Statistical Machine Learning (ENGG\*6600\*02)

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- Logistic regression is popular in bio-statistics and bio-informatics.
- Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be data and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}$  be class label. Baye's rule:

$$\boxed{\underbrace{\mathbb{P}(y|x)}_{=} = \underbrace{\underbrace{\mathbb{P}(x|y)\mathbb{P}(y)}_{=}}_{=}}, (1)$$

where  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}|y)$  are the posterior and likelihood, respectively, and  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathbb{P}(y)$  are the priors.

• In contrast to Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), logistic regression works on the posterior  $\mathbb{P}(y|x)$  directly rather than working on likelihood  $\mathbb{P}(x|y)$  and prior  $\mathbb{P}(y)$ .



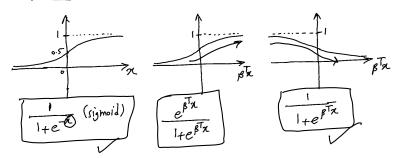
- Logistic regression is a <u>binary classifier</u> where it <u>assigns probability between zero and one</u> for belonging to one of the classes.
- The logistic function, used in logistic regression, was initially proposed in 1845 for modeling the population growth [1]. It was further improved in the 20th century [2]. See
   [3] for the history of logistic regression.
- It considers the classification problem as a regression problem where it regresses (predicts) the probability of belonging to a class. It first considers a linear regression  $\beta^\top x + \beta_0$ . However, in order to not have the bias, it assumes that x is d+1 dimensional with an additional element of 1 for bias, i.e.,  $x = [x_1, \ldots, x_d, 1]^\top$ . The  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  is the learnable parameter of the logistic regression model. As a result, the linear regression becomes  $\beta^\top x$ .
- However, there is no bound on this regression while logistic regression desires the output
  to be in the range [0, 1] to behave like a probability. Therefore, Logistic regression models
  the posterior using a logistic function, also called the sigmoid function, to make this
  regression between zero and one.

- Assume we have two classes  $y \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- Logistic regression models the posterior using a logistic function, also called the sigmoid function:

$$\mathbb{P}(y=1|X=x) = \frac{e^{\beta^{\top}x}}{1+e^{\beta^{\top}x}},$$

$$\mathbb{P}(y=0|X=x) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(y=1|X=x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{\beta^{\top}x}},$$
(2)

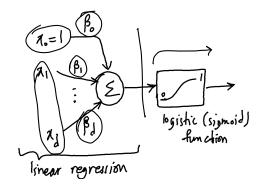
where  $\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is the learnable parameter of the logistic regression model.



Logistic Regression

# Logistic Regression as a Neural Network

Logistic regression can be seen as a <u>neural network</u> with <u>one neuron</u> where the <u>activation</u> function is the nonlinear sigmoid (logistic) function.



• Consider n data points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  in the dataset. Assuming that they are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d), the posterior over all data points is:

$$\mathbb{P}(y|X) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|X = x_i) \mathbb{I}(y_i = 1) + \mathbb{P}(y_i = 0|X = x_i) \mathbb{I}(y_i = 0) \right), \tag{4}$$

where  $\mathbb{I}(.)$  is the indicator function which is one if its condition is satisfied and is zero otherwise.

• As the labels are either zero or one, i.e.,  $y_i \in \{0,1\}$ , this equation can be restated as:

$$\mathbb{P}(y|X) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|X = x_i) \right)^{(i)} \left( \mathbb{P}(y_i = 0|X = x_i) \right)^{(i-y_i)}$$
 (5)

• Substituting Eqs. (2) and (3) in this equation gives:

$$\mathbb{P}(y|X) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{\mathbf{e}^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}}{1 + \mathbf{e}^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}}\right)^{y_{i}} \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}}\right)^{1 - y_{i}}.$$
 (6)

Logistic Regression

The log posterior is:

$$\ell(\beta) := \mathbb{P}(y|X = x) = \log \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}} \right)^{y_{i}} \left( \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}} \right)^{1 - y_{i}}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \log \left( \frac{e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}} \right)^{y_{i}} + \log \left( \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}} \right)^{1 - y_{i}} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_{i} \log(e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}) - y_{i} \log(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}) - (1 - y_{i}) \log(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_{i} \beta^{\top} x_{i} - y_{i} \log(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}) - \log(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_{i} \beta^{\top} x_{i} - \log(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} x_{i}}) \right).$$

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The log posterior is:

• Newton's method can be used to find the optimum  $\beta$ . The first derivative, or the gradient, it:

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i \mathbf{x}_i - \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}} e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i} \mathbf{x}_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}} \right) \mathbf{x}_i.$$
(7)

Its transpose is:

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}}{1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}} \right) \mathbf{x}_i^{\top}$$

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The second derivative is:

$$\underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial^{2}\ell(\beta)}{\partial\beta\partial\beta^{\top}}\right)}_{o(\beta)} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial\beta}\left(\frac{\partial\ell(\beta)}{\partial\beta^{\top}}\right)}_{o(\beta)} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial\beta}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i} - \frac{e^{\beta^{\top}x_{i}}}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top}x_{i}}}\right)x_{i}^{\top}\right)}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(-\frac{\partial}{\partial\beta}\left(\frac{e^{\beta^{\top}x_{i}}}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top}x_{i}}}\right)\right)x_{i}^{\top}.$$

We define:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i|\boldsymbol{\beta}) := \underbrace{\frac{e^{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}}{1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i}}}.$$
 (8)

Therefore:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\top}} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i | \beta)) \right) \mathbf{x}_i^{\top}. \tag{9}$$

gistic Regression

We have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \left( \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i}|\beta) \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \left( \frac{e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}}{1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}} \right) \\
= \frac{1}{(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}})^{2}} \left( e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}} (\mathbf{x}_{i}) (1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}) - e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}} (e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}} (\mathbf{x}_{i})) \right) \\
= \frac{e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}}{(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}})^{2}} \left( 1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}} \right) (1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}) (1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}}) \mathbf{x}_{i} \\
= \underbrace{\left( e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}} \right) (1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}})}_{(1 + e^{\beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i}})} \mathbf{x}_{i} \overset{(8)}{=} \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i}|\beta) (1 - \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i}|\beta)) \mathbf{x}_{i}$$

Substituting it in Eq. (9) gives the second derivative, i.e., the Hessian matrix:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} \partial \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top}} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \left( \underbrace{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\beta}) (1 - \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\beta}))}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i} \boldsymbol{x}_i \right) \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top}.$$
(10)

• It is possible to write the Newton's method in matrix form. We define:

$$\mathbb{R}^{(d+1)\times n} \ni (\mathbf{X}) := \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \mathbf{x}_3 \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{x}_4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n \ni (\mathbf{y}) := [y_1, \dots, y_n]^\top,$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n \ni (\mathbf{p}) := [\frac{e^{\beta^\top \mathbf{x}_1}}{1 + e^{\beta^\top \mathbf{x}_1}}, \dots, \frac{e^{\beta^\top \mathbf{x}_n}}{1 + e^{\beta^\top \mathbf{x}_n}}]^\top.$$

• The Eqs. (7) and (10) can be restated as:

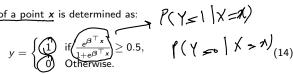
$$\begin{cases}
\mathbf{X} \quad \mathbb{R}^{(d+1)} \ni \frac{\partial \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p}), \\
\mathbf{X} \quad \mathbb{R}^{(d+1)\times(d+1)} \ni \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} \partial \boldsymbol{\beta}^\top} = -\mathbf{X} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}^\top.
\end{cases} (11)$$

• Using Newton's method for maximization of the log posterior is:

$$\beta^{(\tau+1)} := \beta^{(\tau)} \bigoplus \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\top}} \xrightarrow{1} \frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \Longrightarrow \beta^{(\tau+1)} := \beta^{(\tau)} \bigoplus (XWX^{\top})^{-1} X(y - p), \tag{13}$$

where  $\tau$  is the iteration index. It is repeated until convergence of  $\beta$ .

In the test phase, the class of a point  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is determined as:



- Comparison to LDA:
  - Logistic regression estimates (d+1) parameters in  $\beta$ , but LDA estimates many more parameters:
    - $\star$  prior of each class: (1.) We have two classes:  $2 \times 1 = 2$ .
    - \* mean of each class: d. We have two classes:  $2 \times d = 2d$ .
    - \* covariance matrix of each class: (d(d+1)/2) We have two classes:
    - \* so, in total:  $2 + 2d + d(d+1) = d^2 + 2d + 2d + 2$ .
  - LDA assumes the distribution of each class is Gaussian which may not be true. However, logistic regression does not assume anything about the distribution of data.

# Acknowledgment

Some slides of this slide deck were inspired by teachings of Prof. Ali Ghodsi (at University
of Waterloo, Department of Statistics).

#### References

- [1] P. F. Verhulst, "Resherches mathematiques sur la loi d'accroissement de la population," Nouveaux memoires de l'academie royale des sciences, vol. 18, pp. 1–41, 1845.
- [2] S. H. Walker and D. B. Duncan, "Estimation of the probability of an event as a function of several independent variables," *Biometrika*, vol. 54, no. 1-2, pp. 167–179, 1967.
- [3] J. S. Cramer, "The origins of logistic regression," 2002.