

**ECE 20875**

# Python for Data Science

**Chris Brinton and David Inouye**

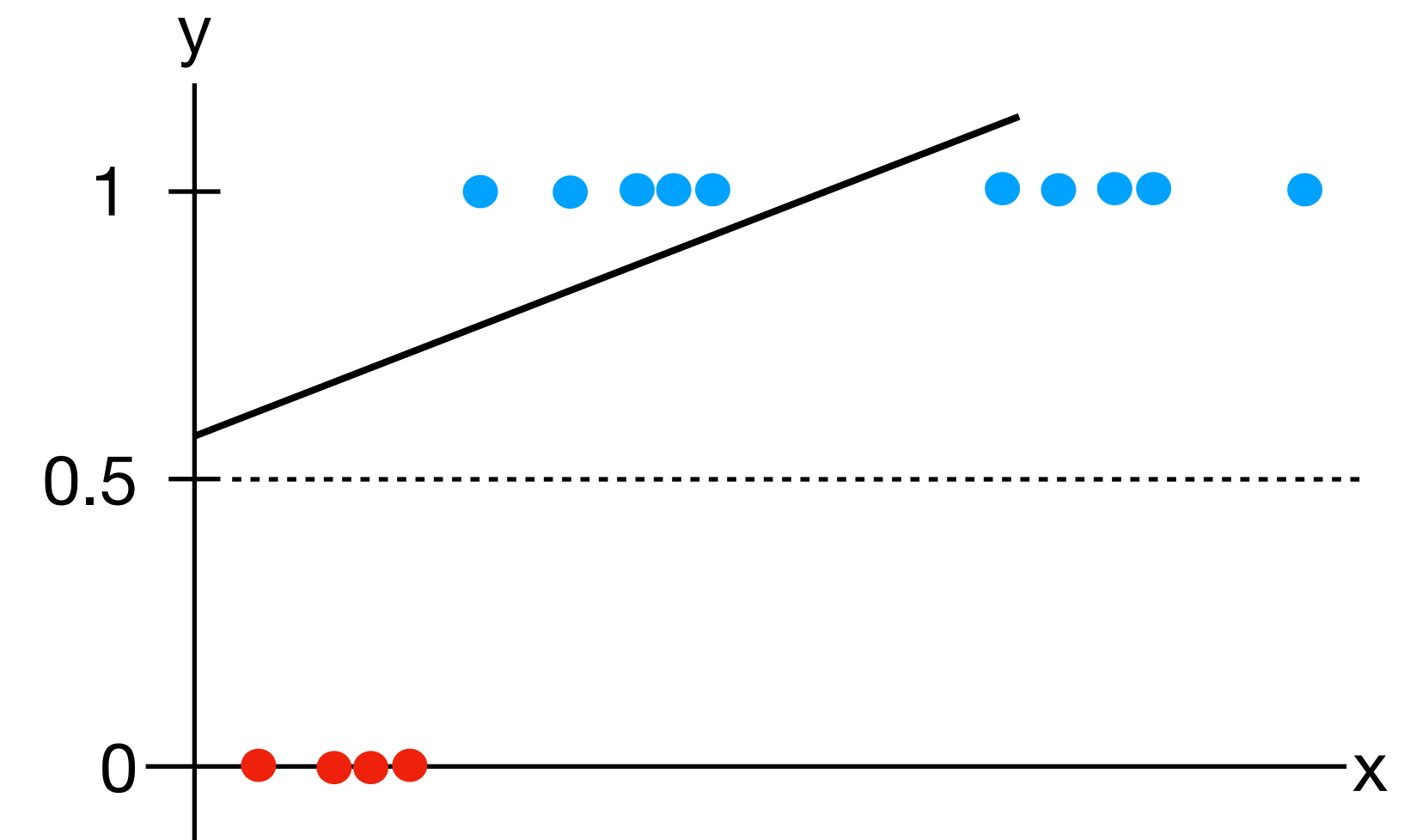
**logistic regression**

# regression with two classes

- With linear regression, we model the relationship between features and target with a linear equation:

$$\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_m x_m$$

- Now, suppose we have two classes, i.e.,  $y \in \{0, 1\}$ . We could use linear regression, but ...
  - it will treat the classes as numbers, interpolating between the points
  - it cannot be interpreted as a probability
  - how would we generalize to multiple classes?



- Need a decision threshold, i.e.,  $y = 0.5$
- In this case, we would never predict the class  $y = 0$ , regardless of what  $x$  is!

# logistic regression model

- Instead of fitting a **hyperplane** (a line generalized to more than one dimension), use the **logistic function**

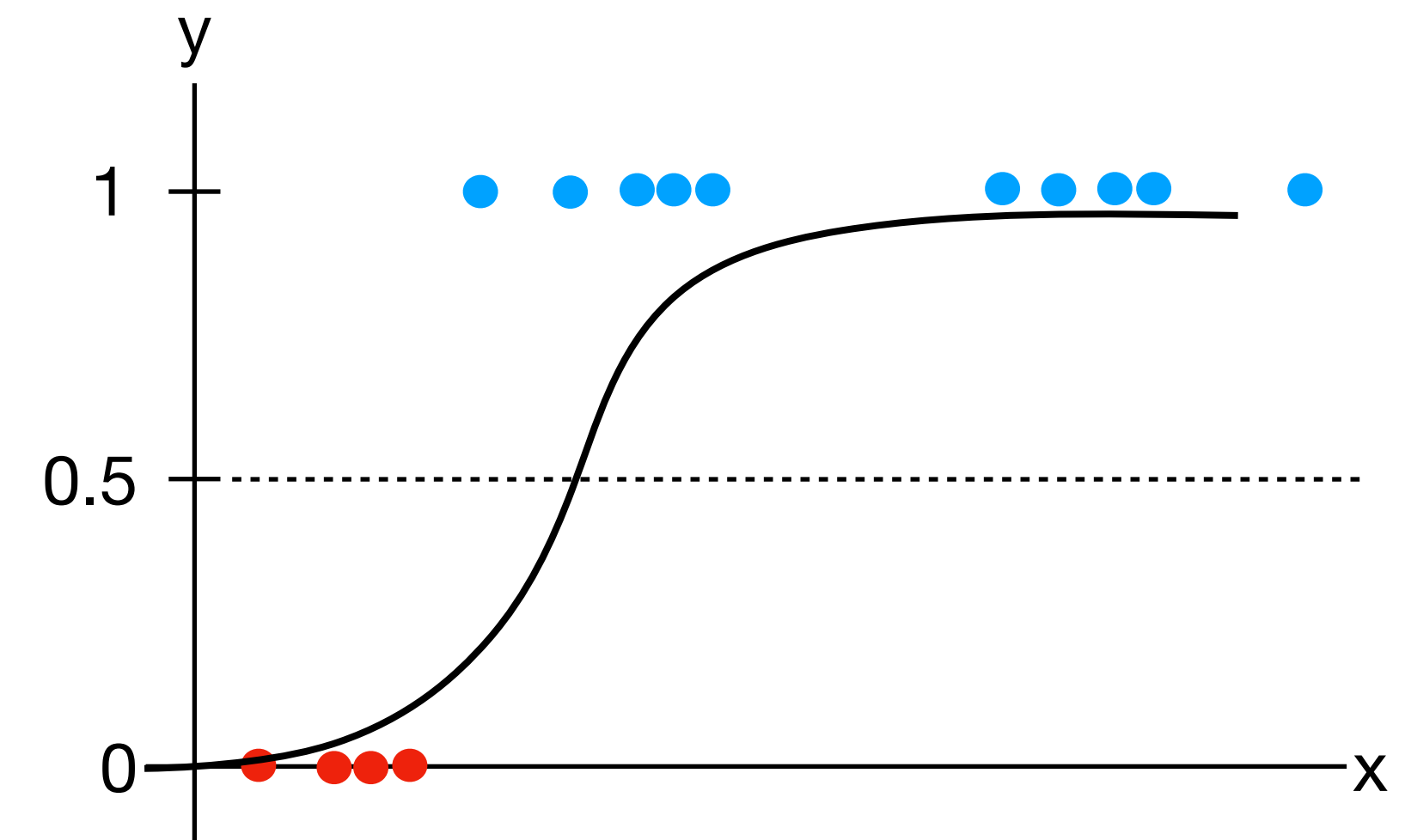
$$g(v) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-v}}$$

to translate the output of linear regression to between 0 (as  $v \rightarrow -\infty$ ) and 1 (as  $v \rightarrow \infty$ )

- Also note that  $1 - g(v) = \frac{e^{-v}}{1 + e^{-v}}$  (useful for derivations)

- This converts the outputs to probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\beta}(x) &= g(\beta_0 + \beta^T x) = \frac{P(y = 1 | x)}{1} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))} \end{aligned}$$



- Now the **decision rule**

- $\hat{y}(x) \geq 0.5 \rightarrow \hat{y} = 1$
- $\hat{y}(x) < 0.5 \rightarrow \hat{y} = 0$

has a probabilistic interpretation

# interpreting coefficients

- In linear regression, the effect of a coefficient is clear:  $\beta_j x_j$  means for every unit change in  $x_j$ , the model changes by  $\beta_j$
- For logistic regression, we need to find a different interpretation, since the weights no longer have a linear effect
- Consider the **odds**, i.e., the ratio  $P(y = 1 | x) / P(y = 0 | x)$ :

$$\frac{P(y = 1 | x)}{P(y = 0 | x)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))} \cdot \frac{1 + \exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))}{\exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))}$$

# interpreting coefficients

- In linear regression, the effect of a coefficient is clear:  $\beta_j x_j$  means for every unit change in  $x_j$ , the model changes by  $\beta_j$
- For logistic regression, we need to find a different interpretation, since the weights no longer have a linear effect
- Consider the **odds**, i.e., the ratio  $P(y = 1 | x) / P(y = 0 | x)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P(y = 1 | x)}{P(y = 0 | x)} &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))} \cdot \frac{1 + \exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))}{\exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))} \\ &= \frac{1}{\exp(-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m))} = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_m x_m) \end{aligned}$$

# interpreting coefficients

- Then we consider the ratio of the odds when  $x_j$  is increased by 1:

$$\frac{\text{odds}_{x_j+1}}{\text{odds}_{x_j}} = \frac{\exp(\dots + \beta_j(x_j + 1) + \dots)}{\exp(\dots + \beta_j x_j + \dots)} = e^{\beta_j}$$

- Thus, a unit change in  $x_{ij}$  corresponds to a factor  $e^{\beta_j}$  change in the odds
  - $e^{\beta_j} > 1$ :  $x_j$  **increases** the odds
  - $e^{\beta_j} < 1$ :  $x_j$  **decreases** the odds

- Consider

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(- (3 + 2x_1 + 0.5x_2 - 3x_3))}$$

- For this model ...
  - $x_1$  and  $x_2$  **increase** the odds
  - $x_3$  **decreases** the odds
  - $x_3$  has the largest factor impact on the odds (assuming the features are normalized!)

# training logistic regression

- With linear regression, we can derive a closed-form solution for the parameters in terms of the least-squares equations
- For logistic regression, let's consider the **likelihood** of the model over data samples  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$L(\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | x_i, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n (f_{\beta}(x_i))^{y_i} \cdot (1 - f_{\beta}(x_i))^{1-y_i}$$

when  $y_i = 1$ , we want to maximize  $f_{\beta}(x_i)$ , and  
when  $y_i = 0$ , we want to maximize  $1 - f_{\beta}(x_i)$

- And then the **log likelihood**, which is easier to optimize (like we did with GMMs):

$$l(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left[ (f_{\beta}(x_i))^{y_i} \cdot (1 - f_{\beta}(x_i))^{1-y_i} \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ y_i \log f_{\beta}(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - f_{\beta}(x_i)) \right]$$

- There is no (known) closed form solution to maximize  $l(\beta)$ , given the  $\log f_{\beta}(x_i)$  terms



# gradient descent (ascent)

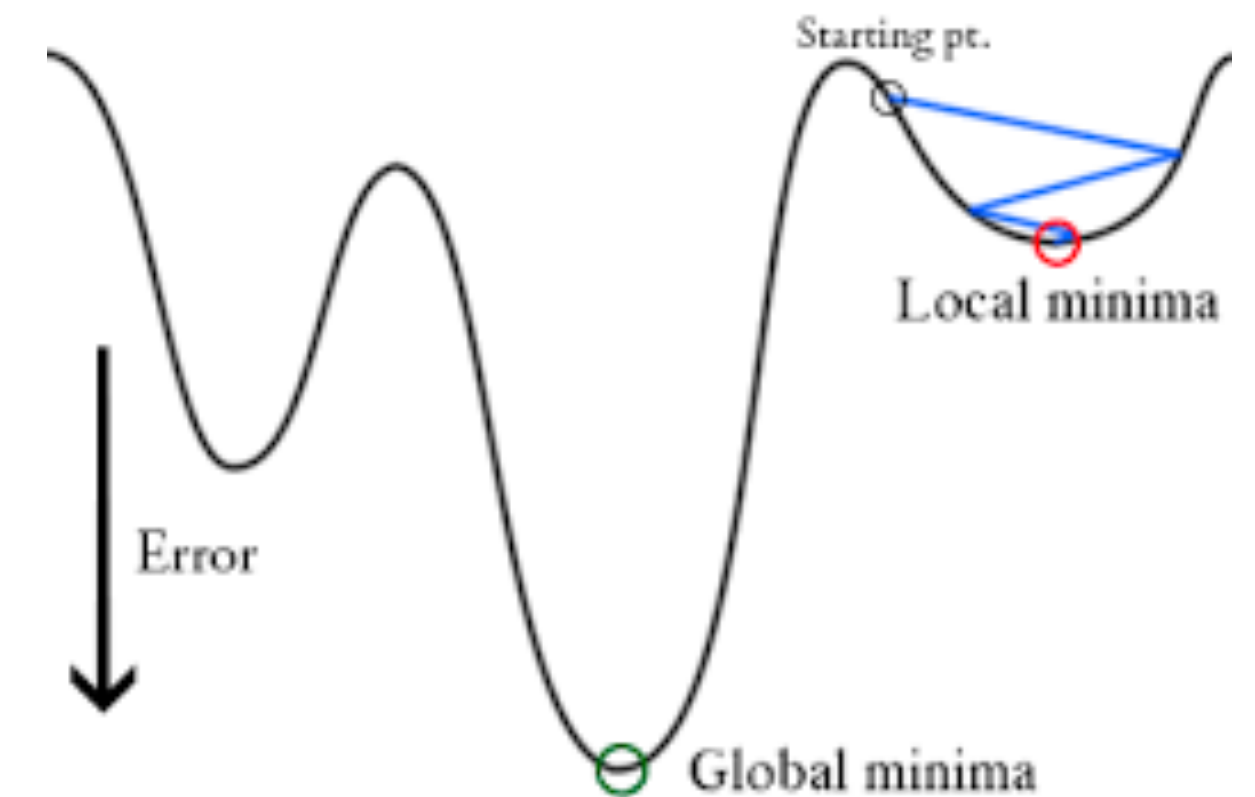
- We want to find  $\beta$  to *maximize*  $l(\beta)$
- Consider the **gradient descent (ascent)** algorithm, an iterative procedure for finding a **local minimum (maximum)** of a function by moving away from (towards) the gradient:

$$\beta_j^{t+1} = \beta_j^t - \alpha^t \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} l(\beta^t),$$

$$\beta_j^{t+1} = \beta_j^t + \alpha^t \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} l(\beta^t)$$

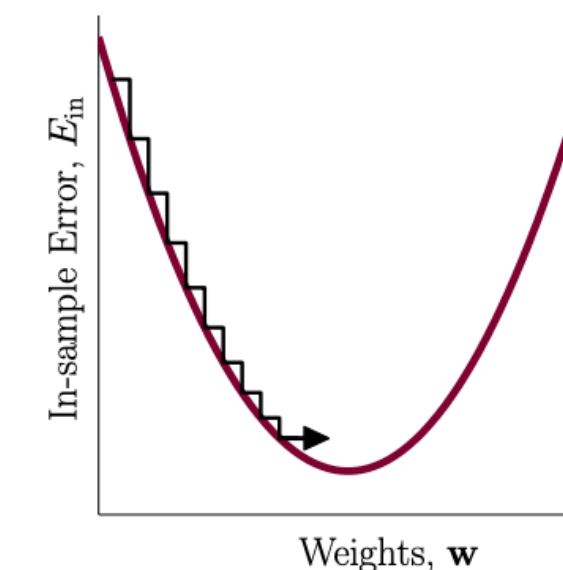
- Here,  $\alpha^t$  is the **step size** of the algorithm at time  $t$
- Since  $l(\beta)$  is a **concave** function, we can *guarantee* that gradient ascent will eventually converge to the **global maximum**, so long as certain conditions on  $\alpha^t$  are met

for non-convex functions,  
no guarantee of  
convergence to optimum

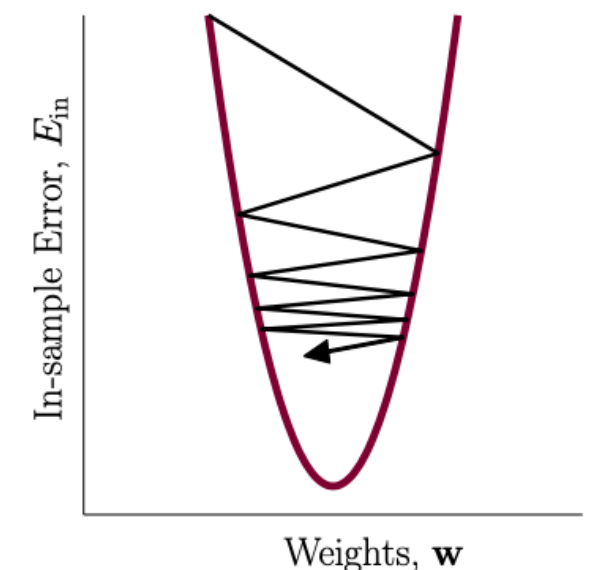


in general, the step size  
must be tuned correctly

$\eta$  too small



$\eta$  too large





# example

Suppose we have a single parameter  $b$  for some model we are trying to train. For this model, we find a log-likelihood function of

$$l(b) = - \left( \frac{b - m}{s} \right)^2$$

where  $m$  and  $s$  are constants. Derive the iterative procedure for determining the model parameters as a function of the step size  $\alpha^t$ . Run the procedure for different values of  $\alpha^t$  until  $t = 10$  and compare the results.

# solution

We always want to maximize the log-likelihood, so we use gradient ascent. Letting  $b^t$  be the value of  $b$  at iteration  $t$ , our update procedure will be:

$$b^{t+1} = b^t + \alpha^t \frac{d}{db} l(b^t)$$

Evaluating the derivative, this becomes:

$$b^{t+1} = b^t - 2\alpha^t \left( \frac{b^t - m}{s^2} \right)$$

Suppose  $\alpha = 0.1$ ,  $m = 5$ ,  $s = 0.7$ . If we start at  $b^0 = 1.1$  (arbitrary), we get

$$b^1 = 1.1 - 2 \cdot 0.1 \cdot \left( \frac{1.1 - 5}{0.7^2} \right) = 2.692$$

$$b^2 = 2.692 - 2 \cdot 0.1 \cdot \left( \frac{2.692 - 5}{0.7^2} \right) = 3.634$$

...

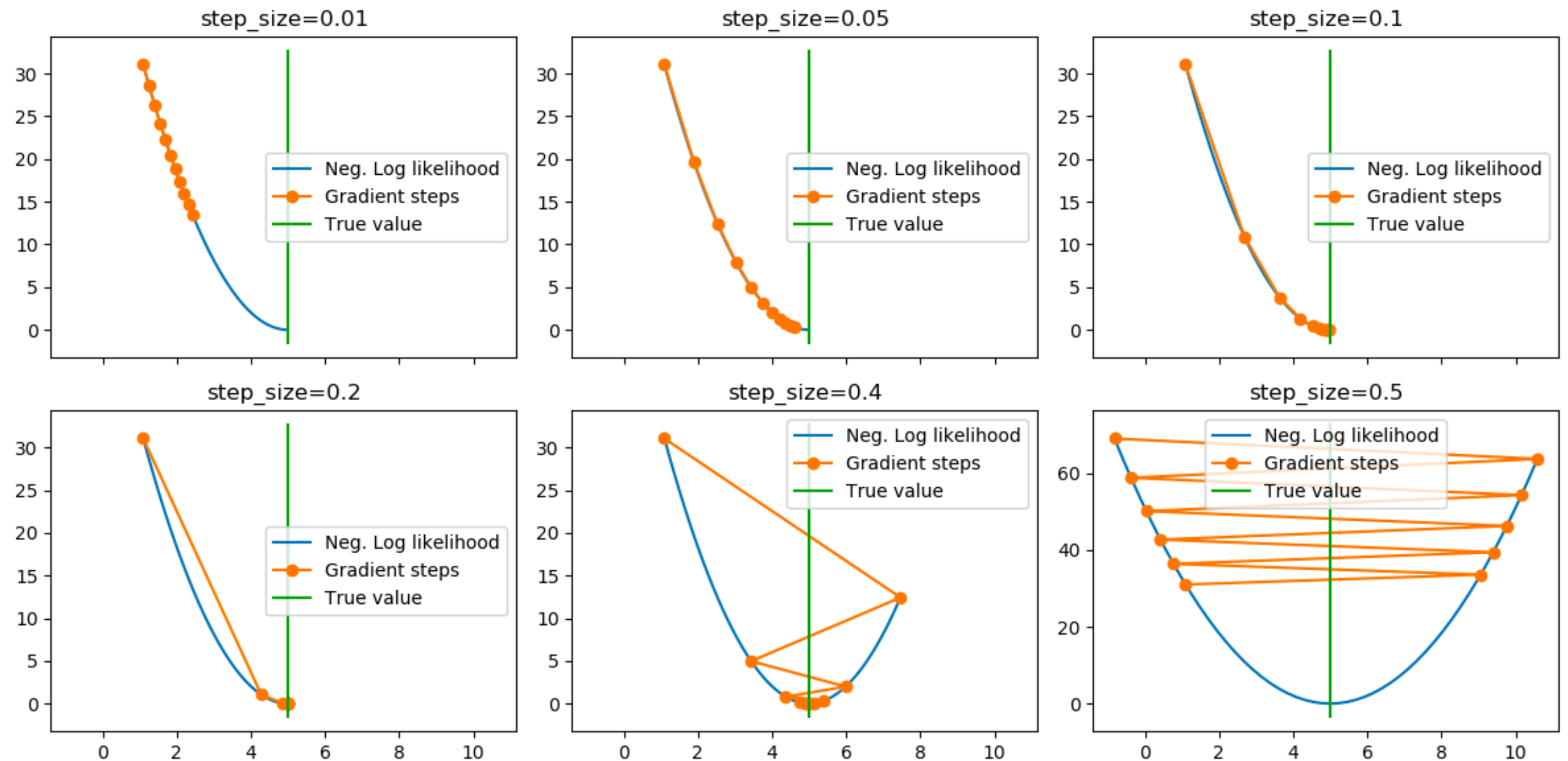
$$b^{10} = 4.965 - 2 \cdot 0.1 \cdot \left( \frac{4.965 - 5}{0.7^2} \right) = 4.979$$

# solution

Below, we plot the evolution of  $b^t$  over  $t$  (see the Jupyter notebook), starting with  $b^0 = 1.1$  for  $\alpha^t = 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.5$ . Again, we set  $m = 5$  and  $s = 0.7$ .

Here, the  $y$ -axis is actually  $-l(b)$ , to make the values positive. Maximizing the log-likelihood is equivalent to minimizing the negative log-likelihood.

Tuning  $\alpha^t$  is a very important question!

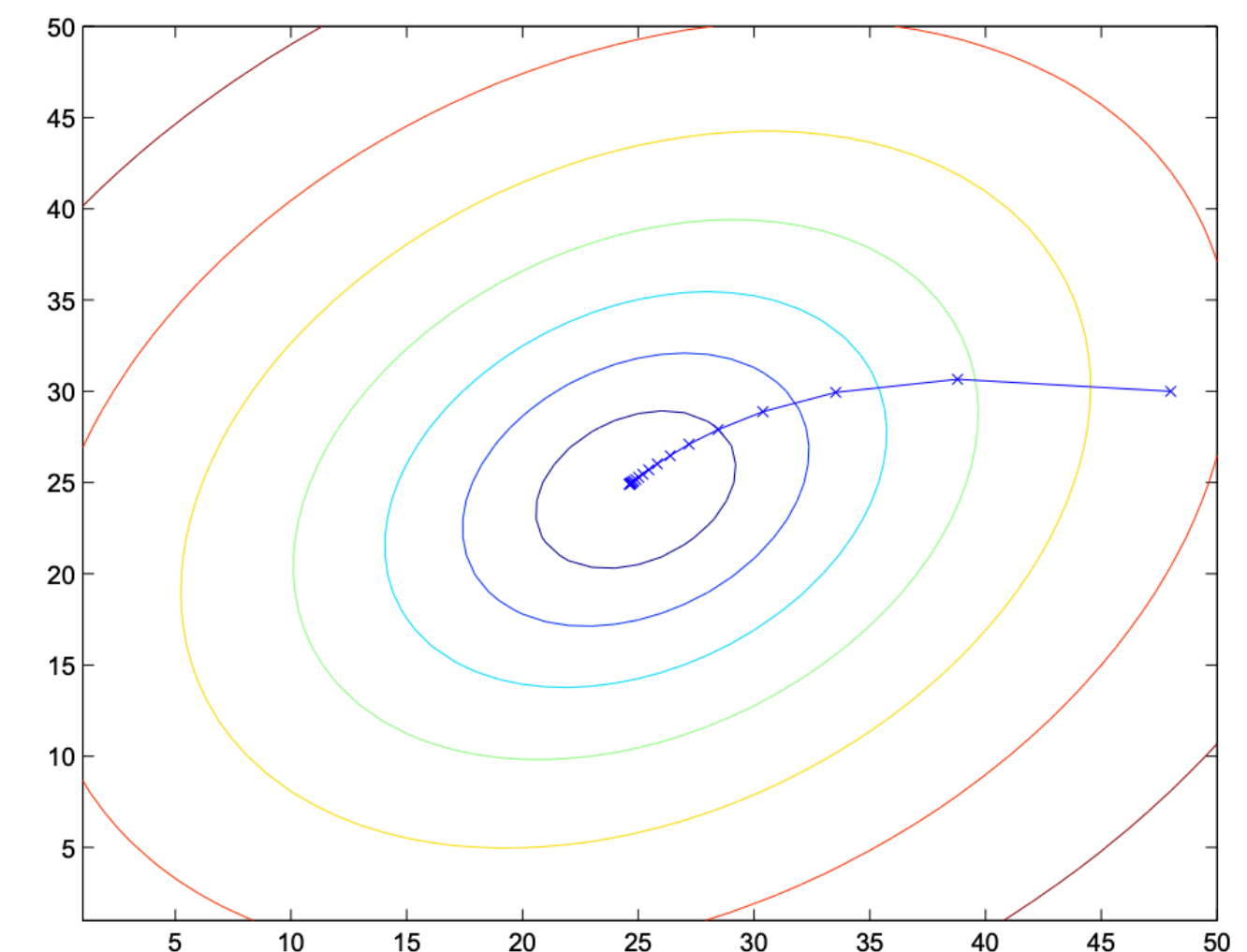
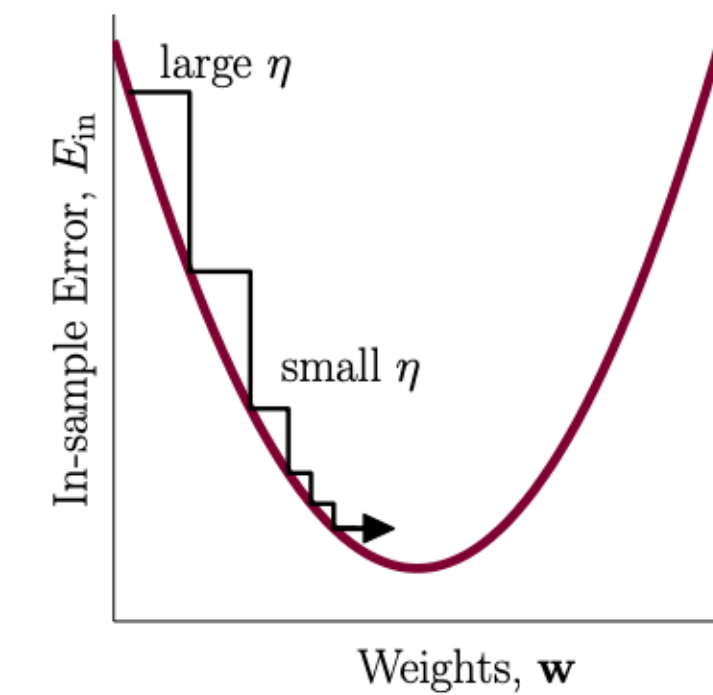


# gradient ascent for logistic regression

- Back to logistic regression. Evaluating the partial derivative,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} l(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_{\beta}(x_i)} - \frac{1 - y_i}{1 - f_{\beta}(x_i)} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} f_{\beta}(x_i)$$

variable  $\eta_t$  – just right

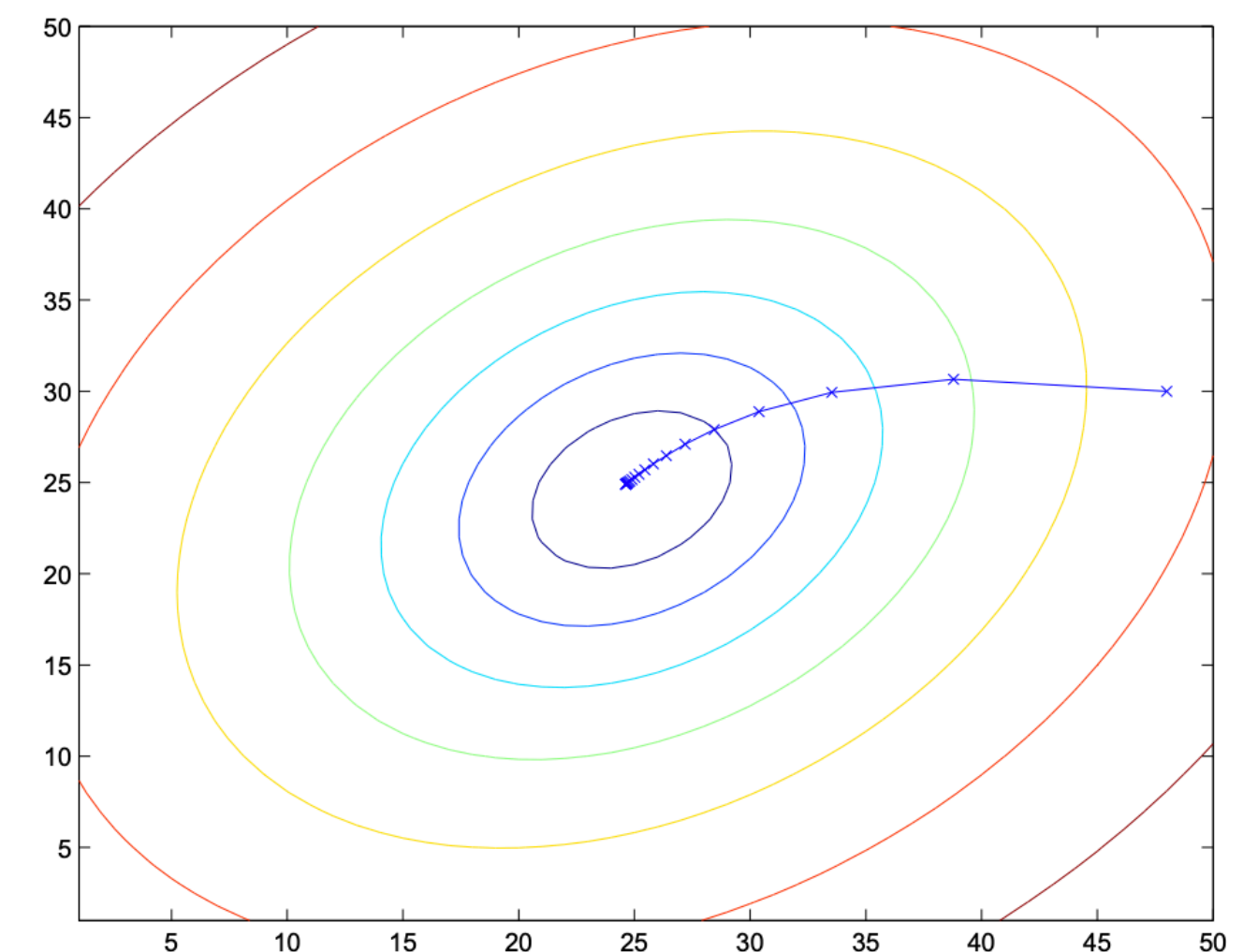
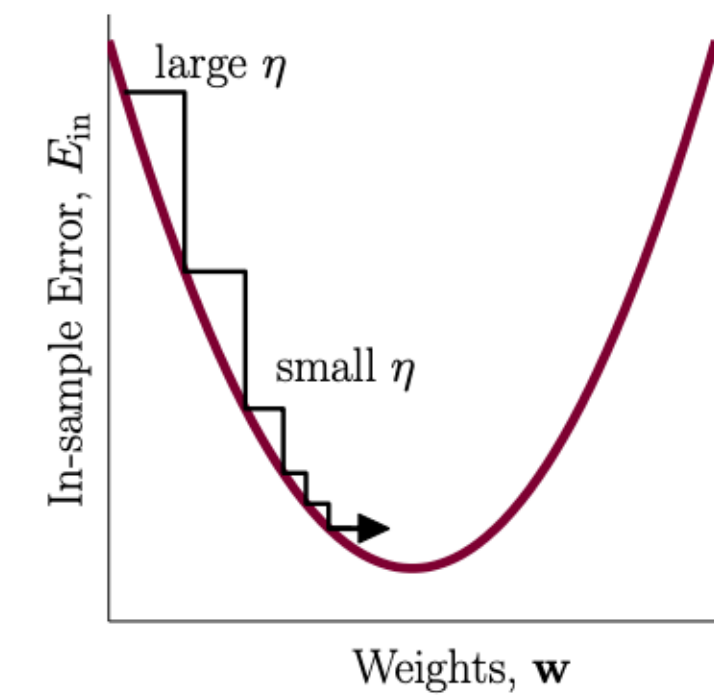


# gradient ascent for logistic regression

- Back to logistic regression. Evaluating the partial derivative,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} l(\beta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_\beta(x_i)} - \frac{1 - y_i}{1 - f_\beta(x_i)} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} f_\beta(x_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_\beta(x_i)} - \frac{1 - y_i}{1 - f_\beta(x_i)} \right) f_\beta(x_i)(1 - f_\beta(x_i)) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} (\dots + \beta_j x_{ij} + \dots)\end{aligned}$$

variable  $\eta_t$  – just right



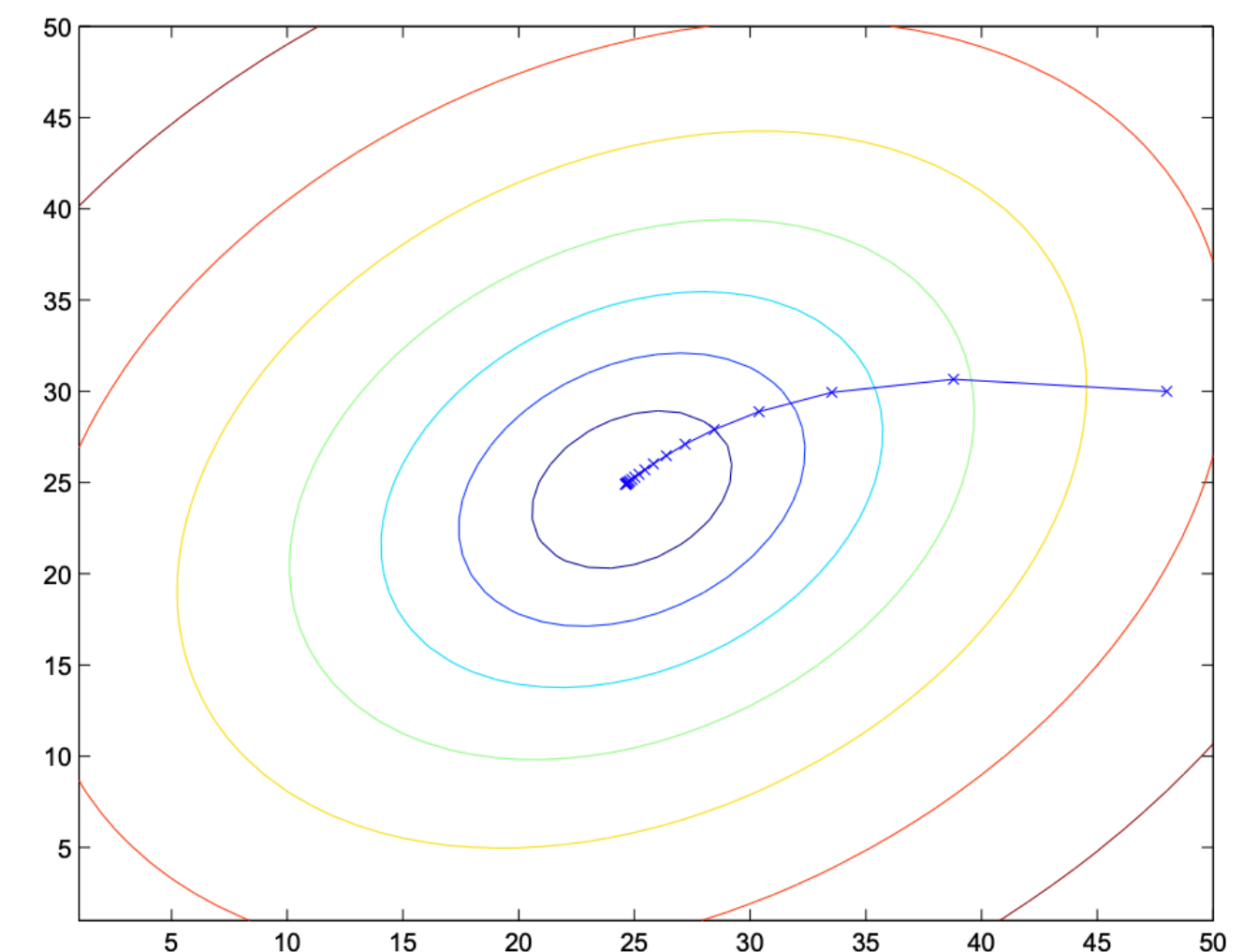
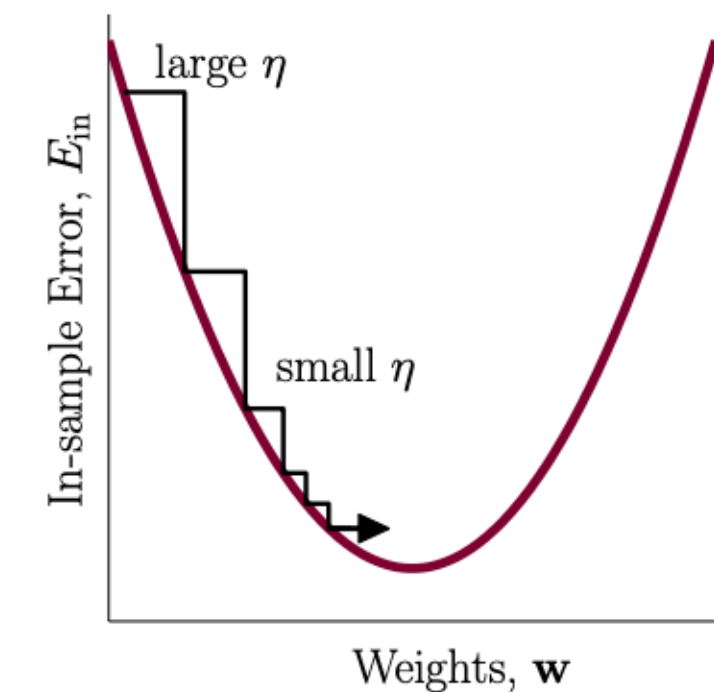


# gradient ascent for logistic regression

- Back to logistic regression. Evaluating the partial derivative,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} l(\beta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_\beta(x_i)} - \frac{1-y_i}{1-f_\beta(x_i)} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} f_\beta(x_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_\beta(x_i)} - \frac{1-y_i}{1-f_\beta(x_i)} \right) f_\beta(x_i)(1-f_\beta(x_i)) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} (\dots + \beta_j x_{ij} + \dots) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i(1-f_\beta(x_i)) - (1-y_i)f_\beta(x_i) \right) x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - f_\beta(x_i)) x_{ij}\end{aligned}$$

variable  $\eta_t$  – just right





# gradient ascent for logistic regression

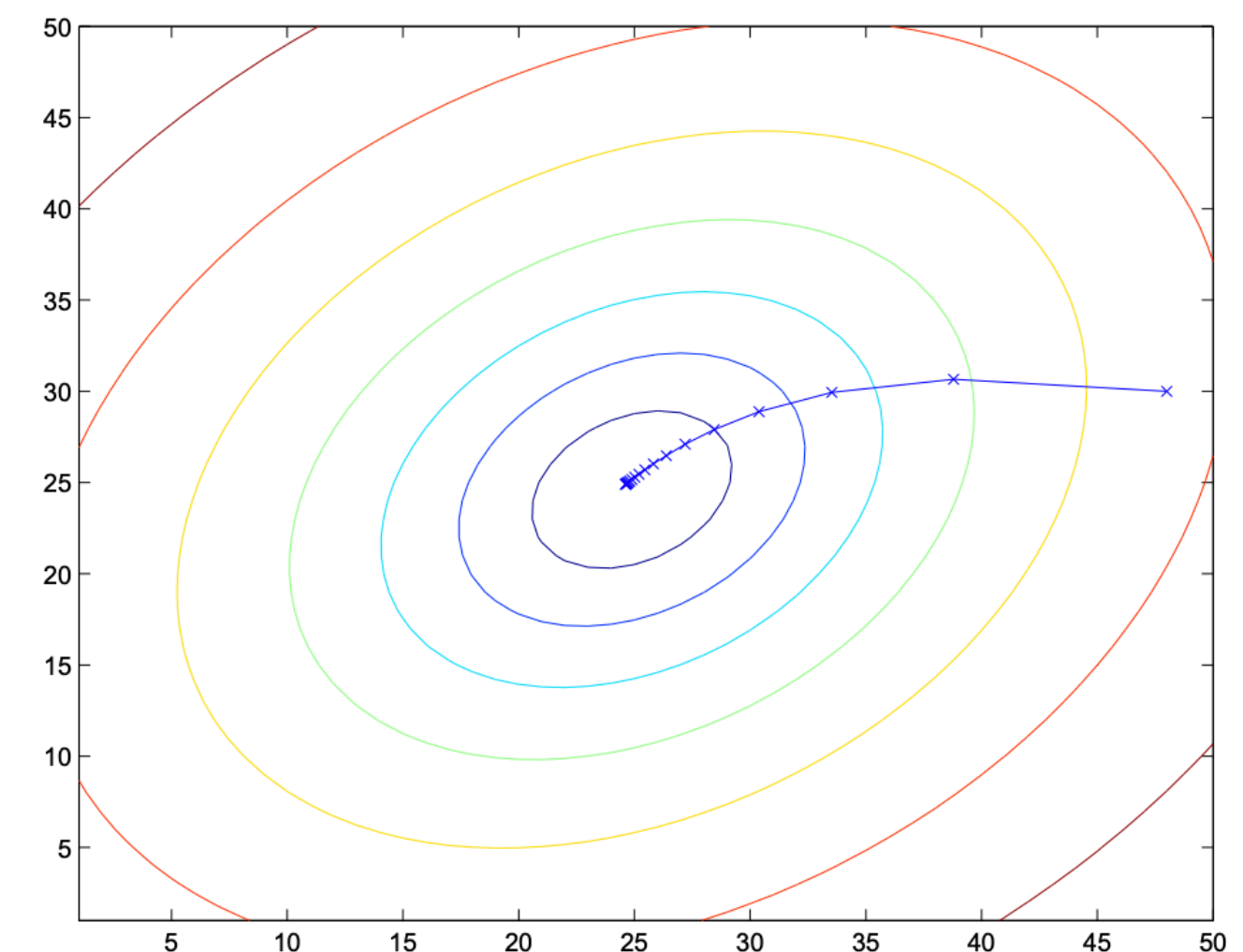
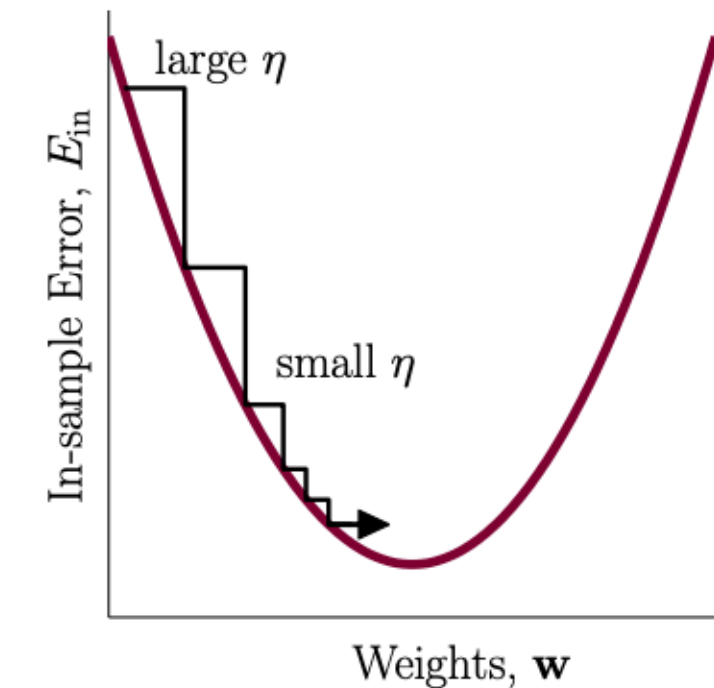
- Back to logistic regression. Evaluating the partial derivative,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} l(\beta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_\beta(x_i)} - \frac{1-y_i}{1-f_\beta(x_i)} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} f_\beta(x_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i}{f_\beta(x_i)} - \frac{1-y_i}{1-f_\beta(x_i)} \right) f_\beta(x_i)(1-f_\beta(x_i)) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} (\dots + \beta_j x_{ij} + \dots) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i(1-f_\beta(x_i)) - (1-y_i)f_\beta(x_i) \right) x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f_\beta(x_i)) x_{ij}\end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we get the following gradient ascent rule for logistic regression:

$$\beta_j^{t+1} = \beta_j^t + \alpha^t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f_\beta(x_i)) x_{ij} \right]$$

variable  $\eta_t$  – just right



# in python

- `from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression`
  - [https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.linear\\_model.LogisticRegression.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.linear_model.LogisticRegression.html)
- Most methods (`fit`, `predict`, ...) are the same as linear regression
- One difference: Regularization parameter  $C$ 
  - Higher  $C$ : *Less* regularization
  - Lower  $C$ : *More* regularization

```
from sklearn.linear_model
import LogisticRegression
```

```
from sklearn import metrics
```

```
logreg = LogisticRegression()
```

```
logreg.fit(X_train,y_train)
```

```
y_pred = logreg.predict(X_test)
```

```
metrics.accuracy_score(y_test,y
_pred)
```