get:

$$abla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ \frac{(t_n - y_n)}{y_n(1 - y_n)} \right\} y_n(1 - y_n) x_n$$

Simplifying further:

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - y_n) x_n$$

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - t_n) x_n$$
 (3)



24 / 37

Logistic Regression

Updating the weight vector

Generic update rule

$$\mathbf{w}^{(r+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(r)} - \eta \nabla E(\mathbf{w})$$

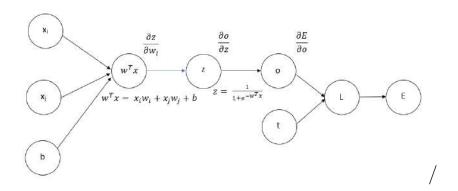
Update rule with cross-entropy error function

$$\mathbf{w}^{(r+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(r)} - \eta(y_n - t_n)\mathbf{x}_n$$

• the contribution of the gradient from a data point n is given by the error $(y_n - t_n)$ times the feature vector \mathbf{x}_n

Logistic Regression 25 / 37

Updating Weight Vector



Logistic Regression

Logistic Regression Algorithm

- Given a set of training instances $\{(x_1, t_1), \dots, (x_N, t_N)\}$, learning rate (η) and iterations T:
- ullet Initialise weight vector ${f w}={f 0}$
- For j in 1, ..., *T*
 - for n in 1, . . . , *N*
 - if $pred(\mathbf{x}_i \neq t_i)$ #misclassification
 - $\mathbf{w}^{(r+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(r)} \eta(y_n t_n)\mathbf{x}_n$
- Return the final weight vector w

Prediction Function (pred)

- Given the weight vector w, returns the class label for an instance x
 - if w^Tx > 0:
 - predicted label = +1 # positive class
 - else:
 - predicted label = 0 # negative class

Logistic Regression 28 / 3

Online vs. Batch

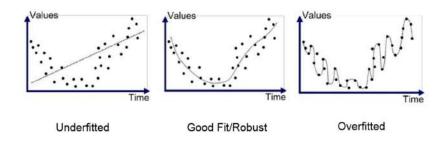
- Online vs. Batch Logistic Regression
 - The algorithm we discussed in the previous slides is an online algorithm because it considers only one instance at a time and updates the weight vector
 - Referred to as the Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) update
 - In the batch version, we will compute the cross-entropy error over the entire training dataset and then update the weight vector
 - Popular optimisation algorithm for the batch learning of logistic regression is the Limited Memory BFGS (L-BFGS) algorithm
- Batch version is slow compared to the SGD version. But shows slightly improved accuracies in many cases
- SGD version can require multiple iterations over the dataset before it converges (if ever)
- SGD is a technique that is frequently used with large scale machine learning tasks (even when the objective function is non-convex)

<□ ▶ < ② ▶ < ≧ ▶ < ≧ ▶ ○ ≥ ◆ ♀ ♀ 29

Logistic Regression 29 / 37

Regularisation

Overfitting



30 / 37

Logistic Regression

Regularisation

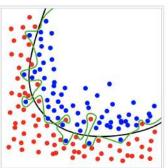


Figure 1. The green line represents an overfitted model and the black line represents a regularized model. While the green line best follows the training data, it is too dependent on that data and it is likely to have a higher error rate on new unseen data, compared to the black line.

How to reduce overfitting?

Without adding any regularisation

- Train on more data
- Data augmentation
- Early stopping

stop training when validation error starts increasing or validation error stops improving

Logistic Regression 32 / 37

Regularisation

- Regularisation
 - Reducing overfitting in a model by constraining it (reducing the complexity/no. of parameters)
 - For classifiers that use a weight vector, regularisation can be done by minimising the norm (length) of the weight vector.
 - Several popular regularisation methods exist
 - L2 regularisation (ridge regression or Tikhonov regularisation)
 - L1 regularisation (Lasso regression)
 - L1+L2 regularisation (mixed regularisation)

□ > ◆ @ > ◆ ≧ > ◆ ≧ > ○ Q © 33

Logistic Regression 33 / 37

L2 Regularisation

- Let us denote the Loss of classifying a dataset D using a model represented by a weight vector w by L(D,w) and we would like to impose L2 regularisation on w.
- The overall objective to minimise can then be written as follows (here λ is called the regularisation coefficient and is set via cross-validation)

$$J(D, \boldsymbol{w}) = L(D, \boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_2^2$$

 The gradient of the overall objective simply becomes the addition of the loss-gradient and the scaled weight vector w.

$$\frac{\partial J(D, \boldsymbol{w})}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} = \frac{\partial L(D, \boldsymbol{w})}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} + 2\lambda \boldsymbol{w}$$

Logistic Regression 34 / 3

Examples

- Note that SGD update for minimising a loss multiplies the loss gradient by a negative learning rate (η). Therefore, the L2 regularised update rules will have a -2ηλw term as shown in the following examples
- L2 regularised Perceptron update (for a misclassified instance we do)

$$w^{(k+1)} = w^{(k)} + tx - 2\lambda w^{(k)}$$

L2 regularised logistic regression

$$\mathbf{w}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(k)} - \eta((y-t)\mathbf{x} + 2\lambda\mathbf{w}^{(k)})$$

= $(1 - 2\lambda\eta)\mathbf{w}^{(k)} - \eta(y-t)\mathbf{x}$

Logistic Regression 35 / 37

How to set λ

- Split your training dataset into training and validation parts (eg. 80%-20%)
- Try different values for λ (typically in the logarithmic scale). Train a different classification model for each λ and select the value that gives the best performance (eg. accuracy) on the validation data.
 - $\lambda = 10^{-5}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, 1, 0, 10^{1}, 10^{2}, 10^{3}, 10^{4}, 10^{5}$

◆ロト ◆母ト ◆量ト ◆量ト ■ からで 36

Logistic Regression 36 / 37

References

- Bishop (Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning)
 Section 4.3.2
- Software
 - Scikit-learn (Python)
 - https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated /sklearn.linear_model.LogisticRegression.html

Logistic Regression 37 / 37