01 - Logistic Regression (incl. Regularization)

In this exercise, you will implement logistic regression and apply it to two different datasets.

Outline

- 1 Packages
- 2 Logistic Regression
 - 2.1 Problem Statement
 - 2.2 Loading and visualizing the data
 - 2.3 Sigmoid function
 - 2.4 Cost function for logistic regression
 - 2.5 Gradient for logistic regression
 - 2.6 Learning parameters using gradient descent
 - 2.7 Plotting the decision boundary
 - 2.8 Evaluating logistic regression
- 3 Regularized Logistic Regression
 - 3.1 Problem Statement
 - 3.2 Loading and visualizing the data
 - 3.3 Feature mapping
 - 3.4 Cost function for regularized logistic regression
 - 3.5 Gradient for regularized logistic regression
 - 3.6 Learning parameters using gradient descent
 - 3.7 Plotting the decision boundary
 - 3.8 Evaluating regularized logistic regression model

1 - Packages

First, let's run the cell below to import all the packages that you will need during this assignment.

- numpy is the fundamental package for scientific computing with Python.
- matplotlib is a famous library to plot graphs in Python.
- utils.py contains helper functions for this assignment. You do not need to modify code in this file.

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    from utils import *
    import copy
    import math

%matplotlib inline
```

2 - Logistic Regression

In this part of the exercise, you will build a logistic regression model to predict whether a student gets admitted into a university.

2.1 Problem Statement

Suppose that you are the administrator of a university department and you want to determine each applicant's chance of admission based on their results on two exams.

- You have historical data from previous applicants that you can use as a training set for logistic regression.
- For each training example, you have the applicant's scores on two exams and the admissions decision.
- Your task is to build a classification model that estimates an applicant's probability of admission based on the scores from those two exams.

2.2 Loading and visualizing the data

You will start by loading the dataset for this task.

- The load_dataset() function shown below loads the data into variables X_train and y_train
 - X train contains exam scores on two exams for a student
 - y train is the admission decision
 - o y_train = 1 if the student was admitted
 - o y_train = 0 if the student was not admitted
 - Both X train and y train are numpy arrays.

```
In [2]: # Load dataset
X_train, y_train = load_data("data/ex2data1.txt")
```

View the variables

Let's get more familiar with your dataset.

• A good place to start is to just print out each variable and see what it contains.

The code below prints the first five values of X_train and the type of the variable.

```
In [3]: print("First five elements in X_train are:\n", X_train[:5])
    print("Type of X_train:",type(X_train))

First five elements in X_train are:
    [[34.62365962 78.02469282]
    [30.28671077 43.89499752]
    [35.84740877 72.90219803]
    [60.18259939 86.3085521 ]
    [79.03273605 75.34437644]]
    Type of X_train: <class 'numpy.ndarray'>
        Now print the first five values of y_train

In [4]: print("First five elements in y_train are:\n", y_train[:5])
    print("Type of y_train:",type(y_train))
```

```
First five elements in y_train are:
  [0. 0. 0. 1. 1.]
Type of y_train: <class 'numpy.ndarray'>
```

Check the dimensions of your variables

Another useful way to get familiar with your data is to view its dimensions. Let's print the shape of X_train and y_train and see how many training examples we have in our dataset.

```
In [5]: print ('The shape of X_train is: ' + str(X_train.shape))
    print ('The shape of y_train is: ' + str(y_train.shape))
    print ('We have m = %d training examples' % (len(y_train)))

The shape of X_train is: (100, 2)
    The shape of y_train is: (100,)
    We have m = 100 training examples
```

Visualize your data

Before starting to implement any learning algorithm, it is always good to visualize the data if possible.

- The code below displays the data on a 2D plot (as shown below), where the axes are the two exam scores, and the positive and negative examples are shown with different markers.
- We use a helper function in the utils.py file to generate this plot.

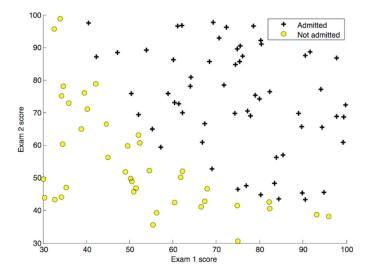
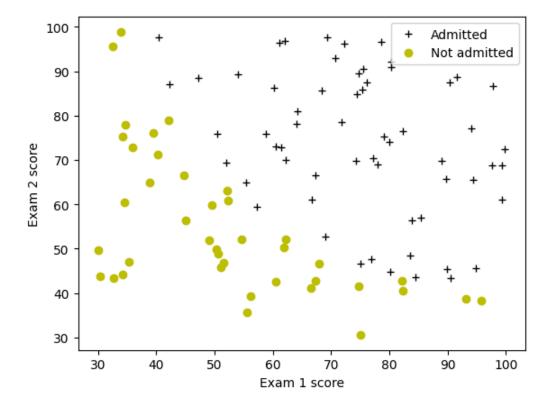


Figure 1: Scatter plot of training data

```
In [6]: # Plot examples
plot_data(X_train, y_train[:], pos_label="Admitted", neg_label="Not admitted")

# Set the y-axis label
plt.ylabel('Exam 2 score')
# Set the x-axis label
plt.xlabel('Exam 1 score')
plt.legend(loc="upper right")
plt.show()
```



Your goal is to build a logistic regression model to fit this data.

• With this model, you can then predict if a new student will be admitted based on their scores on the two exams.

2.3 Sigmoid function

Recall that for logistic regression, the model is represented as

$$f_{\mathbf{w},b}(x) = g(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$$

where function g is the sigmoid function. The sigmoid function is defined as:

$$g(z)=rac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$$

Let's implement the sigmoid function first, so it can be used by the rest of this assignment.

Exercise 1: Sigmoid function

Complete the sigmoid function to calculate

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

Note that

- z is not always a single number, but can also be an array of numbers.
- If the input is an array of numbers, we'd like to apply the sigmoid function to each value in the input array.

```
In [7]: # GRADED FUNCTION: sigmoid

def sigmoid(z):
    """
    Compute the sigmoid of z

Args:
    z (ndarray): A scalar, numpy array of any size.

Returns:
    g (ndarray): sigmoid(z), with the same shape as z

"""

### START CODE HERE ###

g = 1 / (1 + math.e ** -z)

### END SOLUTION ###

return g
```

When you are finished, try testing a few values by calling sigmoid(x) in the cell below.

- For large positive values of x, the sigmoid should be close to 1, while for large negative values, the sigmoid should be close to 0.
- Evaluating sigmoid(0) should give you exactly 0.5.

```
In [8]: # Note: You can edit this value
value = 0
print (f"sigmoid({value}) = {sigmoid(value)}")
sigmoid(0) = 0.5
```

Expected Output:

Expected Output:

sigmoid(0) 0.5

• As mentioned before, your code should also work with vectors and matrices. For a matrix, your function should perform the sigmoid function on every element.

sigmoid([-1, 0, 1, 2]) [0.26894142 0.5 0.73105858 0.88079708]

2.4 Cost function for logistic regression

In this section, you will implement the cost function for logistic regression.

Exercise 2: Compute_cost function

Complete the compute_cost function using the equations below.

Recall that for logistic regression, the cost function is of the form

$$J(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \left[loss(f_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), y^{(i)}) \right]$$

$$\tag{1}$$

where

- m is the number of training examples in the dataset
- $loss(f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}),y^{(i)})$ is the cost for a single data point, which is -

$$loss(f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), y^{(i)}) = \left(-y^{(i)} \log \left(f_{\mathbf{w},b}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right) - \left(1 - y^{(i)}\right) \log \left(1 - f_{\mathbf{w},b}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right)$$
(2)

- ullet $f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ is the model's prediction, while $y^{(i)}$, which is the actual label
- $f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = g(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)$ where function g is the sigmoid function.
 - It might be helpful to first calculate an intermediate variable $z_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b = w_0 x_0^{(i)} + \ldots + w_{n-1} x_{n-1}^{(i)} + b \text{ where } n \text{ is the number of features,}$ before calculating $f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = g(z_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}))$

Note:

- As you are doing this, remember that the variables X_{train} and y_{train} are not scalar values but matrices of shape (m, n) and (m, 1) respectively, where n is the number of features and m is the number of training examples.
- You can use the sigmoid function that you implemented above for this part.

```
In [10]: # GRADED FUNCTION: compute cost
         def compute_cost(X, y, w, b, lambda_= 1):
             Computes the cost over all examples
             Args:
               X : (ndarray Shape (m,n)) data, m examples by n features
               y : (array like Shape (m,)) target value
               w : (array_like Shape (n,)) Values of parameters of the model
               b : scalar Values of bias parameter of the model
               lambda_: unused placeholder
             Returns:
               total_cost: (scalar)
                                            cost
             m, n = X.shape
             ### START CODE HERE ###
             predictions = sigmoid(np.dot(X, w) + b)
             total_cost = np.sum(-y * np.log(predictions) - (1 - y) * np.log(1 - predictions))
             total_cost /= m
             ### END CODE HERE ###
```

```
return total_cost
```

Run the cells below to check your implementation of the $compute_cost$ function with two different initializations of the parameters w

```
In [11]: m, n = X_train.shape

# Compute and display cost with w initialized to zeroes
initial_w = np.zeros(n)
initial_b = 0.
cost = compute_cost(X_train, y_train, initial_w, initial_b)
print('Cost at initial w (zeros): {:.3f}'.format(cost))
Cost at initial w (zeros): 0.693
```

Expected Output:

Cost at initial w (zeros) 0.693

```
In [12]: # Compute and display cost with non-zero w
  test_w = np.array([0.2, 0.2])
  test_b = -24.
  cost = compute_cost(X_train, y_train, test_w, test_b)

print('Cost at test w,b: {:.3f}'.format(cost))

# UNIT TESTS
compute_cost_test(compute_cost)
```

All tests passed! Expected Output:

Cost at test w,b: 0.218

Cost at test w,b 0.218

2.5 Gradient for logistic regression

In this section, you will implement the gradient for logistic regression.

Recall that the gradient descent algorithm is:

```
repeat until convergence: {
b := b - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w}, b)}{\partial b}
w_j := w_j - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w}, b)}{\partial w_j} \qquad \text{for j := 0..n-1}
}
```

where, parameters b, w_i are all updated simultaniously

Exercise 3: Compute_gradient function

Complete the compute_gradient function to compute $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial w}$, $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial b}$ from equations (2) and (3) below.

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w}, b)}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \mathbf{y}^{(i)})$$
(2)

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w}, b)}{\partial w_j} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \mathbf{y}^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$

$$(3)$$

- m is the number of training examples in the dataset
- $f_{\mathbf{w},b}(x^{(i)})$ is the model's prediction, while $y^{(i)}$ is the actual label
- **Note**: While this gradient looks identical to the linear regression gradient, the formula is actually different because linear and logistic regression have different definitions of $f_{\mathbf{w},b}(x)$.

As before, you can use the sigmoid function that you implemented above.

```
In [13]: # GRADED FUNCTION: compute_gradient
         def compute_gradient(X, y, w, b, lambda_=None):
             Computes the gradient for logistic regression
             Args:
               X : (ndarray Shape (m,n)) variable such as house size
               y : (array_like Shape (m,1)) actual value
               w : (array_like Shape (n,1)) values of parameters of the model
                                            value of parameter of the model
               b : (scalar)
               lambda : unused placeholder.
               dj_dw: (array_like Shape (n,1)) The gradient of the cost w.r.t. the parameters w.
               dj_db: (scalar)
                                             The gradient of the cost w.r.t. the parameter b.
             m, n = X.shape
             dj dw = np.zeros(w.shape)
             dj_db = 0.
             ### START CODE HERE ###
             predictions = sigmoid(np.dot(X, w) + b)
             errors = (predictions - y) / m
             dj_db = np.sum(errors)
             dj_dw = np.dot(errors, X)
             ### END CODE HERE ###
             return dj_db, dj_dw
```

Run the cells below to check your implementation of the $\c compute_gradient$ function with two different initializations of the parameters $\c w$

```
In [14]: # Compute and display gradient with w initialized to zeroes
  initial_w = np.zeros(n)
  initial_b = 0.

dj_db, dj_dw = compute_gradient(X_train, y_train, initial_w, initial_b)
```

Expected Output:

```
dj_db at initial w (zeros) -0.1
ddj_dw at initial w (zeros): [-12.00921658929115, -11.262842205513591]
```

```
In [15]: # Compute and display cost and gradient with non-zero w
    test_w = np.array([ 0.2, -0.5])
    test_b = -24
    dj_db, dj_dw = compute_gradient(X_train, y_train, test_w, test_b)

print('dj_db at test_w:', dj_db)
    print('dj_dw at test_w:', dj_dw.tolist())

# UNIT TESTS
    compute_gradient_test(compute_gradient)

dj_db at test_w: -0.599999999991072
    dj_dw at test_w: [-44.8313536178738, -44.37384124953978]
All tests passed!
```

Expected Output:

```
dj_db at initial w (zeros) -0.59999999991071
ddj_dw at initial w (zeros): [-44.8313536178737957, -44.37384124953978]
```

2.6 Learning parameters using gradient descent

Similar to the previous assignment, you will now find the optimal parameters of a logistic regression model by using gradient descent.

- You don't need to implement anything for this part. Simply run the cells below.
- A good way to verify that gradient descent is working correctly is to look at the value of $J(\mathbf{w}, b)$ and check that it is decreasing with each step.
- Assuming you have implemented the gradient and computed the cost correctly, your value of $J(\mathbf{w}, b)$ should never increase, and should converge to a steady value by the end of the algorithm.

```
num iters : (int)
                                 number of iterations to run gradient descent
  lambda_ (scalar, float)
                                 regularization constant
Returns:
  w : (array_like Shape (n,)) Updated values of parameters of the model after
     running gradient descent
  b : (scalar)
                             Updated value of parameter of the model after
     running gradient descent
# number of training examples
m = len(X)
# An array to store cost J and w's at each iteration primarily for graphing later
J_history = []
w_history = []
for i in range(num_iters):
    # Calculate the gradient and update the parameters
    dj_db, dj_dw = gradient_function(X, y, w_in, b_in, lambda_)
    # Update Parameters using w, b, alpha and gradient
    w_in = w_in - alpha * dj_dw
    b_in = b_in - alpha * dj_db
    # Save cost J at each iteration
    if i<100000: # prevent resource exhaustion</pre>
       cost = cost_function(X, y, w_in, b_in, lambda_)
       J_history.append(cost)
    # Print cost every at intervals 10 times or as many iterations if < 10
    if i% math.ceil(num iters/10) == 0 or i == (num iters-1):
       w_history.append(w_in)
       print(f"Iteration {i:4}: Cost {float(J_history[-1]):8.2f}
return w_in, b_in, J_history, w_history #return w and J,w history for graphing
```

Now let's run the gradient descent algorithm above to learn the parameters for our dataset.

Note

The code block below takes a couple of minutes to run, especially with a non-vectorized version. You can reduce the iterations to test your implementation and iterate faster. If you have time later, try running 100,000 iterations for better results.

```
0: Cost
                         1.01
Iteration
Iteration 1000: Cost
                         0.31
                         0.30
Iteration 2000: Cost
Iteration 3000: Cost
                         0.30
Iteration 4000: Cost
                         0.30
Iteration 5000: Cost
                         0.30
Iteration 6000: Cost
                         0.30
Iteration 7000: Cost
                         0.30
                         0.30
Iteration 8000: Cost
Iteration 9000: Cost
                         0.30
Iteration 9999: Cost
                         0.30
```

► Expected Output: Cost 0.30, (Click to see details):

2.7 Plotting the decision boundary

We will now use the final parameters from gradient descent to plot the linear fit. If you implemented the previous parts correctly, you should see the following plot:

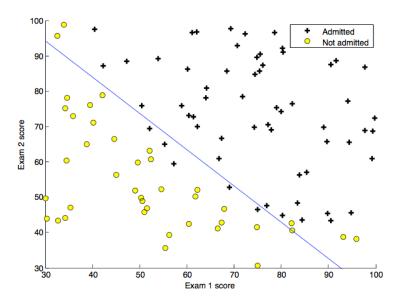
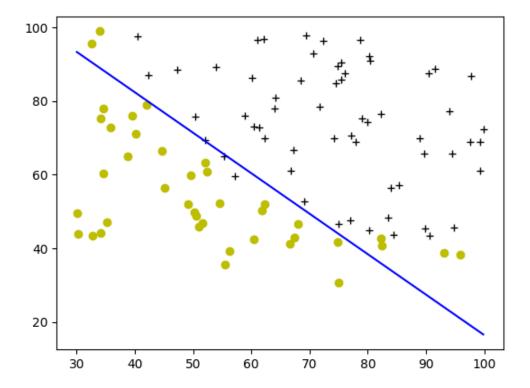


Figure 2: Training data with decision boundary

We will use a helper function in the utils.py file to create this plot.

```
In [18]: plot_decision_boundary(w, b, X_train, y_train)
```



2.8 Evaluating logistic regression

We can evaluate the quality of the parameters we have found by seeing how well the learned model predicts on our training set.

You will implement the predict function below to do this.

Exercise 4

Please complete the $\mbox{predict}$ function to produce $\mbox{1}$ or $\mbox{0}$ predictions given a dataset and a learned parameter vector \mbox{w} and \mbox{b} .

- First you need to compute the prediction from the model $f(x^{(i)}) = g(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)$ for every example
 - You've implemented this before in the parts above
- We interpret the output of the model $(f(x^{(i)}))$ as the probability that $y^{(i)}=1$ given $x^{(i)}$ and parameterized by w.
- ullet Therefore, to get a final prediction ($y^{(i)}=0$ or $y^{(i)}=1$) from the logistic regression model, you can use the following heuristic -

if
$$f(x^{(i)})>=0.5$$
, predict $y^{(i)}=1$ if $f(x^{(i)})<0.5$, predict $y^{(i)}=0$

```
In [19]: # GRADED FUNCTION: predict

def predict(X, w, b):
```

Once you have completed the function <code>predict</code> , let's run the code below to report the training accuracy of your classifier by computing the percentage of examples it got correct.

```
In [20]: # Test your predict code
    np.random.seed(1)
    tmp_w = np.random.randn(2)
    tmp_b = 0.3
    tmp_X = np.random.randn(4, 2) - 0.5

tmp_p = predict(tmp_X, tmp_w, tmp_b)
    print(f'Output of predict: shape {tmp_p.shape}, value {tmp_p}')

# UNIT TESTS
    predict_test(predict)

Output of predict: shape (4,), value [0 1 1 1]
    All tests passed!
```

Expected output

Output of predict: shape (4,),value [0. 1. 1. 1.]

Now let's use this to compute the accuracy on the training set

```
In [21]: #Compute accuracy on our training set
p = predict(X_train, w,b)
print('Train Accuracy: %f'%(np.mean(p == y_train) * 100))
```

Train Accuracy: 92.000000

Train Accuracy (approx): 92.00

3 - Regularized Logistic Regression

In this part of the exercise, you will implement regularized logistic regression to predict whether microchips from a fabrication plant passes quality assurance (QA). During QA, each microchip goes

through various tests to ensure it is functioning correctly.

3.1 Problem Statement

Suppose you are the product manager of the factory and you have the test results for some microchips on two different tests.

- From these two tests, you would like to determine whether the microchips should be accepted or rejected.
- To help you make the decision, you have a dataset of test results on past microchips, from which you can build a logistic regression model.

3.2 Loading and visualizing the data

Similar to previous parts of this exercise, let's start by loading the dataset for this task and visualizing it.

- The load dataset() function shown below loads the data into variables X train and y train
 - X_train contains the test results for the microchips from two tests
 - y_train contains the results of the QA
 - o y_train = 1 if the microchip was accepted
 - o y train = 0 if the microchip was rejected
 - Both X_train and y_train are numpy arrays.

```
In [22]: # Load dataset
X_train, y_train = load_data("data/ex2data2.txt")
```

View the variables

The code below prints the first five values of X_train and y_train and the type of the variables.

Check the dimensions of your variables

Another useful way to get familiar with your data is to view its dimensions. Let's print the shape of X_train and y_train and see how many training examples we have in our dataset.

```
In [24]: print ('The shape of X_train is: ' + str(X_train.shape))
    print ('The shape of y_train is: ' + str(y_train.shape))
    print ('We have m = %d training examples' % (len(y_train)))
```

```
The shape of X_train is: (118, 2)
The shape of y_train is: (118,)
We have m = 118 training examples
```

Visualize your data

The helper function plot_data (from utils.py) is used to generate a figure like Figure 3, where the axes are the two test scores, and the positive (y = 1, accepted) and negative (y = 0, rejected) examples are shown with different markers.

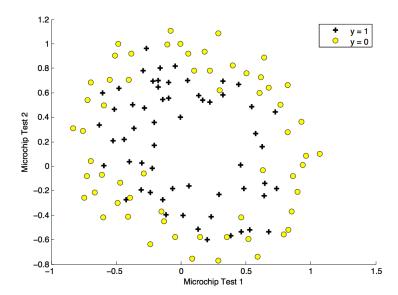


Figure 3: Plot of training data

```
In [25]: # Plot examples
plot_data(X_train, y_train[:], pos_label="Accepted", neg_label="Rejected")

# Set the y-axis label
plt.ylabel('Microchip Test 2')
# Set the x-axis label
plt.xlabel('Microchip Test 1')
plt.legend(loc="upper right")
plt.show()
```

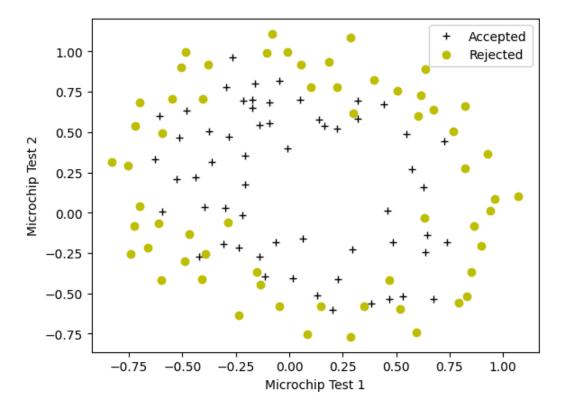


Figure 3 shows that our dataset cannot be separated into positive and negative examples by a straight-line through the plot. Therefore, a straight forward application of logistic regression will not perform well on this dataset since logistic regression will only be able to find a linear decision boundary.

3.3 Feature mapping

One way to fit the data better is to create more features from each data point. In the provided function map_feature, we will map the features into all polynomial terms of x_1 and x_2 up to the sixth power.

$$ext{map_feature}(x) = egin{bmatrix} x_1 \ x_2 \ x_1^2 \ x_1x_2 \ x_1^2 \ x_1^3 \ dots \ x_1x_2^5 \ x_2^6 \ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

As a result of this mapping, our vector of two features (the scores on two QA tests) has been transformed into a 27-dimensional vector.

- A logistic regression classifier trained on this higher-dimension feature vector will have a more complex decision boundary and will be nonlinear when drawn in our 2-dimensional plot.
- The map feature function is provided for you in utils.py.

```
In [26]: print("Original shape of data:", X_train.shape)

mapped_X = map_feature(X_train[:, 0], X_train[:, 1])
print("Shape after feature mapping:", mapped_X.shape)
```

Original shape of data: (118, 2) Shape after feature mapping: (118, 27)

Let's also print the first elements of X train and mapped X to see the tranformation.

```
In [27]: print("X_train[0]:", X_train[0])
    print("mapped X_train[0]:", mapped_X[0])

X_train[0]: [0.051267 0.69956 ]
    mapped X_train[0]: [5.12670000e-02 6.99560000e-01 2.62830529e-03 3.58643425e-02
    4.89384194e-01 1.34745327e-04 1.83865725e-03 2.50892595e-02
    3.42353606e-01 6.90798869e-06 9.42624411e-05 1.28625106e-03
    1.75514423e-02 2.39496889e-01 3.54151856e-07 4.83255257e-06
    6.59422333e-05 8.99809795e-04 1.22782870e-02 1.67542444e-01
    1.81563032e-08 2.47750473e-07 3.38066048e-06 4.61305487e-05
    6.29470940e-04 8.58939846e-03 1.17205992e-01]
```

While the feature mapping allows us to build a more expressive classifier, it is also more susceptible to overfitting. In the next parts of the exercise, you will implement regularized logistic regression to fit the data and also see for yourself how regularization can help combat the overfitting problem.

3.4 Cost function for regularized logistic regression

In this part, you will implement the cost function for regularized logistic regression.

Recall that for regularized logistic regression, the cost function is of the form

$$J(\mathbf{w},b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \left[-y^{(i)} \log \left(f_{\mathbf{w},b}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \right) - \left(1-y^{(i)}\right) \log \left(1-f_{\mathbf{w},b}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) \right) \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} w_j^2$$

Compare this to the cost function without regularization (which you implemented above), which is of the form

$$J(\mathbf{w}.\,b) = rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=0}^{m-1}\left[\left(-y^{(i)}\log\!\left(f_{\mathbf{w},b}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}
ight)
ight) - \left(1-y^{(i)}
ight)\log\!\left(1-f_{\mathbf{w},b}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}
ight)
ight)
ight]$$

The difference is the regularization term, which is

$$\frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} w_j^2$$

Note that the b parameter is not regularized.

Exercise 5: Compute_cost_reg function

Please complete the $compute_cost_reg$ function below to calculate the following term for each element in w

$$rac{\lambda}{2m}\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}w_j^2$$

The starter code then adds this to the cost without regularization (which you computed above in compute cost) to calculate the cost with regulatization.

```
In [28]: # GRADED FUNCTION: compute cost reg
        def compute_cost_reg(X, y, w, b, lambda_ = 1):
            Computes the cost over all examples
            Args:
             X : (array_like Shape (m,n)) data, m examples by n features
              y : (array_like Shape (m,)) target value
              w : (array_like Shape (n,)) Values of parameters of the model
              b : (array_like Shape (n,)) Values of bias parameter of the model
              Returns:
              total_cost: (scalar)
                                   cost
            m, n = X.shape
            # Calls the compute_cost function that you implemented above
            cost without reg = compute cost(X, y, w, b)
            # You need to calculate this value
            reg cost = 0.
            ### START CODE HERE ###
            reg cost = np.sum(w ** 2)
            ### END CODE HERE ###
            # Add the regularization cost to get the total cost
            total cost = cost without reg + (lambda /(2 * m)) * reg cost
            return total cost
```

Run the cell below to check your implementation of the compute cost reg function.

Regularized cost : 0.6618252552483951 All tests passed!

Expected Output:

Regularized cost: 0.6618252552483948

3.5 Gradient for regularized logistic regression

In this section, you will implement the gradient for regularized logistic regression.

The gradient of the regularized cost function has two components. The first, $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial b}$ is a scalar, the other is a vector with the same shape as the parameters \mathbf{w} , where the j^{th} element is defined as follows:

$$rac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial b} = rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})$$

$$rac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial w_j} = \left(rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=0}^{m-1}(f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})-y^{(i)})x_j^{(i)}
ight) + rac{\lambda}{m}w_j \quad ext{for } j=0...(n-1)$$

Compare this to the gradient of the cost function without regularization (which you implemented above), which is of the form

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w}, b)}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \mathbf{y}^{(i)})$$

$$(2)$$

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w}, b)}{\partial w_j} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \mathbf{y}^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$
(3)

As you can see, $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial b}$ is the same, the difference is the following term in $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial w}$, which is

$$rac{\lambda}{m}w_j \quad ext{for } j=0...(n-1)$$

Exercise 6: Compute_gradient_reg function

Please complete the compute_gradient_reg function below to modify the code below to calculate the following term

$$\frac{\lambda}{m}w_j$$
 for $j=0...(n-1)$

The starter code will add this term to the $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w},b)}{\partial w}$ returned from **compute_gradient** above to get the gradient for the regularized cost function.

```
m, n = X.shape

dj_db, dj_dw = compute_gradient(X, y, w, b)

### START CODE HERE ###

dj_dw += lambda_ * w / m

### END CODE HERE ###

return dj_db, dj_dw
```

Run the cell below to check your implementation of the compute gradient reg function.

Expected Output:

All tests passed!

```
dj db:0.07138288792343656
```

First few elements of regularized dj dw:

3.6 Learning parameters using gradient descent

Similar to the previous parts, you will use your gradient descent function implemented above to learn the optimal parameters w_ib .

- If you have completed the cost and gradient for regularized logistic regression correctly, you should be able to step through the next cell to learn the parameters w.
- After training our parameters, we will use it to plot the decision boundary.

Note

The code block below takes quite a while to run, especially with a non-vectorized version. You can reduce the iterations to test your implementation and iterate faster. If you have time later, run for 100,000 iterations to see better results.

```
In [32]: # Initialize fitting parameters
        np.random.seed(1)
         initial_w = np.random.rand(X_mapped.shape[1])-0.5
         initial b = 1.
         # Set regularization parameter lambda_ (you can try varying this)
         lambda = 0.01
         # Some gradient descent settings
         iterations = 10000
         alpha = 0.01
         w,b, J_history,_ = gradient_descent(X_mapped, y_train, initial_w, initial_b,
                                           compute_cost_reg, compute_gradient_reg,
                                           alpha, iterations, lambda_)
       Iteration 0: Cost
                               0.72
       Iteration 1000: Cost 0.59
       Iteration 2000: Cost 0.56
       Iteration 3000: Cost 0.53
       Iteration 4000: Cost 0.51
       Iteration 5000: Cost 0.50
       Iteration 6000: Cost 0.48
       Iteration 7000: Cost 0.47
       Iteration 8000: Cost 0.46
       Iteration 9000: Cost 0.45
```

► Expected Output: Cost < 0.5 (Click for details)

0.45

Iteration 9999: Cost

3.7 Plotting the decision boundary

To help you visualize the model learned by this classifier, we will use our plot_decision_boundary function which plots the (non-linear) decision boundary that separates the positive and negative examples.

- In the function, we plotted the non-linear decision boundary by computing the classifier's predictions on an evenly spaced grid and then drew a contour plot of where the predictions change from y = 0 to y = 1.
- After learning the parameters w,b, the next step is to plot a decision boundary similar to Figure 4.

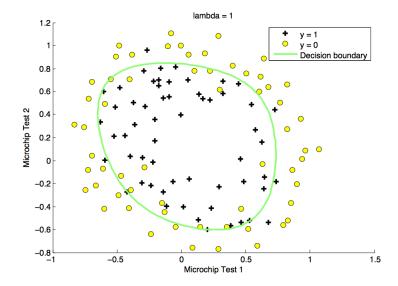
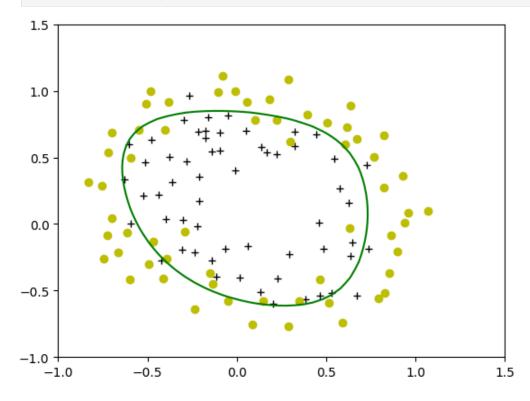


Figure 4: Training data with decision boundary ($\lambda = 1$)

In [33]: plot_decision_boundary(w, b, X_mapped, y_train)



3.8 Evaluating regularized logistic regression model

You will use the predict function that you implemented above to calculate the accuracy of the regulaized logistic regression model on the training set

```
In [34]: #Compute accuracy on the training set
p = predict(X_mapped, w, b)
print('Train Accuracy: %f'%(np.mean(p == y_train) * 100))
```

Train Accuracy: 82.203390

Expected Output:

Train Accuracy:~ 80%