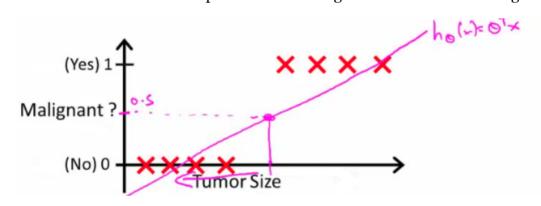
# **06: Logistic Regression**

### Classification

- Where y is a discrete value
  - Develop the logistic regression algorithm to determine what class a new input should fall into
- Classification problems
  - Email -> spam/not spam?
  - Online transactions -> fraudulent?
  - Tumor -> Malignant/benign
- Variable in these problems is Y
  - o Y is either o or 1
    - o = negative class (absence of something)
    - 1 = positive class (presence of something)
- Start with binary class problems
  - Later look at multiclass classification problem, although this is just an extension of binary classification
- How do we develop a classification algorithm?
  - Tumour size vs malignancy (o or 1)
  - We could use linear regression
    - Then threshold the classifier output (i.e. anything over some value is yes, else no)
    - In our example below linear regression with thresholding seems to work

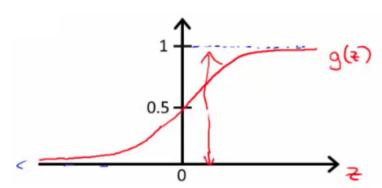


- We can see above this does a reasonable job of stratifying the data points into one of two classes
  - But what if we had a single Yes with a very small tumour
  - This would lead to classifying all the existing yeses as nos
- Another issues with linear regression
  - We know Y is o or 1
  - Hypothesis can give values large than 1 or less than 0
- So, logistic regression generates a value where is always either o or 1
  - Logistic regression is a **classification algorithm** don't be confused

## **Hypothesis representation**

- What function is used to represent our hypothesis in classification
- We want our classifier to output values between o and 1
  - When using linear regression we did  $h_{\theta}(x) = (\theta^T x)$
  - For classification hypothesis representation we do  $h_{\theta}(x) = g((\theta^T x))$ 
    - $\blacksquare$  Where we define g(z)
      - z is a real number
    - $g(z) = 1/(1 + e^{-z})$ 
      - This is the **sigmoid function**, or the **logistic function**
    - If we combine these equations we can write out the hypothesis as

- What does the sigmoid function look like
- Crosses 0.5 at the origin, then flattens out]
  - Asymptotes at o and 1



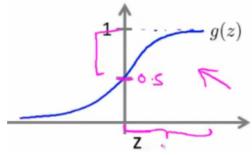
• Given this we need to fit  $\theta$  to our data

#### Interpreting hypothesis output

- When our hypothesis  $(h_{\theta}(x))$  outputs a number, we treat that value as the estimated probability that y=1 on input x
  - Example
    - If X is a feature vector with  $x_0 = 1$  (as always) and  $x_1 = \text{tumourSize}$
    - $h_{\theta}(x) = 0.7$ 
      - Tells a patient they have a 70% chance of a tumor being malignant
  - We can write this using the following notation
    - $\bullet h_{\theta}(x) = P(y=1|x;\theta)$
  - What does this mean?
    - Probability that y=1, given x, parameterized by  $\theta$
- Since this is a binary classification task we know y = 0 or 1
  - So the following must be true
    - $P(y=1|x;\theta) + P(y=0|x;\theta) = 1$
    - $P(y=o|x;\theta) = 1 P(y=1|x;\theta)$

# **Decision boundary**

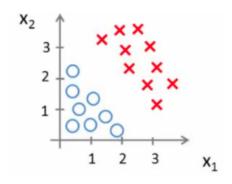
- Gives a better sense of what the hypothesis function is computing
- Better understand of what the hypothesis function looks like
  - One way of using the sigmoid function is;
    - When the probability of y being 1 is greater than 0.5 then we can predict y =
    - Else we predict y = 0
  - When is it exactly that  $h_{\theta}(x)$  is greater than 0.5?
    - Look at sigmoid function
      - g(z) is greater than or equal to 0.5 when z is greater than or equal to 0



- So if z is positive, g(z) is greater than 0.5
  - $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{\theta}^T \mathbf{x})$
- So when
  - $\theta^T x > = 0$
- Then  $h_{\theta} >= 0.5$
- So what we've shown is that the hypothesis predicts y = 1 when  $\theta^T x \ge 0$ 
  - The corollary of that when  $\theta^T x \le 0$  then the hypothesis predicts y = 0
  - Let's use this to better understand how the hypothesis makes its predictions

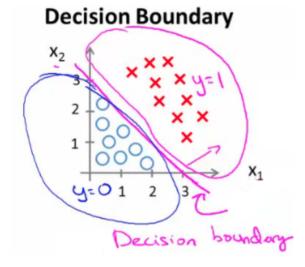
### **Decision boundary**

•  $h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2)$ 



- So, for example
  - $\theta_0 = -3$
  - $\theta_1 = 1$

- $\theta_2 = 1$
- So our parameter vector is a column vector with the above values
  - So,  $\theta^T$  is a row vector = [-3,1,1]
- What does this mean?
  - $\circ$  The z here becomes  $\theta^T x$
  - We predict "y = 1" if
    - $-3x_0 + 1x_1 + 1x_2 >= 0$
    - $-3 + x_1 + x_2 >= 0$
- We can also re-write this as
  - If  $(x_1 + x_2 >= 3)$  then we predict y = 1
  - If we plot
    - $x_1 + x_2 = 3$  we graphically plot our **decision boundary**

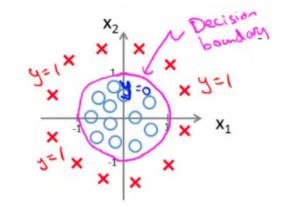


- Means we have these two regions on the graph
  - Blue = false
  - Magenta = true
  - Line = decision boundary
    - Concretely, the straight line is the set of points where  $h_{\theta}(x) = 0.5$  exactly
  - The decision boundary is a property of the hypothesis
    - Means we can create the boundary with the hypothesis and parameters without any data
      - Later, we use the data to determine the parameter values
    - i.e. y = 1 if
      - $5 x_1 > 0$
      - $5 > X_1$

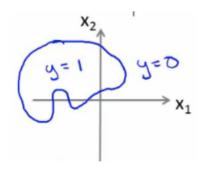
### Non-linear decision boundaries

- Get logistic regression to fit a complex non-linear data set
  - Like polynomial regress add higher order terms

- o So say we have
  - $\bullet \ h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_3 x_1^2 + \theta_4 x_2^2)$
  - We take the transpose of the  $\theta$  vector times the input vector
    - Say  $\theta^T$  was [-1,0,0,1,1] then we say; Predict that "y = 1" if
    - - $-1 + x_1^2 + x_2^2 >= 0$
      - $x_1^2 + x_2^2 >= 1$
    - If we plot  $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$ 
      - This gives us a circle with a radius of 1 around o



- Mean we can build more complex decision boundaries by fitting complex parameters to this (relatively) simple hypothesis
- More complex decision boundaries?
  - o By using higher order polynomial terms, we can get even more complex decision boundaries



## Cost function for logistic regression

- Fit  $\theta$  parameters
- Define the optimization object for the cost function we use the fit the parameters
  - Training set of *m* training examples
    - Each example has is n+1 length column vector

Training set: 
$$\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \cdots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$$

m examples 
$$x \in \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$
  $x_0 = 1, y \in \{0, 1\}$ 

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$

- This is the situation
  - Set of m training examples
  - Each example is a feature vector which is n+1 dimensional
  - $0 x_0 = 1$
  - $0 y \in \{0,1\}$
  - $\circ$  Hypothesis is based on parameters ( $\theta$ )
    - Given the training set how to we chose/fit  $\theta$ ?
- Linear regression uses the following function to determine  $\theta$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{2} \left( h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)^{2}$$

- Instead of writing the squared error term, we can write
  - If we define "cost()" as:
    - $cost(h_{\theta}(x^i), y) = 1/2(h_{\theta}(x^i) y^i)^2$
    - Which evaluates to the cost for an individual example using the same measure as used in linear regression
  - $\circ$  We can redefine  $J(\theta)$  as

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \operatorname{Cost}(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})$$

- Which, appropriately, is the sum of all the individual costs over the training data (i.e. the same as linear regression)
- To further simplify it we can get rid of the superscripts
  - o So

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \text{Cost}(h_{\theta}(x), y)$$

- What does this actually mean?
  - This is the cost you want the learning algorithm to pay if the outcome is  $h_{\theta}(x)$  and the actual outcome is y

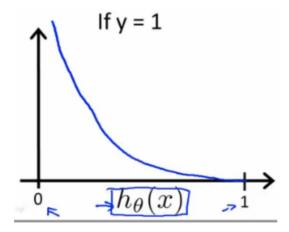
- If we use this function for logistic regression this is a **non-convex function** for parameter optimization
  - Could work....
- What do we mean by non convex?
  - $\circ$  We have some function J( $\theta$ ) for determining the parameters
  - $\circ$  Our hypothesis function has a non-linearity (sigmoid function of  $h_{\theta}(x)$ )
    - This is a complicated non-linear function
  - o If you take  $h_{\theta}(x)$  and plug it into the Cost() function, and them plug the Cost() function into  $J(\theta)$  and plot  $J(\theta)$  we find many local optimum -> non convex function
  - Why is this a problem
    - Lots of local minima mean gradient descent may not find the global optimum - may get stuck in a global minimum
  - We would like a convex function so if you run gradient descent you converge to a global minimum

### A convex logistic regression cost function

• To get around this we need a different, convex Cost() function which means we can apply gradient descent

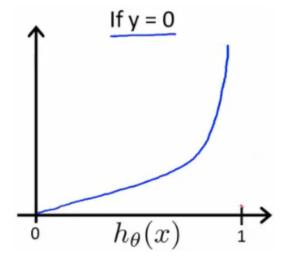
$$Cost(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

- This is our logistic regression cost function
  - This is the penalty the algorithm pays
  - Plot the function
- Plot y = 1
  - $\circ$  So  $h_{\theta}(x)$  evaluates as  $-\log(h_{\theta}(x))$



- So when we're right, cost function is o
  - Else it slowly increases cost function as we become "more" wrong

- X axis is what we predict
- Y axis is the cost associated with that prediction
- This cost functions has some interesting properties
  - If y = 1 and  $h_{\theta}(x) = 1$ 
    - If hypothesis predicts exactly 1 and thats exactly correct then that corresponds to 0 (exactly, not nearly 0)
  - As  $h_{\theta}(x)$  goes to o
    - Cost goes to infinity
    - This captures the intuition that if  $h_{\theta}(x) = 0$  (predict  $P(y=1|x; \theta) = 0$ ) but y = 1 this will penalize the learning algorithm with a massive cost
- What about if y = 0
- then cost is evaluated as  $-\log(1 h_{\theta}(x))$ 
  - Just get inverse of the other function



- Now it goes to plus infinity as  $h_{\theta}(x)$  goes to 1
- With our particular cost functions  $J(\theta)$  is going to be convex and avoid local minimum

## Simplified cost function and gradient descent

- Define a simpler way to write the cost function and apply gradient descent to the logistic regression
  - By the end should be able to implement a fully functional logistic regression function
- Logistic regression cost function is as follows

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \underbrace{\text{Cost}(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})}_{i=1}$$

$$\operatorname{Cost}(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \begin{cases} -\log(h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$
Note:  $y = 0$  or 1 always

- This is the cost for a single example
  - For binary classification problems v is always o or 1
    - Because of this, we can have a simpler way to write the cost function
      - Rather than writing cost function on two lines/two cases
      - Can compress them into one equation more efficient
  - Can write cost function is
    - $cost(h_{\theta_{1}}(x),y) = -ylog(h_{\theta}(x)) (1-y)log(1-h_{\theta}(x))$ 
      - This equation is a more compact of the two cases above
  - We know that there are only two possible cases
    - y = 1
      - Then our equation simplifies to
        - $-\log(h_{\theta}(x)) (o)\log(1 h_{\theta}(x))$ 
          - $-\log(h_{\theta}(x))$
          - Which is what we had before when y = 1
    - $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ 
      - Then our equation simplifies to
        - -(0)log( $h_{\theta}(x)$ ) (1)log(1  $h_{\theta}(x)$ )
        - $-\log(1-h_{\theta}(x))$
        - Which is what we had before when y = 0
    - Clever!
- So, in summary, our cost function for the  $\theta$  parameters can be defined as

$$J(\theta) = -\frac{1}{m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log (1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) \right]$$

- Why do we chose this function when other cost functions exist?
  - This cost function can be derived from statistics using the principle of

#### maximum likelihood estimation

- Note this does mean there's an underlying Gaussian assumption relating to the distribution of features
- Also has the nice property that it's convex
- To fit parameters  $\theta$ :
  - $\circ$  Find parameters  $\theta$  which minimize  $J(\theta)$
  - This means we have a set of parameters to use in our model for future predictions

• Then, if we're given some new example with set of features x, we can take the  $\theta$  which we generated, and output our prediction using

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$

- This result is
  - $\mathbf{p}(y=1 \mid x; \theta)$ 
    - Probability y = 1, given x, parameterized by  $\theta$

#### How to minimize the logistic regression cost function

- Now we need to figure out how to minimize  $J(\theta)$ 
  - Use gradient descent as before
  - Repeatedly update each parameter using a learning rate

Repeat 
$$\{$$
 
$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \sum_{i=1}^m (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$
  $\}$  (simultaneously update all  $\theta_j$ )

- If you had *n* features, you would have an n+1 column vector for  $\theta$
- This equation is the same as the linear regression rule
  - The only difference is that our definition for the hypothesis has changed
- Previously, we spoke about how to monitor gradient descent to check it's working
  - Can do the same thing here for logistic regression
- When implementing logistic regression with gradient descent, we have to update all the  $\theta$  values ( $\theta_0$  to  $\theta_n$ ) simultaneously
  - Could use a for loop
  - Better would be a vectorized implementation
- Feature scaling for gradient descent for logistic regression also applies here

# **Advanced optimization**

- Previously we looked at gradient descent for minimizing the cost function
- Here look at advanced concepts for minimizing the cost function for logistic regression
  - o Good for large machine learning problems (e.g. huge feature set)
- What is gradient descent actually doing?
  - $\circ$  We have some cost function  $J(\theta)$ , and we want to minimize it
  - $\circ$  We need to write code which can take  $\theta$  as input and compute the following

■ J(θ)

• Partial derivative if  $J(\theta)$  with respect to j (where j=0 to j = n)

$$J(\theta) \over rac{\partial}{\partial heta_j} J(\theta)$$
 (for  $j=0,1,\ldots,n$  )

- Given code that can do these two things
  - o Gradient descent repeatedly does the following update

Repeat 
$$\{\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta) \}$$

- So update each j in  $\theta$  sequentially
- So, we must;
  - Supply code to compute  $J(\theta)$  and the derivatives
  - Then plug these values into gradient descent
- Alternatively, instead of gradient descent to minimize the cost function we could use
  - Conjugate gradient
  - **BFGS** (Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno)
  - L-BFGS (Limited memory BFGS)
- These are more optimized algorithms which take that same input and minimize the cost function
- These are *very* complicated algorithms
- Some properties

### • Advantages

- No need to manually pick alpha (learning rate)
  - Have a clever inner loop (line search algorithm) which tries a bunch of alpha values and picks a good one
- Often faster than gradient descent
  - Do more than just pick a good learning rate
- Can be used successfully without understanding their complexity

#### Disadvantages

- Could make debugging more difficult
- Should not be implemented themselves
- Different libraries may use different implementations may hit performance

#### Using advanced cost minimization algorithms

- How to use algorithms
  - Say we have the following example

### Example:

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J(\theta) = (\theta_1 - 5)^2 + (\theta_2 - 5)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta) = 2(\theta_1 - 5)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_2} J(\theta) = 2(\theta_2 - 5)$$

- Example above
  - $\circ \theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  (two parameters)
  - Cost function here is  $J(\theta) = (\theta_1 5)^2 + (\theta_2 5)^2$
  - The derivatives of the  $J(\theta)$  with respect to either  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  turns out to be the  $2(\theta_i 5)$
- First we need to define our cost function, which should have the following signature

function [jval, gradent] = costFunction(THETA)

- Input for the cost function is **THETA**, which is a vector of the  $\theta$  parameters
- Two return values from costFunction are
  - o jval
    - How we compute the cost function  $\theta$  (the underived cost function)
      - In this case =  $(\theta_1 5)^2 + (\theta_2 5)^2$

#### o gradient

- 2 by 1 vector
- 2 elements are the two partial derivative terms
- i.e. this is an n-dimensional vector
  - Each indexed value gives the partial derivatives for the partial derivative of  $J(\theta)$  with respect to  $\theta_i$
  - Where i is the index position in the **gradient** vector
- With the cost function implemented, we can call the advanced algorithm using

```
options= optimset('GradObj', 'on', 'MaxIter', '100'); % define
the options data structure
initialTheta= zeros(2,1); # set the initial dimensions for theta
% initialize the theta values
[optTheta, funtionVal, exitFlag]= fminunc(@costFunction,
initialTheta, options); % run the algorithm
```

- Here
  - options is a data structure giving options for the algorithm
  - o fminunc
    - function minimize the cost function (find minimum of unconstrained multivariable function)

- @costFunction is a pointer to the costFunction function to be used
- For the octave implementation
  - o initialTheta must be a matrix of at least two dimensions
- How do we apply this to logistic regression?
  - Here we have a vector

```
\begin{aligned} \text{theta} &= \begin{bmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_n \end{bmatrix}, \\ \text{function [jVal, gradient]} &= \text{costFunction(theta)} \\ \text{jVal} &= [\text{code to compute } J(\theta)]; \\ \text{gradient(1)} &= [\text{code to compute } \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta)]; \\ \text{gradient(2)} &= [\text{code to compute } \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta)]; \\ \vdots \\ \text{gradient(n+1)} &= [\text{code to compute } \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_n} J(\theta)]; \end{aligned}
```

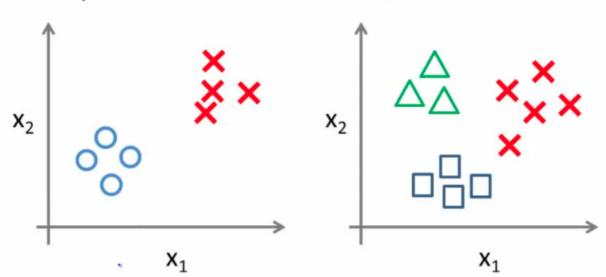
- Here
  - theta is a n+1 dimensional column vector
  - o Octave indexes from 1, not o
- Write a cost function which captures the cost function for logistic regression

### **Multiclass classification problems**

- Getting logistic regression for multiclass classification using one vs. all
- Multiclass more than yes or no (1 or 0)
  - Classification with multiple classes for assignment

# Binary classification:

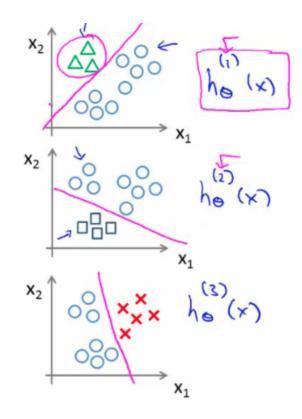
### Multi-class classification:



- Given a dataset with three classes, how do we get a learning algorithm to work?
  - Use one vs. all classification make binary classification work for multiclass classification

### • One vs. all classification

- Split the training set into three separate binary classification problems
  - i.e. create a new fake training set
    - Triangle (1) vs crosses and squares (0)  $h_{\theta}^{1}(x)$ 
      - $P(y=1 | x_1; \theta)$
    - Crosses (1) vs triangle and square (0)  $h_{\theta}^2(x)$ 
      - $P(y=1 \mid x_2; \theta)$
    - Square (1) vs crosses and square (0)  $h_{\theta}^{3}(x)$ 
      - $P(y=1 | x_3; \theta)$



### • Overall

- Train a logistic regression classifier h<sub>0</sub><sup>(i)</sup>(x) for each class i to predict the probability that y = i
  On a new input, x to make a prediction, pick the class i that maximizes the
- On a new input, x to make a prediction, pick the class i that maximizes the probability that  $h_{\theta}^{(i)}(x) = 1$