# Logistic Regression

#### Sriram Sankararaman

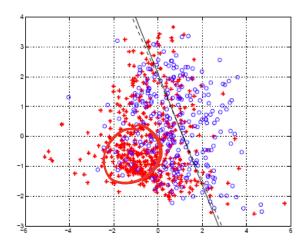
The instructor gratefully acknowledges Fei Sha, Ameet Talwalkar, Eric Eaton, and Jessica Wu whose slides are heavily used, and the many others who made their course material freely available online.

### Outline

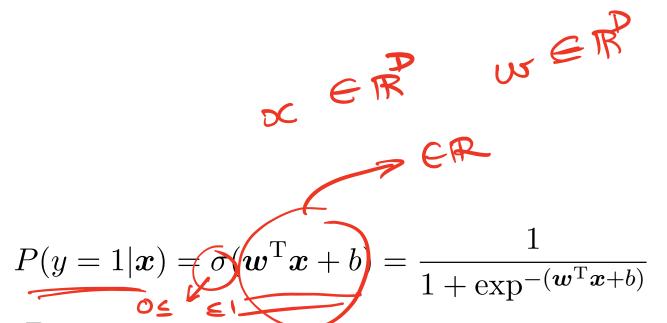
- 1 Logistic regression
  - Prediction in logistic regression
  - Training/Learning a logistic regression model
  - Maximum likelihood estimation
- Optimization
- Stochastic gradient descent

### Review

- Instead of predicting the class, predict the probability of instance being in a class
- Perceptron does not produce probability estimates



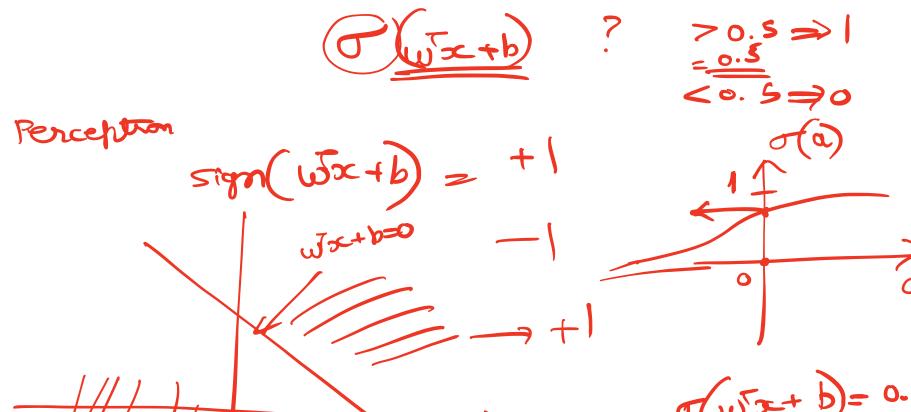
## Prediction in logistic regression

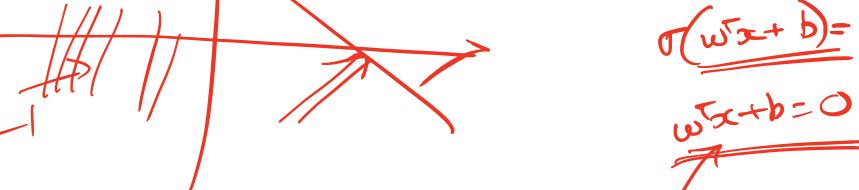


Compute  $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + b)$ . If this is greater than 0.5, predict 1 else 0.

# Decision boundary: Linear or nonlinear?







# Decision boundary: Linear or nonlinear?

 $\sigma(a)$  is nonlinear, however, the decision boundary is determined by

$$\sigma(a) = 0.5 \Rightarrow a(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \Rightarrow a(\mathbf{x}) = b + \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

which is a *linear* function in x

As in the case of perceptron, b the bias or offset or intercept term.

 $oldsymbol{w}$  the weights .

# Logistic regression

#### **Setup for binary classification**

- ullet Input:  $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$
- Output:  $y \in \{0,1\}$
- Training data:  $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_n, y_n), n = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$
- Hypotheses/Model:

$$h_{\boldsymbol{w},b}(x) = p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x};b,\boldsymbol{w}) = \sigma(a(\boldsymbol{x}))$$

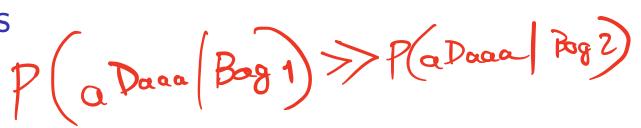
where

Activation 
$$a(x) = b + \sum_{d} w_d x_d = b + \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} x$$

• Given training data N samples/instances:

 $\mathcal{D}^{ ext{train}} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, y_2), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathsf{N}}, y_{\mathsf{N}})\}$ , train/learn/induce  $h_{\boldsymbol{w}, b}$ . Find values for (w, b).

Example: bag of words



Which bag of words is more likely to generate :

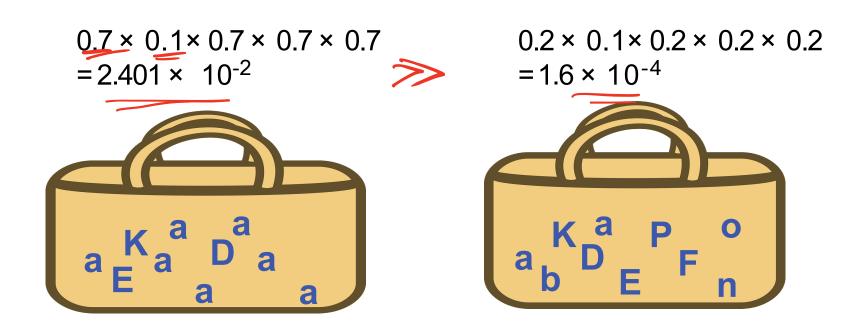




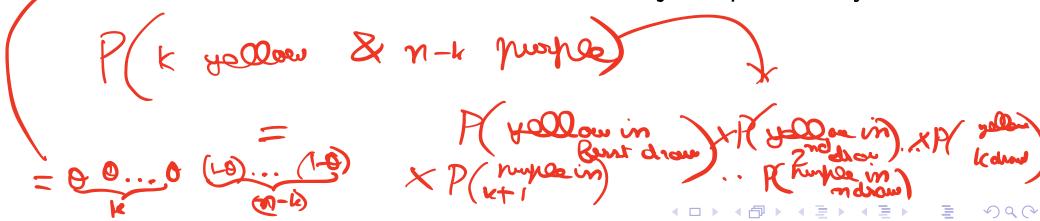


## Example: bag of words

### Which bag of words is more likely to generate: aDaaa?



- An envelope with two colors of cards: yellow and purple.
- Assume if you draw a card at random, probability of drawing a yellow card is  $\theta$  and probability of drawing a purple card is  $1-\theta$ .
- Sample with replacement n times.
- kitimes we get yellow, n-k times we get purple.
- The joint probability (likelihood) :  $\theta^k (1-\theta)^{n-k}$ .
- What is the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes the joint probability?



Solve  $argmax_{\theta}\theta^{k}(1-\theta)^{n-k}$ 

Equivalently, we can solve:

$$argmax_{\theta} \log(\theta^{k}(1-\theta)^{n-k}) = argmax_{\theta} k \log \theta + (n-k) \log(1-\theta)$$

$$= 0$$

Solve  $argmax_{\theta}\theta^{k}(1-\theta)^{n-k}$ 

Equivalently, we can solve:

$$argmax_{\theta} \log(\theta^{k} (1 - \theta)^{n-k})$$
$$= argmax_{\theta} k \log \theta + (n - k) \log(1 - \theta)$$

At the optimum:  $\frac{(k \log \theta + (n-k) \log(1-\theta))}{d\theta} = 0$ 

Maximum likelihood estimate (MLE):  $\hat{\theta} = \frac{k}{n}$ 

These are easy examples. We don't always have a closed-form solution for the MLE typically!

### Likelihood Function



Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_N$  be (ID) (independent and identically distributed) random variables with PDF  $p(x|\theta)$  (also written as  $p(x;\theta)$ ). The *likelihood* function is defined by  $L(\theta)$ ,

$$L(\theta) = p(X_1, \dots, X_N; \theta). = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(X_i; \theta)$$

**Notes** The likelihood function is just the joint density of the data, except that we treat it as a function of the parameter  $\theta$ .

### Maximum Likelihood Estimator

**Definition**: The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)  $\hat{\theta}$ , is the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes  $L(\theta)$ .

The log-likelihood function is defined by  $l(\theta) = \log L(\theta)$ . Its maximum occurs at the same place as that of the likelihood function.

Maximum Likelihood Estimator
$$L(\Theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i; \Theta)$$

$$U(\Theta) = \lim_{i \to \infty} L(\Theta) = \lim_{i \to \infty} P(x_i; \Theta)$$

**Definition**: The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)  $\hat{\theta}$ , is the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes  $L(\theta)$ .

The log-likelihood function is defined by  $l(\theta) = \log L(\theta)$ . Its maximum occurs at the same place as that of the likelihood function.

- Using logs simplifies mathemetical expressions (converts exponents to products and products to sums)
- Using logs helps with numerical stabilitity

The same is true of the likelihood function times any constant. Thus we shall often drop constants in the likelihood function.





Likelihood function for logistic regression

$$P(Y=1] \propto; b, w) = \frac{\sigma(wx+b)}{\sigma(x+b)}$$

$$P(Y=0|\alpha; b, w) = P(Y=0|x; b, w)$$

$$P(Y=0|\alpha; b, w) = P(Y=0|x; b, w)$$
Probability of a single training sample  $(x_n, y_n)$ 

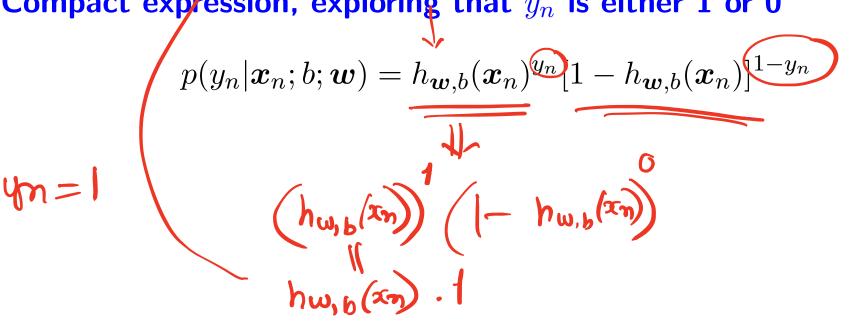
$$p(y_n|\boldsymbol{x}_n;b,\boldsymbol{w}) = \begin{cases} h_{\boldsymbol{w},b}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) = \sigma(b+\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{if} \quad y_n = 1 \\ = 1 - h_{\boldsymbol{w},b}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) = 1 - \sigma(b+\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Likelihood function for logistic regression

### Probability of a single training sample $(x_n, y_n)$

$$p(y_n|\boldsymbol{x}_n;b,\boldsymbol{w}) = \begin{cases} h_{\boldsymbol{w},b}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) = \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{if } y_n = 1\\ = 1 - h_{\boldsymbol{w},b}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) = 1 - \sigma(b + \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

### Compact expression, exploring that $y_n$ is either 1 or 0



# Log Likelihood

Log-likelihood of the whole training data  $\mathcal{D}$ 

$$l(\boldsymbol{w},b) = \sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1-y_n) \log[1-h_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \left( h_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + \log \left( (-h_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)) + \log \left( (-h_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_$$

# Log Likelihood

#### Log-likelihood of the whole training data $\mathcal{D}$

$$l(\boldsymbol{w}, b) = \sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

It is convenient to work with its negation termed negative log likelihood

$$J(b, \boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{w}, b}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{w}, b}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

## We can ignore the distinction between bias and weights



#### This is for convenience

ullet Append 1 to  $oldsymbol{x}$ 

$$\boldsymbol{x} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_D \end{bmatrix}$$

ullet Append b to  $oldsymbol{w}$ 

$$\underbrace{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} b & w_1 & w_2 & \cdots & w_D \end{bmatrix}$$

•

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

- Same trick as in the case of perceptrons
  - we are rewriting a hyperplane in D dimensions as one in D+1 dimensions that passes through the origin.

How to find the optimal parameters for logistic regression?

HLE = 
$$\theta = \frac{1}{2}$$
 argmin  $= 2(\theta)$ 

We will minimize the negative log likelihood

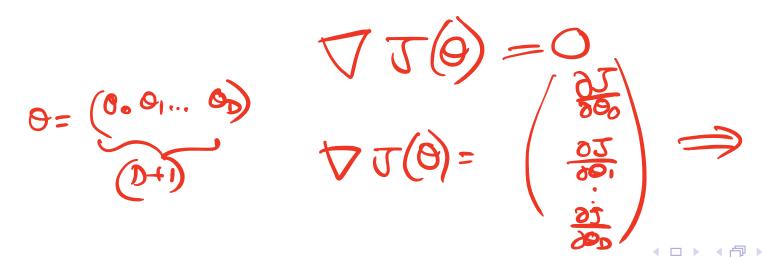
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

# How to find the optimal parameters for logistic regression?

### We will minimize the negative log likelihood

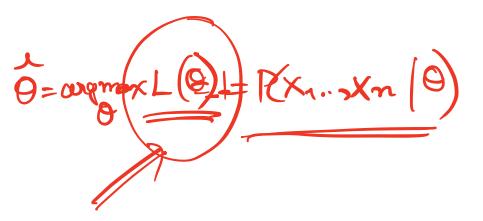
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

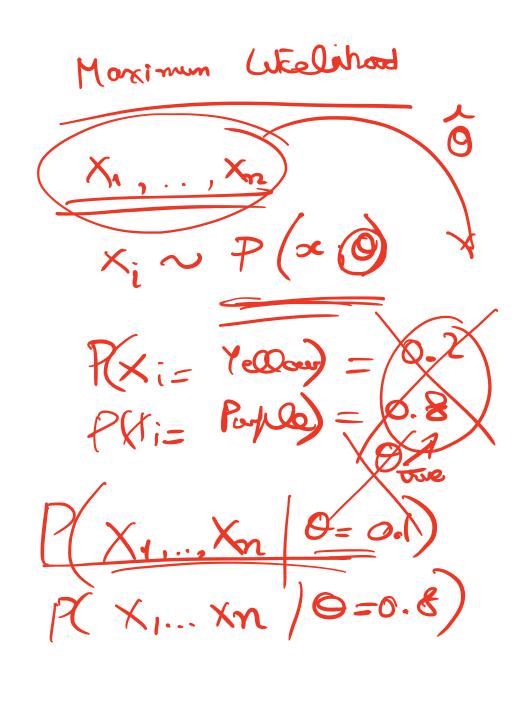
#### How do we find its minimum?



### Outline

- Logistic regression
- 2 Optimization
- 3 Stochastic gradient descent





# **Optimization**

Given a function f(x), find its minimum (or maximum).

• f is called the objective function.

# **Optimization**

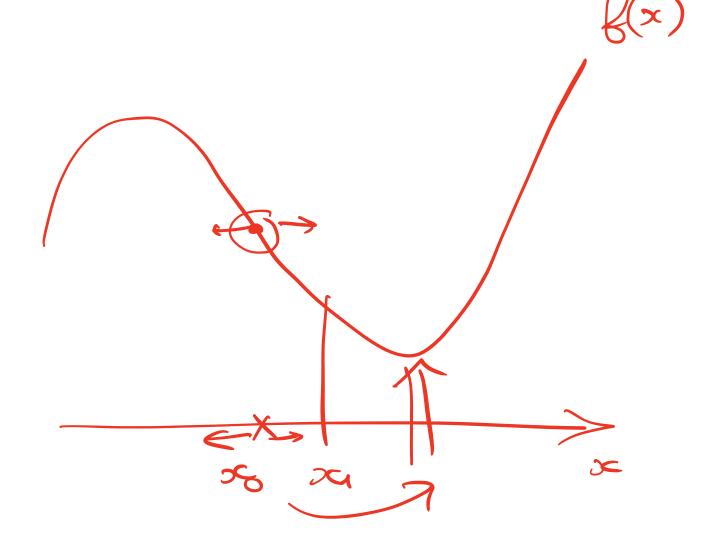
Given a function f(x), find its minimum (or maximum).

- f is called the objective function.
- Maximizing f is equivalent to minimizing -f.

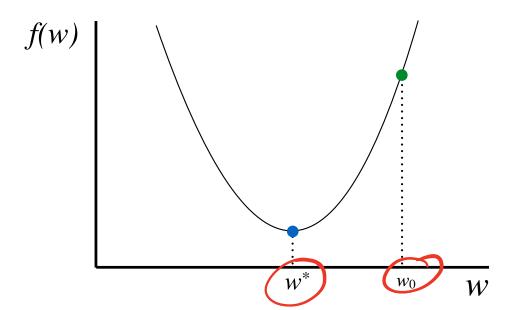
So we only need to consider minimization problems.

# One way to minimize a function f

**Gradient descent** 

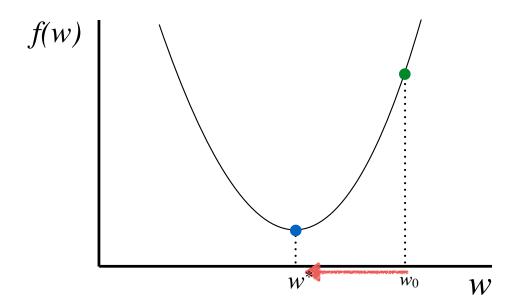


Start at a random point



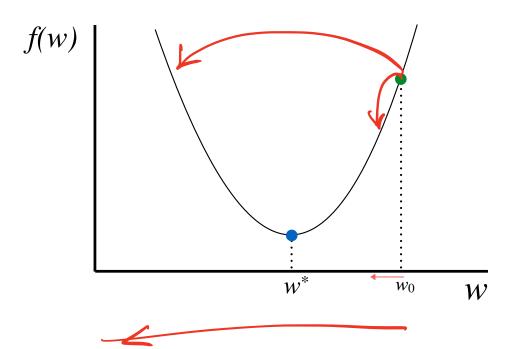
Start at a random point

Determine a descent direction



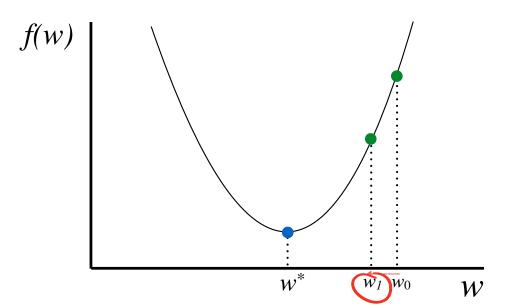
Start at a random point

Determine a descent direction Choose a step size



Start at a random point

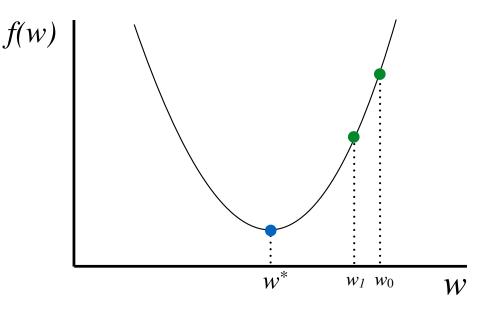
Determine a descent direction Choose a step size Update



Start at a random point

### Repeat

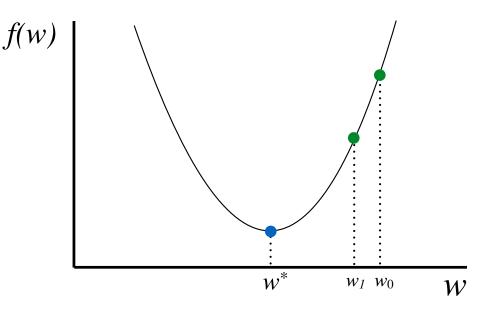
Determine a descent direction Choose a step size Update



Start at a random point

### Repeat

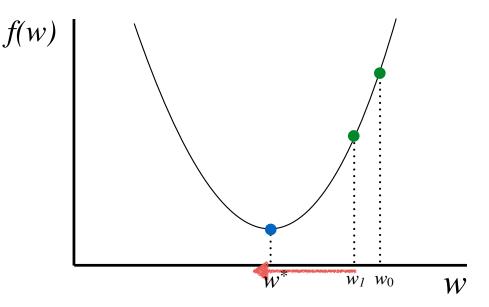
Determine a descent direction Choose a step size Update



Start at a random point

### Repeat

Determine a descent direction Choose a step size Update

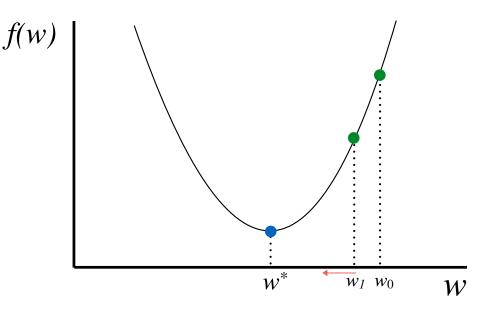


Start at a random point

### Repeat

Determine a descent direction

Choose a step size Update

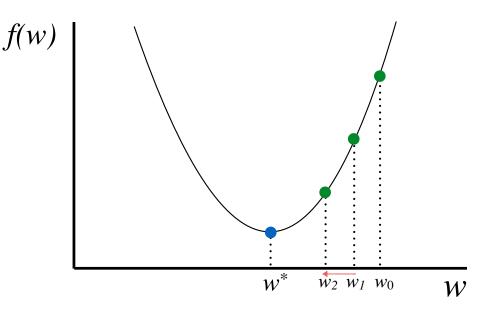


Start at a random point

### Repeat

Determine a descent direction Choose a step size

Update



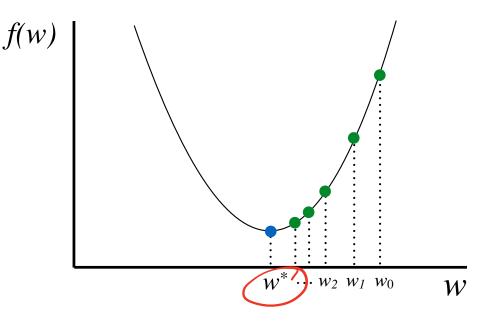
## Gradient Descent

Start at a random point

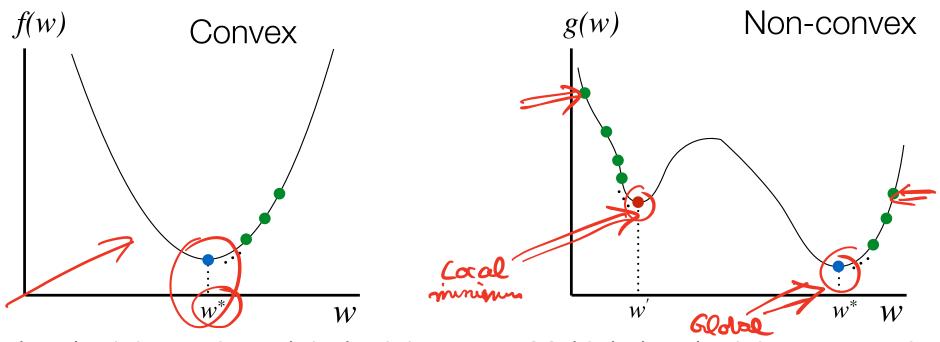
### Repeat

Determine a descent direction Choose a step size Update

**Until** stopping criterion is satisfied



# Where Will We Converge?



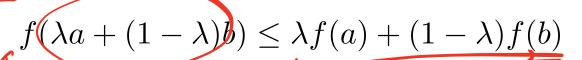
Any local minimum is a global minimum

Multiple local minima may exist



### Convex functions

A function f(x) is convex if

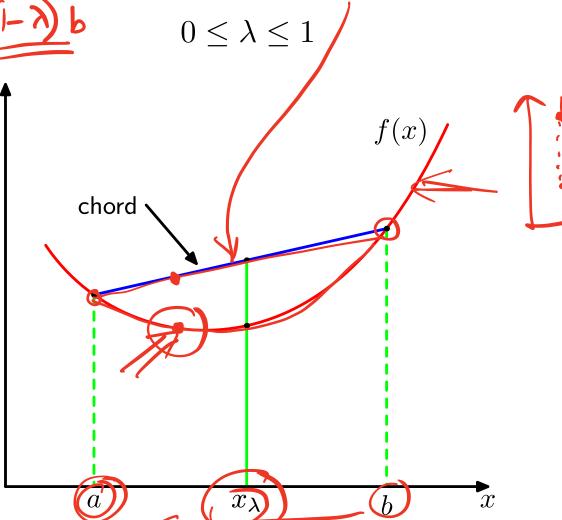


B(70+(1-7)b)

for

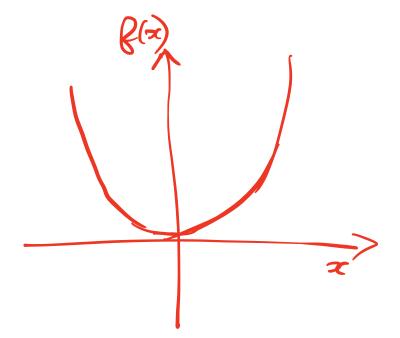
$$x_{\lambda} = \frac{\lambda a}{+ (-\lambda)b}$$

$$x = \frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}b$$



990

## How to determine convexity?



f(x) is convex if

Examples:

$$f''(x) \geq 0$$

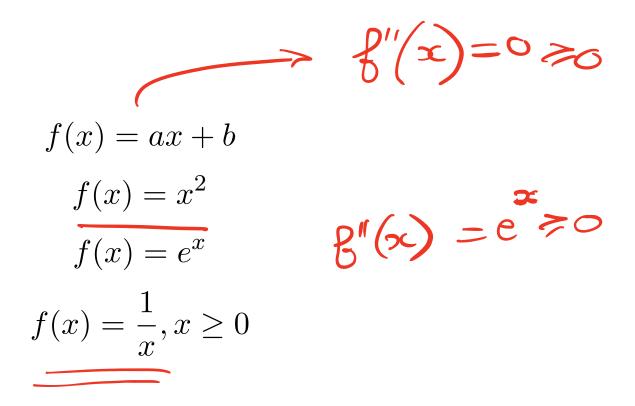
$$f(x) = x^2, f''(x) = 2 > 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2(x)} = 2$$

$$\beta'(x) = 2x$$

## **Examples**

#### **Convex functions**



## **Examples**

#### **Nonconvex functions**

$$f(x) = \cos(x)$$

$$f(x) = e^x - x^2$$

$$f(x) = \log(x)$$

#### **Definition**

 $f(\boldsymbol{x})$  is convex

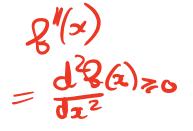
$$f(\lambda \boldsymbol{a} + (1 - \lambda)\boldsymbol{b}) \le \lambda f(\boldsymbol{a}) + (1 - \lambda)f(\boldsymbol{b})$$

for all  $\boldsymbol{a}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{b}$ ,  $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ 



### How to determine convexity in this case?

Matrix of second-order derivatives (Hessian)



$$\boldsymbol{H} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_D} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_D} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_D} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_D} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial x_2^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

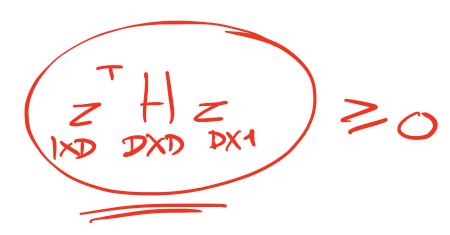
#### How to determine convexity in this case?

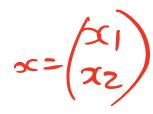
If the Hessian is positive semi-definite (H) then f is convex.

A matrix  $oldsymbol{H}$  is positive semi-definite if and only if

$$\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{z} = \sum_{j,k} H_{j,k} z_j z_k \ge 0$$

for all z.





#### **Example**

$$f(x) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2$$

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Z'HZ = Zz_1^2 + 4z_2^2$$

#### **E**xample

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2$$

$$m{H} = \left( egin{array}{cc} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{array} 
ight)$$

$$z^{\mathrm{T}}Hz = 2z_1^2 + 4z_2^2 \ge 0$$

# Example: $\min f(\theta) = 0.5(\theta_1^2 - \theta_2)^2 + 0.5(\theta_1 - 1)^2$

We compute the gradients

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_1} = 2(\theta_1^2 - \theta_2)\theta_1 + \theta_1 - 1 \qquad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_2} = -(\theta_1^2 - \theta_2) \qquad (2)$$

- Use the following *iterative* procedure for *gradient descent* 
  - Initialize  $\theta_1^{(0)}$  and  $\theta_2^{(0)}$ , and t=0
  - **2** do

$$\theta_{1}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \theta_{1}^{(t)} - \eta \left[ 2(\theta_{1}^{(t)^{2}} - \theta_{2}^{(t)})\theta_{1}^{(t)} + \theta_{1}^{(t)} - 1 \right] \qquad (3)$$

$$\theta_{2}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \theta_{2}^{(t)} - \eta \left[ -(\theta_{1}^{(t)^{2}} - \theta_{2}^{(t)}) \right] \qquad (4)$$

$$\theta_2^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \theta_2^{(t)} \left[ -(\theta_1^{(t)^2} - \theta_2^{(t)}) \right]$$
 (4)

$$t \leftarrow t + 1 \tag{5}$$

**3** until  $f(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$  does not change much

### Gradient descent

### **General form for minimizing** $f(\theta)$

$$\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}^{t+1}} \leftarrow \underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}^t} - \eta \nabla f(\underline{\boldsymbol{\theta}^t})$$

#### Remarks

- $\bullet$   $\eta$  is often called <u>step size</u> literally, how far our update will go along the the direction of the negative gradient
- Note that this is for  $\min i z ing$  a function, hence the subtraction  $(-\eta)$
- With a *suitable* choice of  $\eta$ , the iterative procedure converges to a stationary point where

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 0$$

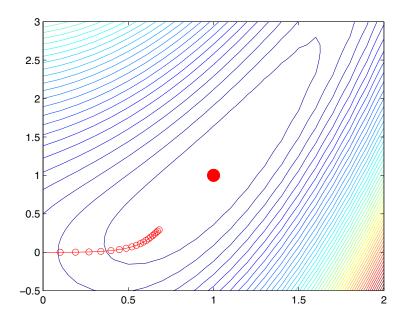
A stationary point is only necessary for being the minimum.



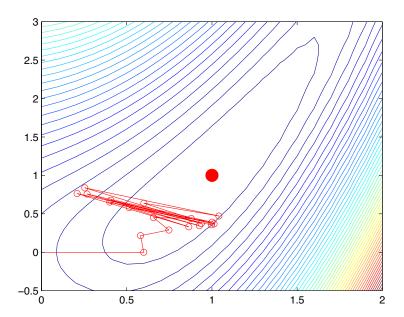
## Seeing in action

### Choosing the right $\eta$ is important

small  $\eta$  is too slow?



### large $\eta$ is too unstable?



### Gradient descent

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, y_N)\}\$$

#### Algorithm 1 Gradient descent

- 1:  $\theta \leftarrow 0$ .
- 2: for  $epoch = 1 \dots T$  do
- 3:  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} \eta \nabla J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- 4: end for
- 5: return  $\theta$

## Gradient Descent Update for Logistic Regression

### **Derivatives of** $\sigma(a)$

$$\frac{d\sigma(a)}{da} = \frac{d}{da} \left(1 + e^{-a}\right)^{-1} = \frac{-(1 + e^{-a})'}{(1 + e^{-a})^2}$$
$$= \frac{e^{-a}}{(1 + e^{-a})^2} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} \frac{e^{-a}}{1 + e^{-a}}$$
$$= \sigma(a)[1 - \sigma(a)]$$

## Gradients of the negative log likelihood

### **Negative log likelihood**

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

#### **Gradients**

$$\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = -\sum_{n} \left\{ y_{n} [1 - \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n})] \boldsymbol{x}_{n} - (1 - y_{n}) \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n})] \boldsymbol{x}_{n} \right\}$$
(6)

$$= \sum \left\{ \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) - y_n \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_n \tag{7}$$

$$= \sum_{n} \left\{ h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) - y_n \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_n \tag{8}$$

#### Remark

## Gradients of the negative log likelihood

#### Negative log likelihood

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

#### **Gradients**

$$\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = -\sum_{n} \left\{ y_{n} [1 - \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n})] \boldsymbol{x}_{n} - (1 - y_{n}) \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n})] \boldsymbol{x}_{n} \right\}$$
(6)

$$= \sum \left\{ \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) - y_n \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_n \tag{7}$$

$$= \sum_{n} \left\{ h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) - y_n \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_n \tag{8}$$

#### Remark

•  $e_n = \{h_{\theta}(x_n) - y_n\}$  is called *error* for the *n*th training sample.

### Numerical optimization

#### **Gradient descent**

- Choose a proper step size  $\eta > 0$
- Iteratively update the parameters following the negative gradient to minimize the error function

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \eta \sum_{n} \left\{ \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}) - y_{n} \right\} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}$$

#### **Remarks**

- The step size needs to be chosen carefully to ensure convergence.
- The step size can be adaptive (i.e. varying from iteration to iteration). For example, we can use techniques such as *line search*
- There is a variant called stochastic gradient descent, also popularly used.

### Outline

- 1 Logistic regression
- Optimization
- 3 Stochastic gradient descent

## Stochastic gradient descent

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, y_N)\}$$
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_n \{y_n \log h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n} J_n(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$\nabla J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n} \nabla J_n(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{n \sim \mathcal{D}} \nabla J_n(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Approximate the gradient by the gradient computed on a single example at a time.

- Repeat until convergence
  - Randomly pick one example  $(x_n, y_n)$ .
  - ▶ Update  $\theta \leftarrow \theta \eta \nabla J_n(\theta)$ .

# Stochastic Gradient descent (SGD)

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, y_N)\}\$$

### Algorithm 2 Stochastic Gradient descent

```
1: \theta \leftarrow 0.
```

2: for  $epoch = 1 \dots T$  do

3: for  $(\boldsymbol{x},y)\in\mathcal{D}$  do

4:  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \eta \nabla J_{(\boldsymbol{x},y)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ 

5: end for

6: end for

7: return  $\theta$ 

## Compare to perceptron learning

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathsf{N}}, y_{\mathsf{N}})\}\$$

#### **Algorithm 3** PerceptronTrain

```
1: \theta \leftarrow 0
 2: for iter = 1 \dots MaxIter do
      for (\boldsymbol{x},y)\in\mathcal{D} do
      a \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}
 4:
     if ay \leq 0 then
 5:
      oldsymbol{	heta} \leftarrow oldsymbol{	heta} + y oldsymbol{x}
 6:
      end if
          end for
 9: end for
10: return \theta
```

What is the objective function?

## Compare to perceptron learning

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, y_N)\}\$$

#### Algorithm 4 PerceptronTrain

```
1: \theta \leftarrow 0
 2: for iter = 1 \dots MaxIter do
 3: for (\boldsymbol{x},y)\in\mathcal{D} do
     a \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}
 4:
 5: if ay \leq 0 then
     oldsymbol{	heta} \leftarrow oldsymbol{	heta} + y oldsymbol{x}
 6:
      end if
      end for
 8:
 9: end for
10: return \theta
```

#### Perceptron effectively minimizes:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{n} max(0, 1 - y_n \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

## Summary

#### Setup for binary classification

Logistic Regression models conditional distribution as:

$$p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{ heta}) = \sigma[a(\boldsymbol{x})]$$
 where  $a(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{ heta}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}$ 

• Linear decision boundary:  $a(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x} = 0$ 

#### Minimizing the negative log-likelihood

• 
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n} \{y_n \log \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) + (1 - y_n) \log[1 - \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)]\}$$

No closed form solution; must rely on iterative solvers

#### **Numerical optimization**

- Gradient descent: simple, scalable to large-scale problems
  - move in direction opposite of gradient!
  - gradient of logistic function takes nice form