

# Logistic Regression: From Theory to Decision Boundaries

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## Introduction

This document explores logistic regression, a fundamental classification algorithm in machine learning:

- **From Linear to Logistic Regression:** We explain why linear regression fails for classification and motivate the need for a different approach.
- **The Sigmoid Function:** We introduce the sigmoid (logistic) function and explain how it transforms outputs into probabilities.
- **The Decision Boundary:** We derive the decision boundary that separates classes in feature space.
- **Binary Cross-Entropy Loss:** We explain why we use log-loss instead of mean squared error.
- **Gradient Descent for Logistic Regression:** We derive the update rules for optimizing the model.
- **Worked Example:** We train a logistic regression classifier on a simple 2D dataset.

## From Linear to Logistic Regression

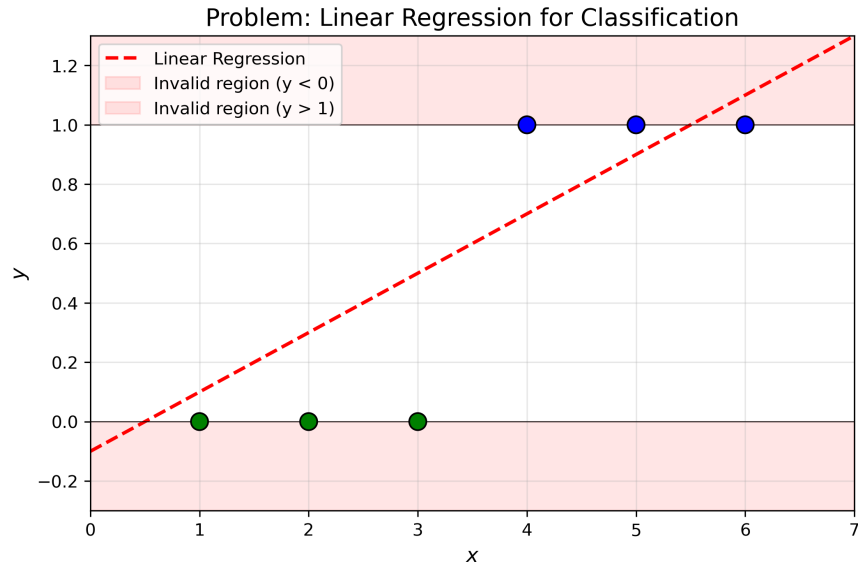
In **linear regression**, we predict a continuous output:

$$\hat{y} = w \cdot x + b.$$

However, in **classification**, we want to predict a discrete label (e.g., 0 or 1). If we use linear regression directly, the output could be any value from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ . This is problematic because:

- Probabilities must lie in  $[0, 1]$ .

- A prediction of  $\hat{y} = 2.5$  or  $\hat{y} = -0.3$  has no clear interpretation.
- Mean squared error with a linear model creates a non-convex optimization landscape.



The figure above illustrates the problem: a linear fit can produce values outside the valid range  $[0, 1]$ .

## The Solution: Logistic Regression

Instead of directly predicting  $y$ , we pass the linear combination  $z = w \cdot x + b$  through a **sigmoid function** that squashes the output to  $(0, 1)$ .

## The Sigmoid Function

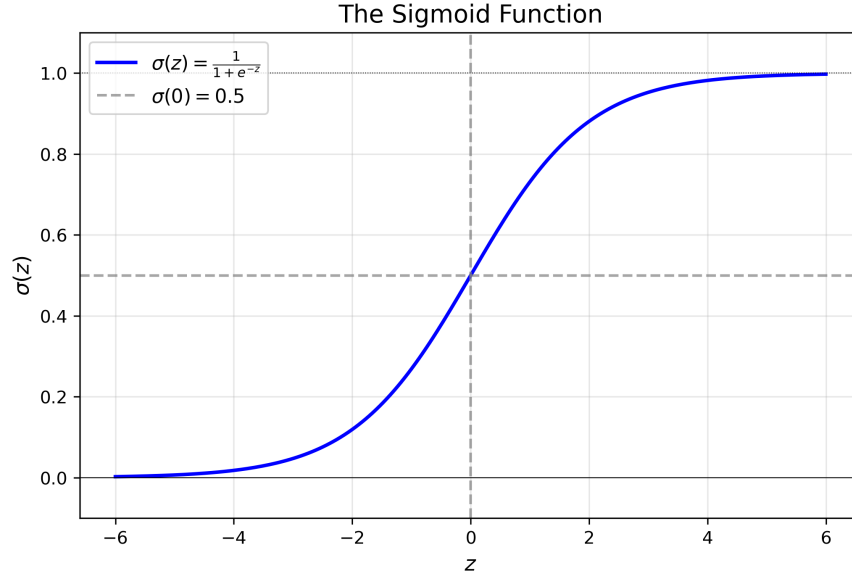
The **sigmoid function** (also called the logistic function) is defined as:

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

## Key Properties

1. **Range:** The output is always in  $(0, 1)$ , making it interpretable as a probability.
2. **Center:** When  $z = 0$ , we have  $\sigma(0) = \frac{1}{1+1} = 0.5$ .
3. **Asymptotic behavior:**
  - As  $z \rightarrow +\infty$ ,  $\sigma(z) \rightarrow 1$ .
  - As  $z \rightarrow -\infty$ ,  $\sigma(z) \rightarrow 0$ .

4. **Smooth and differentiable:** This is essential for gradient-based optimization.



## The Logistic Regression Model

Combining the linear function with the sigmoid, the logistic regression model is:

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(w \cdot x + b) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w \cdot x + b)}}.$$

The output  $\hat{y}$  is interpreted as  $P(y = 1 \mid x)$ , the probability that the input  $x$  belongs to class 1.

## The Decision Boundary

To make a final classification, we apply a **threshold** (typically 0.5):

- If  $\hat{y} \geq 0.5$ , predict class 1.
- If  $\hat{y} < 0.5$ , predict class 0.

## Deriving the Boundary

The threshold  $\hat{y} = 0.5$  occurs when  $\sigma(z) = 0.5$ , which happens when  $z = 0$ .

For a two-dimensional input  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  with weights  $w = (w_1, w_2)$  and bias  $b$ :

$$z = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + b = 0.$$

Solving for  $x_2$ :

$$x_2 = -\frac{w_1}{w_2} x_1 - \frac{b}{w_2}.$$

This is a **linear equation** of the form  $x_2 = m x_1 + c$ , where:

- Slope:  $m = -\frac{w_1}{w_2}$
- Intercept:  $c = -\frac{b}{w_2}$

The decision boundary is therefore a straight line in 2D (or a hyperplane in higher dimensions).

## Binary Cross-Entropy Loss

### Why Not Mean Squared Error?

For linear regression, we minimize the mean squared error (MSE). However, MSE is problematic for logistic regression:

1. **Non-convexity:** When combined with the sigmoid, MSE creates a cost surface with many local minima.
2. **Weak gradients:** When the prediction is far from the target, the sigmoid saturates and gradients become very small.

### The Log-Loss Function

Instead, we use **Binary Cross-Entropy** (also called log-loss):

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

### Intuition

- When  $y_i = 1$ : The cost is  $-\log(\hat{y}_i)$ . If  $\hat{y}_i \approx 1$ , cost  $\approx 0$ . If  $\hat{y}_i \approx 0$ , cost  $\rightarrow \infty$ .
- When  $y_i = 0$ : The cost is  $-\log(1 - \hat{y}_i)$ . If  $\hat{y}_i \approx 0$ , cost  $\approx 0$ . If  $\hat{y}_i \approx 1$ , cost  $\rightarrow \infty$ .

This function heavily penalizes “confident and wrong” predictions, which is exactly what we want.

### Convexity

A key advantage of binary cross-entropy is that it is **convex** when used with the sigmoid function, guaranteeing a unique global minimum.

## Gradient Descent for Logistic Regression

To minimize the cost function, we use gradient descent.

## Computing the Gradients

The gradients of  $J(w, b)$  with respect to the parameters are:

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

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

Note: These have the same form as linear regression gradients, but  $\hat{y}_i = \sigma(w \cdot x_i + b)$  instead of a linear prediction.

## Update Rules

At each iteration, we update the parameters:

$$w := w - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = w - \frac{\alpha}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}_i - y_i) x_i,$$

$$b := b - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = b - \frac{\alpha}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}_i - y_i),$$

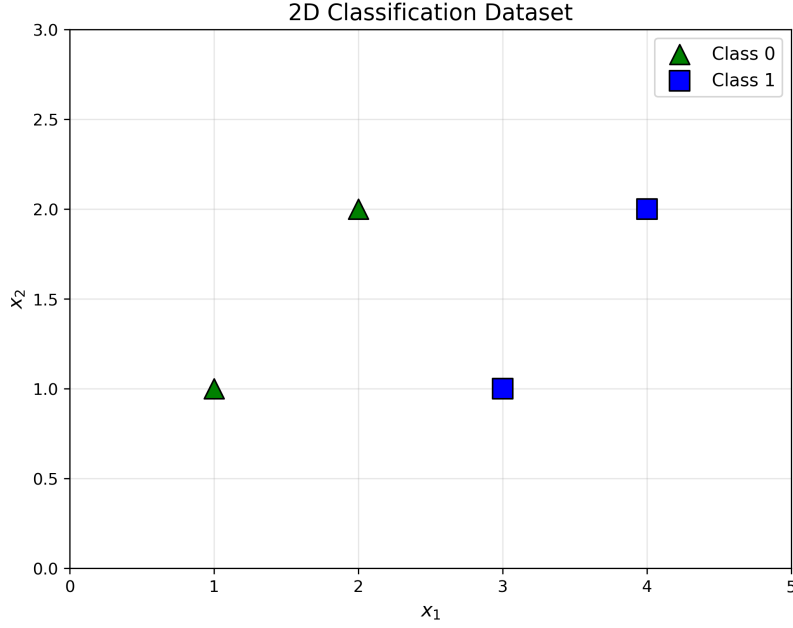
where  $\alpha$  is the learning rate.

## Worked Example: 2D Classification

We now apply logistic regression to a simple 2D dataset with 4 data points.

### 1. The Dataset

Point	$x_1$	$x_2$	$y$ (class)
1	1	1	0
2	2	2	0
3	3	1	1
4	4	2	1



## 2. Model Setup

Our model is:

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b).$$

We initialize:

- Weights:  $w_1 = 0, w_2 = 0$
- Bias:  $b = 0$
- Learning rate:  $\alpha = 0.5$

## 3. Initial State (Iteration 0)

With  $w = (0, 0)$  and  $b = 0$ , for any input  $x$ :

$$z = 0 \cdot x_1 + 0 \cdot x_2 + 0 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \hat{y} = \sigma(0) = 0.5.$$

All predictions are 0.5, meaning the model has no discriminative power yet.

The initial cost is:

$$J = -\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^4 [y_i \log(0.5) + (1 - y_i) \log(0.5)] = -\log(0.5) = \ln(2) \approx 0.693.$$

## 4. First Gradient Descent Step

Compute the gradients. Since  $\hat{y}_i = 0.5$  for all points and the true labels are  $y = (0, 0, 1, 1)$ :

$$\hat{y}_i - y_i = (0.5 - 0, 0.5 - 0, 0.5 - 1, 0.5 - 1) = (0.5, 0.5, -0.5, -0.5).$$

**Gradient for  $w_1$ :**

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial J}{\partial w_1} &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^4 (\hat{y}_i - y_i) x_{i,1} = \frac{1}{4} [0.5(1) + 0.5(2) + (-0.5)(3) + (-0.5)(4)] \\ &= \frac{1}{4} [0.5 + 1 - 1.5 - 2] = \frac{-2}{4} = -0.5.\end{aligned}$$

**Gradient for  $w_2$ :**

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial J}{\partial w_2} &= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^4 (\hat{y}_i - y_i) x_{i,2} = \frac{1}{4} [0.5(1) + 0.5(2) + (-0.5)(1) + (-0.5)(2)] \\ &= \frac{1}{4} [0.5 + 1 - 0.5 - 1] = 0.\end{aligned}$$

**Gradient for  $b$ :**

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{4} [0.5 + 0.5 - 0.5 - 0.5] = 0.$$

**Update parameters:**

$$w_1 := 0 - 0.5 \cdot (-0.5) = 0.25,$$

$$w_2 := 0 - 0.5 \cdot 0 = 0,$$

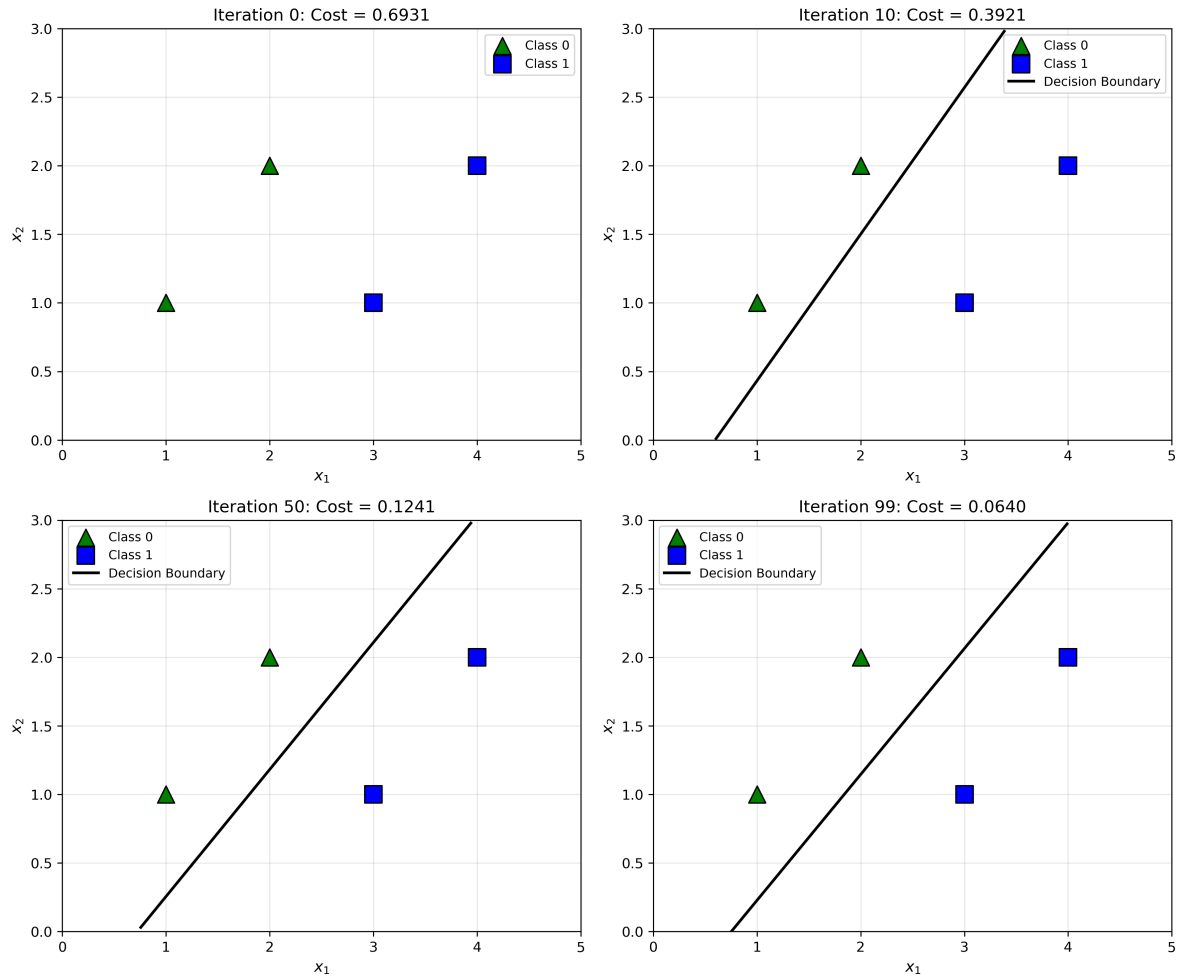
$$b := 0 - 0.5 \cdot 0 = 0.$$

After iteration 1:  $w = (0.25, 0)$ ,  $b = 0$ , Cost  $\approx 0.625$ .

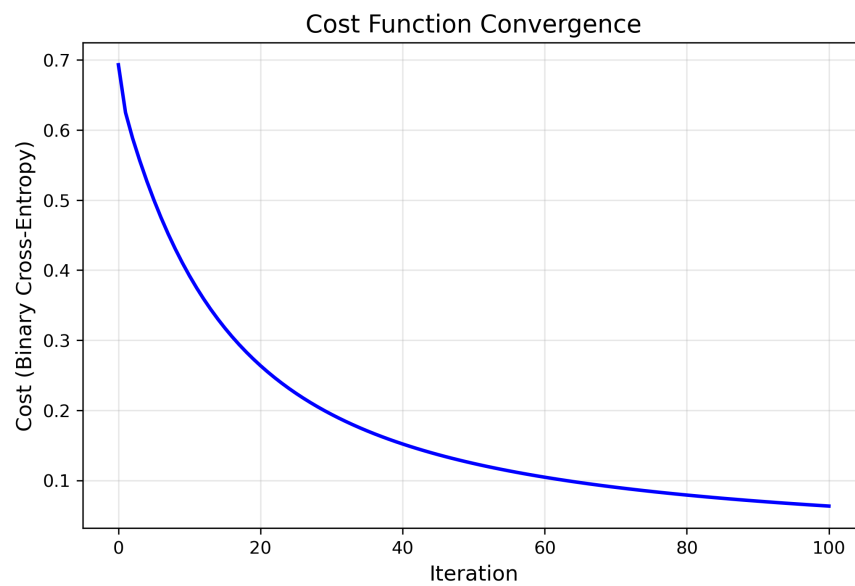
## 5. Gradient Descent Progress

Continuing the iterations:

Iteration	$w_1$	$w_2$	$b$	Cost
0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.6931
1	0.2500	0.0000	0.0000	0.6250
2	0.2789	-0.1185	-0.0744	0.5882
3	0.3571	-0.2037	-0.1280	0.5565
10	0.7863	-0.7354	-0.4687	0.3921
50	2.0726	-2.2368	-1.5028	0.1241
100	2.7805	-3.0275	-2.0951	0.0633



## 6. Cost Convergence





The cost decreases monotonically, demonstrating the convexity of the binary cross-entropy loss.

## 7. Final Decision Boundary

After 100 iterations, the learned parameters are:

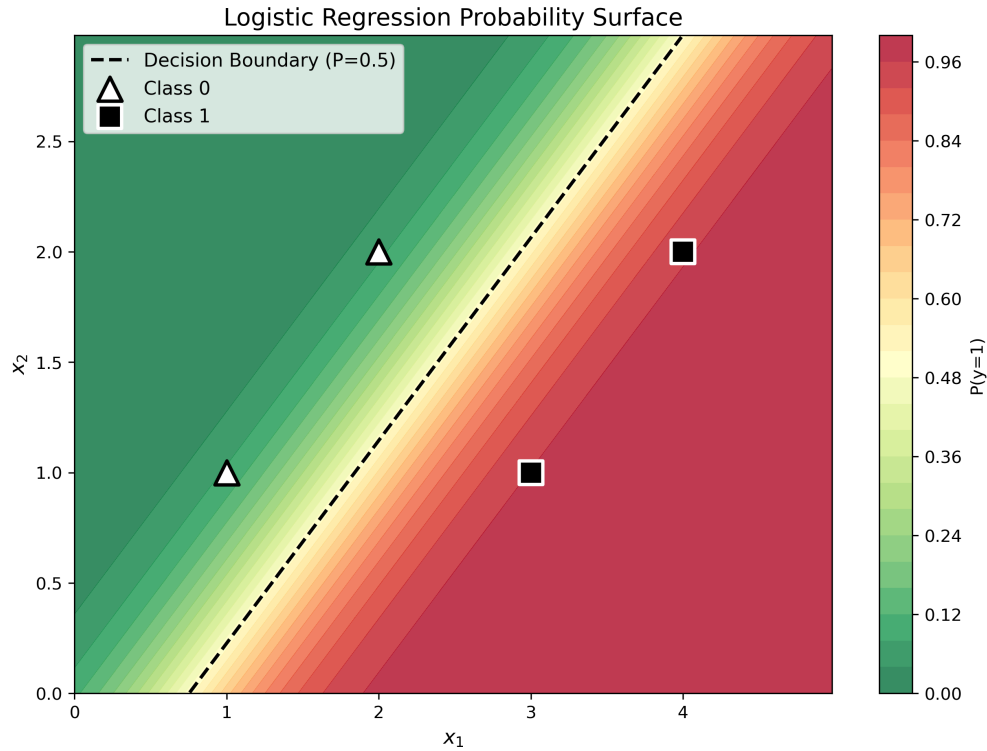
$$w_1 \approx 2.78, \quad w_2 \approx -3.03, \quad b \approx -2.10.$$

The decision boundary is where  $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b = 0$ :

$$2.78x_1 - 3.03x_2 - 2.10 = 0.$$

Solving for  $x_2$ :

$$x_2 = \frac{2.78}{3.03}x_1 - \frac{2.10}{3.03} \approx 0.92x_1 - 0.69.$$



The probability surface shows smooth transitions from low probability (green, class 0) to high probability (red, class 1), with the decision boundary at  $P = 0.5$ .

## Conclusion

We have covered the key concepts of logistic regression:

1. **The Problem:** Linear regression outputs unbounded values; classification needs probabilities.

2. **The Sigmoid Function:** Transforms  $z \in (-\infty, \infty)$  to  $(0, 1)$ .
3. **The Decision Boundary:** A linear surface where  $w \cdot x + b = 0$ .
4. **Binary Cross-Entropy:** A convex loss function that penalizes incorrect confident predictions.
5. **Gradient Descent:** Iteratively minimizes the loss by updating  $w$  and  $b$ .

## Connection to Neural Networks

Logistic regression can be viewed as a **single-layer neural network** with one neuron and a sigmoid activation. By stacking multiple layers of such units with non-linear activations, we obtain deep neural networks capable of learning complex, non-linear decision boundaries.

## Matrix Form of Logistic Regression

For efficiency and scalability, logistic regression is often formulated using matrix operations, allowing vectorized computations over multiple samples and features simultaneously.

### Vectorized Predictions

Consider a dataset with  $n$  samples and  $d$  features. We augment the feature matrix  $X$  (shape  $(n, d)$ ) with a column of ones for the bias term, resulting in  $\tilde{X}$  of shape  $(n, d+1)$ . The weight vector  $\mathbf{w}$  (including the bias weight) is of shape  $(d+1, 1)$ .

The linear combination is:

$$\mathbf{z} = \tilde{X}\mathbf{w},$$

and the predictions are:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sigma(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{z}}},$$

where  $\sigma$  is applied element-wise.

### Vectorized Loss and Gradients

The binary cross-entropy loss is:

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

which vectorizes to:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y}^T \log \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{y})^T \log(\mathbf{1} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})).$$

The gradient with respect to  $\mathbf{w}$  is:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{1}{n} \tilde{X}^T (\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{y}).$$

Gradient descent updates:  $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \alpha \frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$ .

## Extension to Neural Networks

Logistic regression is fundamentally a single-layer feedforward neural network. To build deeper networks, we stack multiple layers of affine transformations followed by non-linear activations.

For a 2-layer network (1 hidden layer with  $h$  units):

- Hidden layer:  $\mathbf{Z}^{(1)} = \tilde{X}\mathbf{W}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}^{(1)} = \sigma(\mathbf{Z}^{(1)})$
- Output layer:  $\mathbf{Z}^{(2)} = \mathbf{A}^{(1)}\mathbf{W}^{(2)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$ ,  $\hat{y} = \sigma(\mathbf{Z}^{(2)})$

where  $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}$  is  $(d+1, h)$ ,  $\mathbf{W}^{(2)}$  is  $(h, 1)$ , and biases are broadcasted.

Training uses backpropagation to compute gradients layer-by-layer, generalizing the logistic regression gradients. This enables learning complex, non-linear decision boundaries, with logistic regression as the simplest case (no hidden layers).