Bayesian Multinomial Logistic Regression for Author Identification

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Abstract. Motivated by high-dimensional applications in authorship attribution, we describe a Bayesian multinomial logistic regression model together with an associated learning algorithm.

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INTRODUCTION

Feature-rich, 1-of-k authorship attribution requires a multiclass classification learning method and a scaleable implementation. The most popular methods for multiclass classification in recent machine learning research are variants on support vector machines and boosting, sometimes combined with error-correcting code approaches. Rifkin and Klautau provide a review [12].

In this paper we focus on multinomial or polytomous generalizations of logistic regression. An important advantage of this approach is that it outputs an estimate of the probability that an object (documents in our application) belongs to each of the possible classes. Further, the Bayesian perspective on training a multinomial logistic regression model allows us to combine training data with prior domain knowledge.

MULTINOMIAL LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Let $x = [x_1, ..., x_j, ..., x_d]^T$ be a vector of feature values characterizing a document to be identified. We encode the fact that a document belongs to a class (e.g. an author) $k \in \{1, ..., K\}$ by a *K*-dimensional 0/1 valued vector $y = (y_1, ..., y_K)^T$, where $y_k = 1$ and all other coordinates are 0.

Multinomial logistic regression is a conditional probability model of the form

$$p(y_k = 1 | x, \mathbf{B}) = \frac{\exp(\beta_k^T x)}{\sum_{k'} \exp(\beta_{k'}^T x)},$$
(1)

parameterized by the matrix $\mathbf{B} = [\beta_1, ..., \beta_K]$. Each column of **B** is a parameter vector corresponding to one of the classes: $\beta_k = [\beta_{k1}, ..., \beta_{kd}]^T$. This is a direct generalization

of binary logistic regression to the multiclass case.

Classification of a new observation is based on the vector of conditional probability estimates produced by the model. In this paper we simply assign the class with the highest conditional probability estimate:

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} p(y_k = 1 | \mathbf{x}).$$

Consider a set of training examples $D = \{(\mathbf{x_1}, \mathbf{y_1}), \dots, (\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{y_i}), \dots, (\mathbf{x_n}, \mathbf{y_n})\}$. Maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters **B** is equivalent to minimizing the negated log-likelihood:

$$l(\mathbf{B}|D) = -\sum_{i} \left[\sum_{k} y_{ik} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \ln \sum_{k} \exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}) \right], \qquad (2)$$

Since the probabilities must sum to one: $\sum_k p(y_k = 1 | x, \mathbf{B}) = 1$, one of the vectors β_k can be set to $\beta_k = \mathbf{0}$ without affecting the generality of the model.

As with any statistical model, we must avoid overfitting the training data for a multinomial logistic regression model to make accurate predictions on unseen data. One Bayesian approach for this is to use a prior distribution for **B** that assigns a high probability that most entries of **B** will have values at or near 0. We now describe two such priors.

Perhaps the most widely used Bayesian approach to the logistic regression model is to impose a univariate Gaussian prior with mean 0 and variance σ_{kj}^2 on each parameter β_{ki} :

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj}|\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{kj}) = N(0,\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{kj}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{kj}} \exp(\frac{-\boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj}^2}{2\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{kj}^2}).$$
(3)

Small values of σ_{kj} represents a prior belief that β_{kj} is close to zero. We assume *a priori* that the components of **B** are independent and hence the overall prior for **B** is the product of the priors for its components. Finding the maximum *a posteriori* (MAP) estimate of **B** with this prior is equivalent to ridge regression (Hoerl and Kennard, 1970) for the multinomial logistic model. The MAP estimate of **B** is found by minimizing:

$$l_{ridge}(\mathbf{B}|D) = l(\mathbf{B}|D) + \frac{1}{\sigma_{kj}^2} \sum_j \sum_k \beta_{kj}^2.$$
(4)

Ridge logistic regression has been widely used in text categorization, see for example [18, 10, 17]. The Gaussian prior, while favoring values of β_{kj} near 0, does not favor them being exactly equal to 0. Since multinomial logistic regression models for author identification can easily have millions of parameters, such dense parameter estimates could lead to inefficient classifiers.

However, sparse parameter estimates can be achieved in the Bayesian framework remarkably easily if we use double exponential (Laplace) prior distribution on the β_{kj} :

$$p(\beta_{kj}|\lambda_{kj}) = \frac{\lambda_{kj}}{2} \exp(-\lambda_{kj}|\beta_{kj}|).$$
(5)

As before, the prior for **B** is the product of the priors for its components. For typical data sets and choices of λ 's, most parameters in the MAP estimate for **B** will be zero. The MAP estimate minimizes:

$$l_{lasso}(\mathbf{B}|D) = l(\mathbf{B}|D) + \lambda_{kj} \sum_{j} \sum_{k} |\beta_{kj}|.$$
 (6)

Tibshirani [15] was the first to suggest Laplace priors in the regression context. Subsequently, the use of constraints or penalties based on the absolute values of coefficients has been used to achieve sparseness in a variety of data fitting tasks (see, for example, [3, 4, 6, 16, 14]), including multinomial logistic regression [9].

Algorithmic approaches to multinomial logistic regression

Several of the largest scale studies have occurred in computational linguistics, where the maximum entropy approach to language processing leads to multinomial logistic regression models. Malouf [11] studied parsing, text chunking, and sentence extraction problems with very large numbers of classes (up to 8.6 million) and sparse inputs (with up to 260,000 features). He found that for the largest problem a limited memory Quasi-Newton method was 8 times faster than the second best method, a Polak-Ribere-Positive version of conjugate gradient. Sha and Pereira [13] studied a very large noun phrase chunking problem (3 classes, and 820,000 to 3.8 million features) and found limited-memory BFGS (with 3-10 pairs of previous gradients and updates saved) and preconditioned conjugate gradient. They used a Gaussian penalty on the loglikelihood. Goodman [7] studied large language modeling, grammar checking, and collaborative filtering problems using an exponential prior. He claimed not find a consistent advantage for conjugate gradient over iterative scaling, though experimental details are not given.

Krishnapuram, Hartemink, Carin, and Figueiredo [9] experimented on small, dense classification problems from the Irvine archive using multinomial logistic regression with an L_1 penalty (equivalent to a Laplace prior). They claimed a cyclic coordinate descent method beat conjugate gradient by orders of magnitude but provided no quantitative data.

We base our work here on a cyclic coordinate descent algorithm for binary ridge logistic regression by Zhang and Oles [18]. In previous work we modified this algorithm for binary lasso logistic regression and found it fast and easy to implement [5]. A similar algorithm has been developed by Shevade and Keerthi [14].

Coordinate decent algorithm

Here we further modify the binary logistic algorithm we have used [5] to apply to ridge and lasso multinomial logistic regression. Note that both objectives (4) and (6) are convex, and (4) is also smooth, but (6) does not have a derivative at 0; we'll need to take special care with it.

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(1) initialize \beta_{kj} \leftarrow 0, \Delta_{kj} \leftarrow 1 for j = 1, ..., d, k = 1, ..., K

for t = 1, 2, ... until convergence

for j = 1, ..., d

for k = 1, ..., K

(2) compute tentative step \Delta v_{kj}

(3) \Delta \beta_{kj} \leftarrow \min(\max(\Delta v_{kj}, -\Delta_{kj}), \Delta_{kj}) (reduce the step to the interval)

(4) \beta_{kj} \leftarrow \beta_{kj} + \Delta \beta_{kj} (make the step)

(5) \Delta_{kj} \leftarrow \max(2|\Delta \beta_{kj}|, \Delta_{kj}/2) (update the interval)

end

end

end
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The idea in the smooth case is to construct an upper bound on the second derivative of the objective on an interval around the current value; since the objective is convex, this will give rise to the quadratic upper bound on the objective itself on that interval. Minimizing this bound on the interval gives one step of the algorithm with the guaranteed decrease in the objective.

Let $Q(\beta_{kj}^{(0)}, \Delta_{kj})$ be an upper bound on the second partial derivative of the negated loglikelihood (2) with respect to β_{kj} in a neighborhood of β_{kj} 's current value $\beta_{kj}^{(0)}$, so that:

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj}^{(0)}, \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{kj}) \geq \frac{\partial^2 l(\mathbf{B}|D)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj}^2} \text{ for all } \boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj} \in [\boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj}^{(0)} - \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{kj}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{kj}^{(0)} + \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{kj}].$$

In our implementation we use the least upper bound (the inference is straightforward and the formula is omitted for the lack of space). Using Q we can upper bound the ridge objective (4) by a quadratic function of β_{kj} . The minimum of this function will be located at $\beta_{kj}^{(0)} + \Delta v_{kj}$ where

$$\Delta v_{kj} = \frac{-\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{B}|D)}{\partial \beta_{kj}} - 2\beta_{kj}^{(0)} / \sigma_{kj}^2}{Q(\beta_{kj}^{(0)}, \Delta_{kj}) + 2/\sigma_{kj}^2}.$$
(7)

Replacing $\beta_{kj}^{(0)}$ with $\beta_{kj}^{(0)} + \Delta v_{kj}$ is guaranteed to reduce the objective only if Δv_{kj} falls inside the trust region $[\beta_{kj}^{(0)} - \Delta_{kj}, \beta_{kj}^{(0)} + \Delta_{kj}]$. If not, then taking a step of size Δ_{kj} in the same direction will instead reduce the objective.

The algorithm in its general form is presented in Figure 1. The solution to the ridge regression formulation is found by using (7) to compute the tentative step at Step 2 of the algorithm. The size of the approximating interval Δ_{kj} is critical for the speed of convergence: using small intervals will limit the size of the step, while having large intervals will result in loose bounds. We therefore update the width, Δ_{kj} , of the trust region in Step 5 of the algorithm, as suggested by [18].

The lasso case is slightly more complicated because the objective (6) is not differentiable at 0. However, as long as $\beta_{ki}^{(0)} \neq 0$, we can compute:

$$\Delta v_{kj} = \frac{-\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{B}|D)}{\partial \beta_{kj}} - \lambda_{kj}s}{Q(\beta_{kj}^{(0)}, \Delta_{kj})},\tag{8}$$

where $s = \text{sign}(\beta_{kj}^{(0)})$. We use Δv_{kj} as our tentative step size, but in this case must reduce the step size so that the new β_{kj} is neither outside the trust region, nor of different sign than $\beta_{kj}^{(0)}$). If the sign would otherwise change, we instead set β_{kj} to 0. The case where the starting value $\beta_{kj}^{(0)}$) is already 0 must also be handled specially. We must compute positive and negative steps separately using right-hand and left-hand derivatives, and see if either gives a decrease in the objective. Due to convexity, a decrease will occur in at most one direction. If there is no decrease in either direction β_{kj} stays at 0. Figure 2 presents the algorithm for computing Δv_{kj} in the Step 2 of the algorithm in Figure 1 for the lasso regression case.

Software implementing this algorithm has been made publicly available ¹. It scales up to 100's of classes, 100,000's of features and/or observations.

if $\beta_{kj} \ge 0$ compute Δv_{kj} by formula (8) with s = 1if $\beta_{kj} + \Delta v_{kj} < 0$ (trying to cross over 0) $\Delta v_{kj} \leftarrow -\beta_{kj}$ endif endif if $\beta_{kj} \le 0$ compute Δv_{kj} by formula (8) with s = -1if $\beta_{kj} + \Delta v_{kj} > 0$ (trying to cross over 0) $\Delta v_{kj} \leftarrow -\beta_{kj}$ endif endif endif

FIGURE 2. Algorithm for computing tentative step of lasso multinomial logistic regression: replacement for Step 2 in algorithm Fig. 1.

Strategies for choosing the upper bound

A very similar coordinate descent algorithm for fitting lasso multinomial logistic regression models has been presented by Krishnapuram, Hartemink, Carin, and Figueiredo

¹ http://www.stat.rutgers.edu/~madigan/BMR/

[9]. They use the following bound on the Hessian of the negated loglikelihood [1]:

$$\mathbf{H} \leq \sum_{i} \frac{1}{2} \left[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathrm{T}} / K \right] \otimes \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T},$$
(9)

where **H** is the $dK \times dK$ Hessian matrix; **I** is the $K \times K$ identity matrix; **1** is a vector of 1's of dimension K; \otimes is the Kronecker matrix product; and matrix inequality $\mathbf{A} \leq \mathbf{B}$ means $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$ is negative semi-definite.

For a coordinate descent algorithm we only care about the diagonal elements of the Hessian. The bound (9) implies the following bound on those diagonal elements:

$$\frac{\partial^2 l(\mathbf{B}|D)}{\partial \beta_{kj}^2} \le \frac{K-1}{2K} \sum_i x_{ij}^2.$$
(10)

the tentative updates for ridge and lasso case can now be obtained by substituting righthand side of (10) instead of $Q(\beta_{kj}^{(0)}, \Delta_{kj})$ into (7) and (8). Note that it does not really depend on $beta_{kj}^{(0)}$! As before, a lasso update that would cause a β_{kj} to change sign must be reduced so that β_{kj} instead becomes 0.

In contrast to our bound $Q(\beta_{jk}, \Delta_{jk})$, this one does not need to be recomputed when **B** changes, and no trust region is needed. On the downside, it is a much looser bound than $Q(\beta_{jk}, \Delta_{jk})$.

EXPERIMENTS IN ONE-OF-K AUTHOR IDENTIFICATION

Data sets

Our first data set draws from RCV1-v2², a text categorization test collection based on data released by Reuters, Ltd.³. We selected all authors who had 200 or more stories each in the whole collection. The collection contained 114 such authors, who wrote 27,342 stories in total. We split these data randomly into training (75% - 20,498 documents) and test (25% - 6,844 documents) sets.

The other data sets for this research were produced from the archives of several listserv discussion groups on diverse topics. Different groups included from 224 to 9842 postings and from 23 to 298 authors. Each group was split randomly: 75% of all postings for training, 25% for test.

The same representations were used with all data sets, and are listed in Figure 3. Feature set sizes ranged from 10 to 133,717 features. The forms of postprocessing are indicated in the name of each representation:

• *noname*: tokens appearing on a list of common first and last names were discarded before any other processing.

 ² http://www.ai.mit.edu/projects/jmlr/papers/volume5/lewis04a/lyrl2004_rcv1v2_README.htm
 ³ http://about.reuters.com/researchandstandards/corpus/

- *Dpref*: only the first *D* characters of each word were used.
- *Dsuff*: only the last *D* characters of each word were used.
- *POS*: some portion of each word, concatenated with its part-of-speech tag was used.
- DgramPOS: all consecutive sequences of D part-of-speech tags are used.
- *BOW*: all and only the word portion was used (BOW = "bag of words"). There are also two special subsets defined of *BOW*. *ArgamonFW* is a set of function words used in a previous author identification study [8]. The set *brians* is a set of words automatically extracted from a web page about common errors in English usage⁴.

Finally, *CorneyAll* is based on a large set of stylometric characteristics of text from the authorship attribution literature gathered and used by Corney [2]. It includes features derived from word and character distributions, and frequencies of function words, as listed in *ArgamonFW*.

Results

We used Bayesian multinomial logistic regression with Laplace prior to build classifiers on several data sets with different representations. The performance of these classifiers on the test sets is presented in Figure 3.

One can see that error rates vary widely between data sets and representations; however the lines that correspond to representations do not have very many crossings between them. If we were to order all representations by the error rate produced by the model for each data set, the order will be fairy stable across different data sets. For instance, representation with all words ("bag-of-words", denoted BOW in the chart) almost always results in the lowest error rate, while pairs of consecutive part of speech tags (2gramPOS in the chart) always produces one of the highest error rates. There are some more crossings between representation lines near the right-most column that reflects RCV1, hinting that this data set is essentially different from all listserv groups. Indeed, RCV1 stories are produced by professional writers in the corporate environment, while the postings in the discussion groups are written by people in an uncontrolled environment on topic of their interest.

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⁴ http://www.wsu.edu/~brians/errors.html



FIGURE 3. Test set error rates on different data sets with different representations.

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