Generalised linear models

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Introduction

You are probably familiar by now with different types of probability distributions: the Gaussian, the Bernoulli, the Poisson, the Gamma, etc.

It turns out that most of these are members of a broader class of distributions known as the exponential family.

Why the exponential family is important?

 It can be shown that the exponential family is the only family of distributions with finite-sized sufficient statistics.

The exponential family is the only family of distributions for which conjugate priors exist.

The exponential family can be shown to be the family of distributions that makes the least set of assumptions subject to some user-chosen constraints.

The exponential family is at the core of generalised linear models.

Definition

It is said that a pdf or a pmf $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$, with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$, is in the **exponential family** if it is of the form

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)}h(\mathbf{x})\exp\left[\theta^{\top}\phi(\mathbf{x})\right],$$

where

$$Z(\theta) = \int h(\mathbf{x}) \exp \left[\theta^{\top} \phi(\mathbf{x})\right] d\mathbf{x}.$$

- lacktriangledown eta are known as the **natural parameters** or **canonical parameters**.
- \supset $Z(\theta)$ is known as the **partition function**.
- $h(\mathbf{x})$ is a scaling constant, often 1.



Definition

Distributions in the exponential family can also be expressed as

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = h(\mathbf{x}) \exp \left[\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \phi(\mathbf{x}) - A(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right],$$

where

$$A(\theta) = \log Z(\theta)$$
.

 \Box $A(\theta)$ is called the **log partition function** or **cumulant function**.

□ If $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$, we say it is a **natural exponential family**.

Example: Bernoulli (I)

For the Bernoulli distribution, $x \in \{0, 1\}$, and we have

$$p(x|\mu) = \mathsf{Bern}(x|\mu) = \mu^x (1-\mu)^{1-x},$$
 where $\mu = p(x=1).$

The distribution above can be written as

$$p(x|\mu) = \exp\{x \log \mu + (1-x) \log(1-\mu)\},$$
$$= (1-\mu) \exp\left\{\log\left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right)x\right\}$$

Example: Bernoulli (II)

 Comparing terms with the general expression for the exponential family, we observe that

$$\theta = \log\left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right), \quad Z(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sigma(-\theta)}.$$

- □ The Bernoulli distribution can be written as $p(x|\theta) = \sigma(-\theta) \exp(\theta x)$.
- □ The term $\theta = \log \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu} \right)$ is known as the **log-odds ratio**.
- \square Recall that the expected value of x is equal to $\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$.
- Then, the mean parameter μ can be recovered from the canonical parameter using

$$\mu = \sigma(\theta) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\theta)}.$$



Example: univariate Gaussiana distribution

The univariate Gaussian can be written in exponential family form as

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^2\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{x}^2 + \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{x} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{\mu}^2\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{Z(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x})\right), \end{split}$$

where

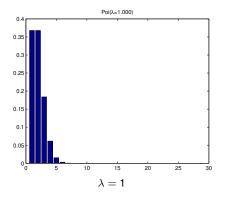
$$egin{aligned} eta &= egin{bmatrix} \mu/\sigma^2 \ -rac{1}{2\sigma^2} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \phi(x) = egin{bmatrix} x \ \chi^2 \end{bmatrix}, \ Z(heta) &= \sqrt{2\pi}\sigma \exp\left\{rac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}
ight\}, \ A(heta) &= -rac{ heta_1^2}{4 heta_2} - rac{1}{2}\log(-2 heta_2) - rac{1}{2}\log(2\pi). \end{aligned}$$

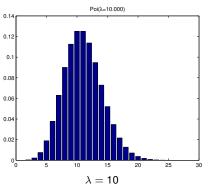
Example: Poisson distribution (I)

The Poisson distribution follows as

$$Poi(x|\lambda) = \exp(-\lambda) \frac{\lambda^x}{x!},$$

where $\lambda > 0$, and $x \in \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$.





Example: Poisson distribution (II)

As a member of the exponential family, it can be written as

$$Poi(x|\lambda) = \frac{h(x)}{Z(\theta)} \exp(\theta x),$$

where $\theta = \log \lambda$, h(x) = 1/x!, and $Z(\theta) = \exp(\lambda)$. Also, $A(\theta) = \lambda$.

- \square Recall that the expected value of x is equal to $\mathbb{E}[x] = \lambda$.
- $lue{}$ Then, the mean parameter λ can be recovered from the canonical parameter using

$$\lambda = \exp(\theta)$$
.

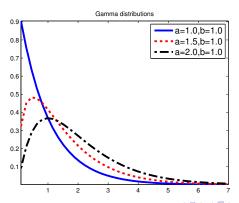


Example: Gamma distribution (I)

The Gamma distribution follows as:

$$Ga(x|a,b) = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} \exp(-bx),$$

where a > 0 (shape), and b > 0 (rate). $\Gamma(a) = \int_0^\infty u^{a-1} e^{-u} du$ is the Gamma function.



Example: Gamma distribution (II)

As a member of the exponential family, it can be written as

$$\mathsf{Ga}(x|a,b) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp(\theta^{\top} \phi(x)),$$

where

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} a - 1 \\ -b \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \log x \\ x \end{bmatrix},$$

$$Z(\theta) = \frac{\Gamma(a)}{b^a}, \quad A(\theta) = \log \Gamma(a) - a \log b.$$

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Definition

 Linear and logistic regression are examples of generalised linear models, or GLM.

These are models in which the output density is in the exponential family.

 The mean parameters are a linear combination of the inputs, passed through a possibly nonlinear function, such as the logistic function.

General form (I)

- □ We want to model the relationship between a response variable y_i , and an input vector \mathbf{x}_i .
- Let us first consider the case of an unconditional distribution for the response variable

$$p(y_i|\theta,\sigma^2) = \exp\left[\frac{y_i\theta - A(\theta)}{\sigma^2} + c(y_i,\sigma^2)\right],$$

where σ^2 is the **dispersion parameter**, θ is the natural parameter, A is the partition function, and c is the normalisation constant.

- Usually, $\sigma^2 = 1$.
- □ The expression for $p(y_i|\theta,\sigma^2)$ looks similar to the exponential family.



General form (II)

 $lue{}$ For example, in logistic regression, θ is the log-odds ratio

$$\theta = \log\left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right),\,$$

where $\mu = \mathbb{E}[y] = P(y = 1)$ is the mean parameter.

- □ To convert from the mean parameter to the natural parameter, we can use a function ψ , $\theta = \psi(\mu)$.
- ψ is uniquely determined by the form of the exponential family distribution.
- □ The mapping is invertible, so that $\mu = \psi^{-1}(\theta)$.

General form (III)

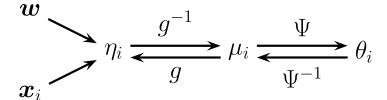
- Now let us add inputs or covariates.
- □ We first define a linear function of the inputs $\eta_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$.
- We now make the mean of the distribution be some invertible monotonic function of this linear combination.
- By convention, this function, known as the **mean function**, is denoted by g^{-1} , so

$$\mu_i = g^{-1}(\eta_i) = g^{-1}(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}_i).$$

The inverse of the mean function, namely g(), is called the **link** function.



Relationships between functions



Link function

We are free to choose almost any function we like for g, so long as it is invertible, and so long as g^{-1} has the appropriate range.

□ For example, in logistic regression, we set $\mu_i = g^{-1}(\eta_i) = \sigma(\eta_i)$.



GLM with canonical link function

• One particularly simple form of link function is to use $g = \psi$.

This is called the canonical link function.

□ In this case $\theta_i = \eta_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$, so the model becomes

$$p(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{w},\sigma^2) = \exp\left[\frac{y_i\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}_i - A(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}_i)}{\sigma^2} + c(y_i,\sigma^2)\right].$$

Canonical link functions $g = \psi$ for some GLMs

Distribution	Link $g(\mu)$	$\theta = \psi(\mu)$	$\mu = \psi^{-1}(\theta)$
$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$	identity	$\theta = \mu$	$\mu = \theta$
$Ber(\mu)$	logit	$\theta = \log\left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right)$	$\mu = \sigma(\theta)$
$Poi(\mu)$	log	$\theta = \log(\mu)$	$\mu = oldsymbol{e}^{ heta}$
Ga(a,b)	inverse	$\theta = \mu^{-1}$	$\mu = \theta^{-1}$.

Mean and variance of the response variable

It can be shown that

$$\mathbb{E}[y|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2] = \mu_i = A'(\theta_i)$$
$$\operatorname{var}[y|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2] = \sigma_i^2 = A''(\theta_i)\sigma^2.$$

Example: linear regression

In linear regression, the response variable follows a normal distribution,

$$\begin{split} \rho(y_i | \mu_i, \sigma^2) &= \mathcal{N}(y_i | \mu_i, \sigma^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y_i - \mu_i)^2 \right] \\ &= \exp\left[\frac{y_i \mu_i - \frac{\mu_i^2}{2}}{\sigma^2} - \frac{y_i^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log\left(\frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}\right) \right] \\ &= \exp\left[\frac{y_i \mu_i - \frac{\mu_i^2}{2}}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y_i^2}{\sigma^2} + \log(2\pi\sigma^2) \right) \right]. \end{split}$$

- □ For linear regression, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$.
- □ The link function is the identity $\theta_i = \mu_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$.
- \Box With $A(\mu_i) = \mu_i^2/2$, $\mathbb{E}[y_i] = \mu_i$, and $var[y_i] = \sigma^2$.



Example: logistic regression

In logistic regression, the response variable follows a Bernoulli distribution

$$\begin{split} p(y_i|\mu_i, \sigma^2) &= \mu_i^{y_i} (1 - \mu_i)^{y_i} \\ &= \exp\left[\log\left(\frac{\mu_i}{1 - \mu_i}\right) y_i - \left(-\log(1 - \mu_i)\right)\right]. \end{split}$$

- □ The link function is the logit, $\log\left(\frac{\mu_i}{1-\mu_i}\right) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}_i$.
- □ With $A(\theta_i) = -\log(1 \sigma(\theta_i))$, $\mathbb{E}[y_i] = \sigma(\theta_i)$, and $var[y_i] = \sigma(\theta_i)(1 \sigma(\theta_i))$.

Example: Poisson regression

In Poisson regression, the response variable follows a Poisson distribution

$$p(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{w},\sigma^2) = \exp[y_i\log(\mu_i) - \mu_i - \log(y_i!)].$$

□ The link function is log, $\log \mu_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$.

□ With $A(\theta_i) = \exp(\theta_i)$, $\mathbb{E}[y_i] = \exp(\theta_i) = \lambda_i$.

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Log-likelihood for a GLM

 One of the appealing properties of GLMs is that they can be fit using exactly the same methods that we used to fit logistic regression.

In particular, the log-likelihood has the following form

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^N \ell_i = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^N [\theta_i y_i - A(\theta_i)],$$

where $\ell_i = \theta_i y_i - A(\theta_i)$.

Gradient for the log-likelihood

We can compute the gradient vector using the chain rule as follows

$$\begin{split} \frac{d\ell_i}{dw_j} &= \frac{d\ell_i}{d\theta_i} \frac{d\theta_i}{d\mu_i} \frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i} \frac{d\eta_i}{dw_j} \\ &= (y_i - A'(\theta_i)) \frac{d\theta_i}{d\mu_i} \frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i} x_{i,j} \\ &= (y_i - \mu_i) \frac{d\theta_i}{d\mu_i} \frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i} x_{i,j}. \end{split}$$

□ If we use a canonical link, $\theta_i = \eta_i$, this simplifies to

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mu_i) \mathbf{x}_i \right] = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}),$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = [\mu_1, \cdots, \mu_N]^{\top}$.

☐ This can be used inside a (stochastic) gradient descent procedure.

Hessian for the log-likelihood

- For improved efficiency, we could use a second-order method.
- If we use a canonical link, the Hessian is given by

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{d\mu_i}{d\theta_i} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{X},$$

where
$$\Sigma = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{d\mu_1}{d\theta_1}, \cdots, \frac{d\mu_N}{d\theta_N}\right)$$
.

 This can be used inside the Iterative Reweighted Least Squares (IRLS) algorithm.

Iterative reweighted least squares (IRLS) algorithm

 The Iterative Reweighted Least Squares algorithm is a particular case of the Newton's method.

 The updated parameters are obtained by iteratively solving a weighted least squares problem.

A least squares problem

Remember that a least squares (LS) problem refers to

$$LS(\mathbf{w}) = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i)^2,$$

for a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}.$

It can be shown that the vector \mathbf{w} that minimises $LS(\mathbf{w})$ is given as

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y}.$$

A weigthed least squares problem

A weighted least squares (WLS) problem refers to

$$WLS(\mathbf{w}) = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} r_i (y_i - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i)^2,$$

for a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, r_i\}_{i=1}^N = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{y}\}, \text{ with } \mathbf{R} = \text{diag}(r_1, \dots, r_N).$

It can be shown that the vector \mathbf{w} that minimises $WLS(\mathbf{w})$ is given as

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{y}.$$

Iterative reweighted least squares problem

Newton's method for the log-likelihood of the GLM follows as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{w}_k - \mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \mathbf{g}_k \\ &= \mathbf{w}_k + (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{X})^{-1} [\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}_k + \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)] \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{z}_k, \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{z}_k = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_k + \Sigma_k^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu_k)$ is known as the working response.

- At iteration k, the solution for \mathbf{w}_{k+1} has a similar form to the solution for a weighted least squared problem replacing \mathbf{R} for Σ_k , and \mathbf{y} for \mathbf{z}_k .
- □ The name IRLS is due to at each iteration, we solve a weighted least squares problem, where the weight matrix Σ_k changes at each iteration.

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GeneralizedLinearRegression()

It uses IRLS (Iterative Reweigthed Least Squares) for optimisation.

□ It only allows ℓ_2 regularisation.

LinearRegression() uses L-BFGS, and allows for ℓ_1 , ℓ_2 and elastic net regularization.

 \square LogisticRegression () also uses L-BFGS, and allows for ℓ_1 , ℓ_2 and elastic net regularization.

GeneralizedLinearRegression()

□ Spark currently only supports up to 4096 features through its GeneralizedLinearRegression interface.

It will throw an exception if this constraint is exceeded.

GLM available in Spark

It includes the following families

Family	Response type	Supported links	
Gaussian	Continuous	Indentity*, Log, Inverse	
Binomial	Binary	Logit*, Probit, CLogLog	
Poisson	Count	Log*, Identity, Sqrt	
Gamma	Continuous	Inverse*, Identity, Log	
Tweedie	Zero-inflated continuous	Power link function	

where * stands for canonical link.

☐ The parameters are set using setFamily and setLink.