

# **Logistic Regression**



### **Logistic Regression**

- As the name suggests it is an algorithm based on regression
- But we need to discuss about the types of data we can have
- •Are the following data inputs equal?

Height of a person

•Number of students in class

Gender

Grade

□GPA

Degree name

Economic status

1.92, 1.8, 1.59...

20, 6, 24...

Male, Female...

A, C, F...

3.89, 3.22, 1.85...

BFA, RTIS...

Low, Medium, High



### **Data Types**

Height of a person: 1.92, 1.8, 1.59...

Number of students in class: 20, 6, 24...

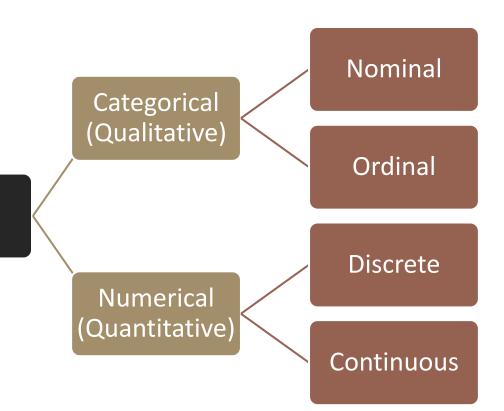
Gender: Male, Female...

Grade: A, C, F...

GPA: 3.89, 3.22, 1.85...

Degree name: BFA, RTIS...

Economic status: Low, Medium, High

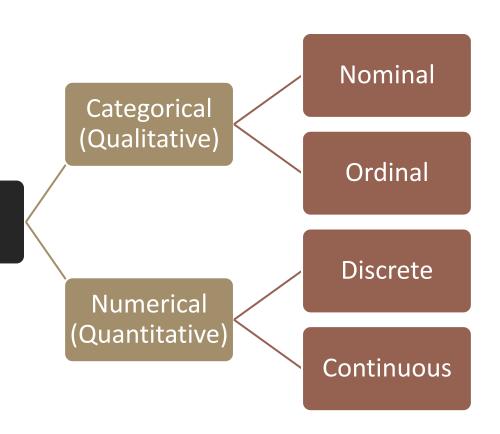


Variable



# **Logistic Regression**

- Linear Regression was mainly focused on:
  - Numerical continuous
- For Logistic Regression a clear distinction between outcomes is needed:
  - Categorical outcome
    - Product: Functional/Defective
    - Email: Spam/Not Spam
    - Student application: Accepted/Rejected
    - Customer: Will/Won't buy a specific product
    - •Output value  $y \in \{0, 1\}$ , where (Binary decision)
      - •0 = Negative output
      - •1 = Positive output

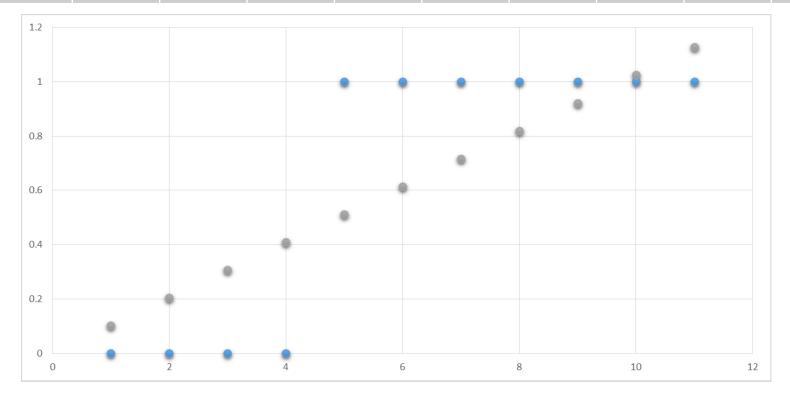


Variable



# **Linear Regression...**

Input	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Output	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1





# **Logistic Regression**

- Linear regression is not a good approach for such problems
  - •Might be able to separate a small number of samples, but will struggle as samples' range increases
  - •Need to separate samples
    - As opposed to generating an equation that passes through them



Referred to as Sigmoid function

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

• $\sigma$ (z) generates a value between 0 and 1

$$\sigma(z) > 0.5 \text{ if } z > 0$$

$$\sigma(z) < 0.5 \text{ if } z < 0$$

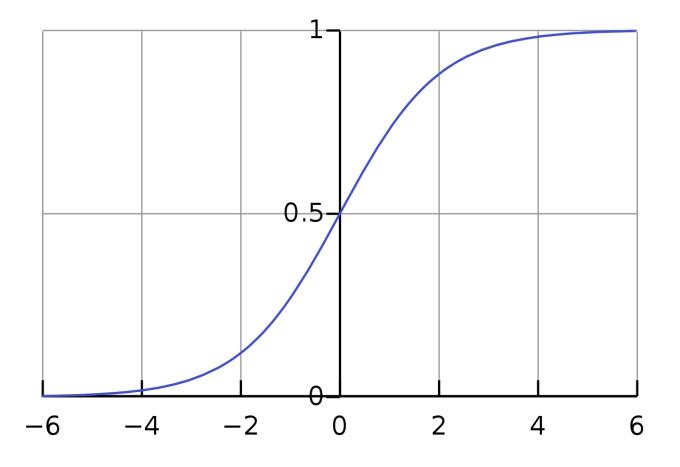
Apply the sigmoid function to the hypothesis equation:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^{T}x$$
 becomes  $h_{\theta}(x) = \sigma(\theta^{T}x)$ 

• What is the shape of Sigmoid function?



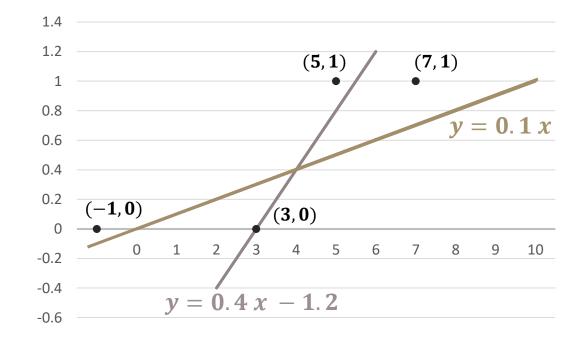
# **Sigmoid Function**





$$y = 0.1 x$$
  
 $(-1,0) \rightarrow y = 0.1 * -1 = -0.1$   
 $(3,0) \rightarrow y = 0.1 * 3 = 0.3$   
 $(5,1) \rightarrow y = 0.1 * 5 = 0.5$   
 $(7,1) \rightarrow y = 0.1 * 7 = 0.7$ 

$$y = 0.4 x - 1.2$$
  
 $(-1,0) \rightarrow y = 0.4 * -1 - 1.2 = -1.6$   
 $(3,0) \rightarrow y = 0.4 * 3 - 1.2 = 0$   
 $(5,1) \rightarrow y = 0.4 * 5 - 1.2 = 0.8$   
 $(7,1) \rightarrow y = 0.4 * 7 - 1.2 = 1.6$ 





$$y = 0.1 x$$

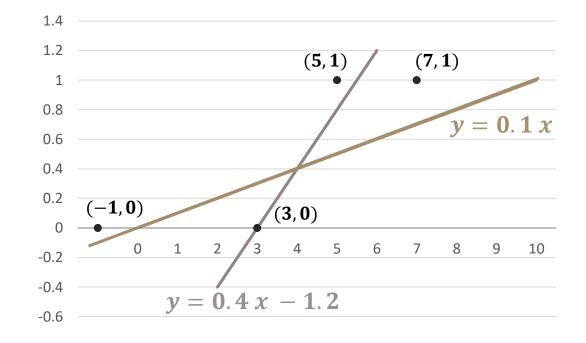
$$(-1,0) \to h_{\theta}(-1) = \sigma(-0.1) = 0.475$$

$$(3,0) \to h_{\theta}(3) = \sigma(0.3) = 0.574$$

$$(5,1) \to h_{\theta}(5) = \sigma(0.5) = 0.622$$

$$(7,1) \to h_{\theta}(7) = \sigma(0.7) = 0.668$$

$$y = 0.4 x - 1.2$$
  
 $(-1,0) \rightarrow h_{\theta}(-1) = \sigma(-1.6) = 0.168$   
 $(3,0) \rightarrow h_{\theta}(3) = \sigma(0) = 0.5$   
 $(5,1) \rightarrow h_{\theta}(5) = \sigma(0.8) = 0.69$   
 $(7,1) \rightarrow h_{\theta}(7) = \sigma(1.6) = 0.832$ 

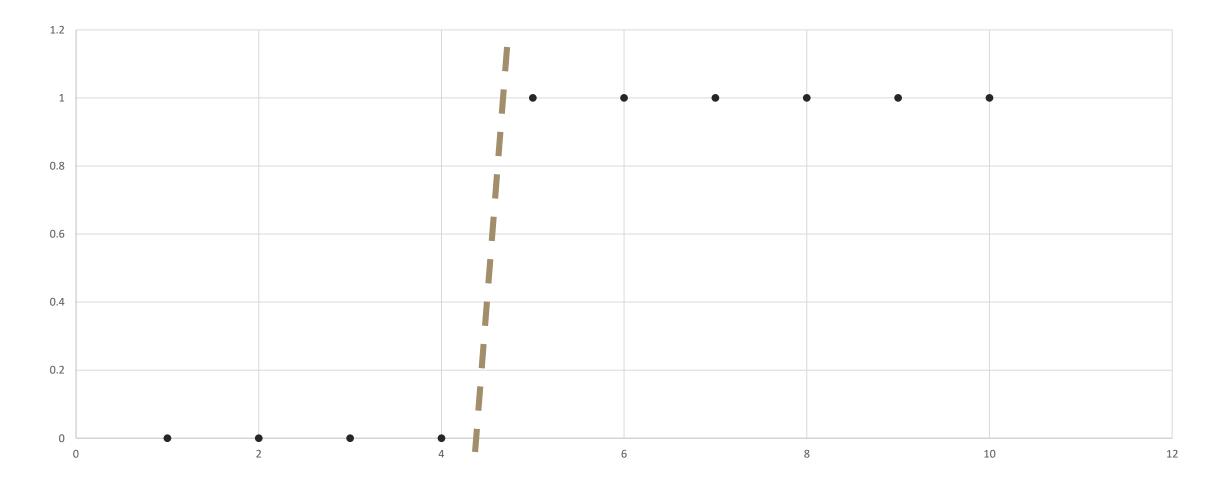




- Example: Determining if a product is defective (1 means defective):
  - $h_{\theta}(x) = \sigma(\theta^{T}x) = 0.75$
  - Predicted y = 1
  - 75% confident that the product is defective
- •Basically the hypothesis function will estimate the probability of the input being categorized as y=1



# **Decision Boundary**





# **Prediction & Decision Boundary**

- • $\sigma(\theta^T x)$  is now the output (prediction)
- • $\theta^T$ x=0 now represents the **decision boundary**
- •y = 1 when  $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 \ge 0$  (x<sub>0</sub> = 1)
- •y = 0 when  $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 < 0 \ (x_0 = 1)$



# **Prediction & Decision Boundary**

- • $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 = 0$  separates the "1" samples from the "0" samples
- •Examples:
  - Line
  - Circle
  - Ellipse



### **Decision Boundary**

- •Assume the following decision boundary:  $-4 + x_1^2 = 0$
- •What is the predicted value for  $x_1 = 0$ ,  $x_1 = 2$  and  $x_1 = -10$ ?

$$^{\Box} x_1 = 0 : \quad h_{\theta}(x) \approx 0.179$$

$$_{0}x_{1} = 2$$
:  $h_{\theta}(x) \approx 0.5$ 

$$x_1 = -10 : h_{\theta}(x) \approx 1$$

•What if the boundary is  $-9 + x_1^2 = 0$  and test same  $x_1$  values?

$${}^{\Box}x_1 = 0$$
:  $h_{\theta}(x) \approx 0$ 

$$^{\Box}x_1 = 2$$
:  $h_{\theta}(x) \approx 0.01$ 

$$x_1 = -10$$
:  $h_{\theta}(x) \approx 1$ 



Using the cost function from Linear Regression:

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

- •Is it exactly the same?
  - $h_{\theta}(x)$  is now a sigmoid function
  - $^{\Box}h_{\theta}(x) = \sigma(\theta^{T}x)$  (Not simply  $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^{T}x$ )
- Using that same cost function results in a non-convex curve
  - What are the consequences of this?



- A non-convex function has several local optima
  - Gradient descent won't necessarily converge to the global minimum
- •The reason is that  $h_{\theta}(x)$  is very non-linear, since it's now a Sigmoid function
  - Place:  $h_{\theta}(x)$  in linear regression could also be non-linear



#### **Cost Function**

- •What we want:
  - ■When y = 1:
    - Error is very high if predicted  $h_{\theta}(x)$  is closer to 0
    - Error is reduced as predicted  $h_{\theta}(x)$  gets closer to 1
  - $\square$  When y = 0:
    - Error is very high if predicted  $h_{\theta}(x)$  is closer to 1
    - •Error is reduced as predicted  $h_{\theta}(x)$  gets closer to 0



Approach for converting the cost function to become linear:

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

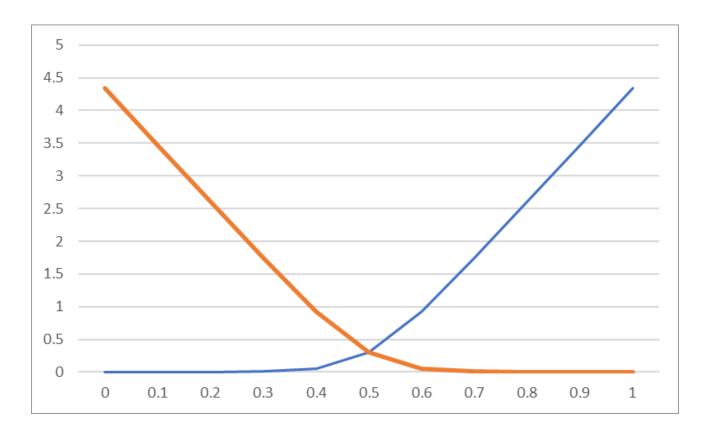
•The "Error" (and therefore the Cost function) are different when y = 1 or y = 0

$$y = 1: Error(h_{\theta}(x), y) = -\log(h_{\theta}(x))$$
  
$$y = 0: Error(h_{\theta}(x), y) = -\log(1 - h_{\theta}(x))$$

•How do those two graphs look like?



$$y = -log(h_{\theta}(x))$$



$$y = -log(1 - h_{\theta}(x))$$



$$Error(h_{\theta}(x^{i}), y^{i}) = -y \cdot \log(h_{\theta}(x)) - (1 - y) \cdot \log(1 - h_{\theta}(x))$$

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

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

Works for y = 0 and y = 1



#### **Gradient Descent**

- Similar to linear regression
- Based on deriving the cost equation

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

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial_{\theta}} J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{i}) - y^{i}).x^{i}$$



#### **Gradient Descent**

- Derivation looks similar to the one from linear regression
  - But the Hypothesis function is different!
  - $h_{\theta}(x)$  is different. It's now a Sigmoid function.
  - $^{\Box}h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^{T}x \text{ is now } h_{\theta}(x) = \sigma(\theta^{T}x)$



# Regularization

- Same issue as with Linear Regression
- Overfitting could occur
- Add regularization component
  - Pushes θ's values to remain small

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ -y^{i} \cdot \log(h_{\theta}(x)) - (1 - y^{i}) \cdot \log(1 - h_{\theta}(x)) \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \theta_{j}^{2}$$



# Regularization

- Deriving the cost equation yields the same function from Linear Regression
  - •Reminder: Hypothesis function is different!
- Every iteration, each  $\theta$  is decreased by the cost function derivative
- •Similarly to linear regression,  $\theta_0$  is not regularized



# Regularization

$$\theta_j = \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^i) \cdot x_j^i + \lambda \theta_j \right]$$

•Same as in linear regression, but  $h_{\theta}(x)$  is different



# **Gradient Descent Algorithm**

- Pick features (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, etc.)
- Pick a value for the learning rate  $\alpha$ , and regularization term  $\lambda$
- Set the equation's complexity
  - Example:  $y = h_{\theta}(x) = \sigma(\theta^{T}x) = \sigma(\theta_{0} + \theta_{1}x_{1} + \theta_{2}x_{2}, y = \theta_{0} + \theta_{1}x_{1} + \theta_{2}x_{2}^{2})$
- For each  $\theta_i$ , where 0 < j < n:
  - $^{\scriptscriptstyle \square}$  Compute the cost function derivative with respect to  $\theta_i$
  - □Adjust θ<sub>i</sub> by -α\*Cost Derivative
    - Don't update  $\theta_i$ 's value yet
    - Save to a temporary location
- For each  $\theta_i$ :
  - $^{\text{\tiny D}}$  Update  $\theta_{j}$ 's value from the temporary location



#### References

- Notes by Antoine Abi Chacra, DigiPen Institute of Technology
- Wikipedia