

Machine Learning

Week 6 Lecture: - Classification and Evaluation

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November 5, 2025

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D. Ganguly

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Coursework

- ▶ Supervised learning
 - ▶ Regression
 - ▶ Minimised loss (least squares)
 - ▶ Maximised likelihood
 - ▶ Bayesian approach
 - ▶ **Classification** (This and the next 3 weeks)
 - ▶ Logistic Regression, Evaluation (Week 6)
 - ▶ Softmax Regression, Naive Bayes, K-NN (Week 7)
 - ▶ Bayesian approaches for Classification (Week 8)
 - ▶ Support Vector Machines (Week 9)
- ▶ Unsupervised learning
 - ▶ Clustering (Week 10)

A word about the rest of the course

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Coursework

A bit more Dense!

- ▶ More topics covered (but there're similarities with what you have learned in the first 5 weeks).
- ▶ Make sure that you use the lab sessions and the open office hours to your advantage.

A bit more Mathy!

- ▶ It's okay if you don't understand every detail (**you don't have to do any math in the exam!**)
- ▶ Some concepts are actually easier to understand with notations.

Anonymous feedback: <https://tinyurl.com/5eynv5cb>

Classification vs. Regression

Introduction

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Similarity with regression

- ▶ Learn a map $\theta : \mathbf{x} \mapsto y$.
- ▶ Inputs: \mathbf{x} feature vector representation of an instance x .
 - ▶ E.g., if x represents housing data then (*backyard_area*, *postcode*, *#bedrooms*, ...).

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Differences with regression

- ▶ Given an \mathbf{x} the **task is to predict** a y , where $y \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$ – a **categorical variable** of k possible values (also abbv. as $y \in \mathbb{Z}_k$).
 - ▶ For a given house with values of *backyard_area*, *postcode* etc., one may predict the house-price range as $\{low, medium, high\}$ ($k = 3$).
- ▶ **Recall for regression:** $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Regression vs. Classification

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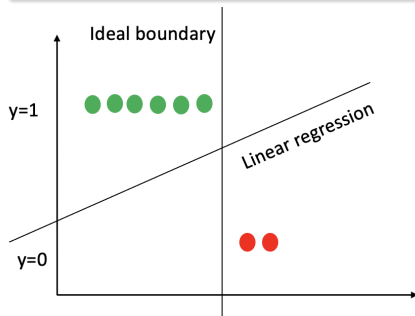
Coursework

Does the naive solution work?

- ▶ Wait! But can't we just fit a line by **linear regression** and then treat that line as a threshold (decision boundary)?

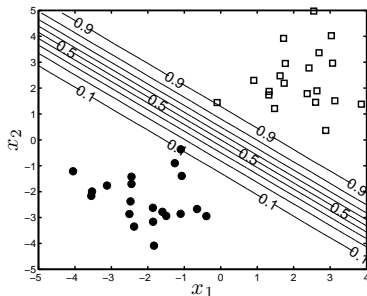
- ▶ $\arg \min_{\theta} J(\theta) = (y - \underbrace{\theta^T \mathbf{x}}_{\text{linear activation}})^2?$

- ▶ $\hat{y} = 1$ if $\theta^T \mathbf{x} > 0?$



- ▶ A closely fitting line isn't a good decision boundary!

What can we do about it (Intuitively)?



- ▶ Interpretation of the line $\theta^T \mathbf{x}$: Needs to change from a “**good fit**” to a “**decision boundary**”.

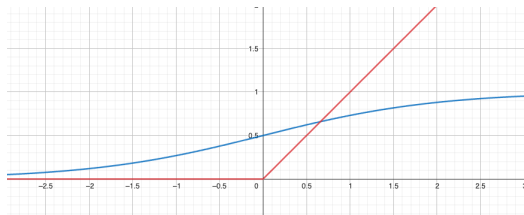
Activation Functions

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Non-linearity

- ▶ Have seen this before?
- ▶ In the context of deep learning (stacked layers of parameter vectors)
- ▶ The class of functions $g(z) \in [0, 1]$ with $g(0) = 0.5$ are called activation functions.
 - ▶ Sigmoid: $g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}$
 - ▶ Relu: $g(z) = \max(0, z)$



Model thus changes to: $h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta^T x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$

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What's the loss function to minimize?

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Mean Square Loss (MLS): $L(\theta) = \arg \min_{\theta} (y - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))^2$

Menti-Quiz (Code: 8867-8596)

Why is mean square loss suitable for classification?

- ▶ Okay, but our *desired interpretation* of $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$ is that it's a **probability**.
- ▶ Isn't it then weird to “**differences with probabilities**” in $(y - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))^2$?

Cross-Entropy Loss

Bernoulli Distribution

$$P(y|\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \begin{cases} g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}), & \text{if } y = 1 \\ 1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}), & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

Cross-Entropy Likelihood:

$$P(y|\mathbf{x}; \theta) = g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})^y (1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))^{(1-y)}$$

- Important: $y \in \{0, 1\}$; $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}) \in (0, 1)$.

Menti-Quiz (Code: 8867-8596)

When is cross-entropy likelihood maximized and when is it minimized? Hint: Work out the 4 possible cases — **target=1 vs. high activation**, and so on.

Loss/Objective function

- $\arg \max_{\theta} \log P(y|\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ is a valid objective function.
- And so is: $\arg \min_{\theta} -\log P(y|\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ (called **negative log likelihood** or the **cross-entropy loss**).

Visualizing the parameter space

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- ▶ A **line** (boundary) in the **data space** \equiv A **point** in the **parameter space**.
- ▶ Example: For a 2D data space (x_1, x_2) , the parameter vector is three dimensional $\theta = (\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2)$.
- ▶ $y = 1$ for a point $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ if $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 > 0$

Gradient Descent

- ▶ Finding way through the parameter space requires computing **gradients** → direction we should walk!
- ▶ For linear regression, we needed to compute gradients for z , where $z = \theta \cdot \mathbf{x}$ (that was easy! because z is linear!).
- ▶ For logistic regression, now we need to compute gradients of $g(z)$, where g is an activation function like the **sigmoid**.

Chain rule of derivative

$$\frac{d}{dx} g(f(x)) = \underbrace{\frac{d}{dy} g(y)}_{\text{gradient of the sigmoid}} \underbrace{\frac{d}{dx} f(x)}_{\text{gradient of the i/p to the sigmoid}}$$

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Gradient of the Sigmoid

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All we need to know for the computation

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}(x) &= 1 & \frac{d}{dx}(e^x) &= e^x \\ \frac{d}{dx}(x^n) &= nx^{n-1} & \frac{d}{dx}(\log x) &= \frac{1}{x}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}g'(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\ &= \frac{-1}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} \frac{d}{dz} e^{-z}, \quad \because \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{1}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{-1}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} e^{-z} \frac{d}{dz} (-z), \quad \because \frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right) \left(\frac{e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} \right) = g(z) (1 - g(z))\end{aligned}$$

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Logistic Regression Gradient Updates

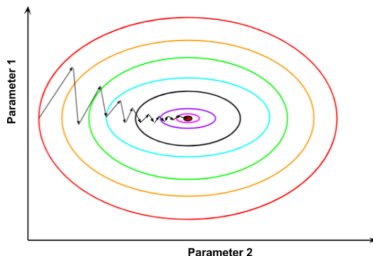
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Loss function

$$l(\theta) = \log L(\theta) = y \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}) + (1 - y)(1 - \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))$$

- ▶ Partial derivative wrt one component of the parameter vector.
- ▶ Because we need to take a step in a particular direction at a time.



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Logistic Regression Gradient Updates

Loss function

$$l(\theta) = \log L(\theta) = y \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}) + (1 - y)(1 - \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} l(\theta) = \left(y \frac{1}{g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} - (1 - y) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} \right) \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})}_{\text{we know this!}}$$

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Loss function

$$l(\theta) = \log L(\theta) = y \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}) + (1 - y)(1 - \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} l(\theta) = \left(y \frac{1}{g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} - (1 - y) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} \right) \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})}_{\text{we know this!}}$$

$$\left(y \frac{1}{g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} - (1 - y) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} \right) \underbrace{g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})(1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))}_{\text{substituted!}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \theta^T \mathbf{x}$$

Logistic Regression Gradient Updates

► Looks familiar? $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \theta^T x$

Menti-Quiz (Code: 8867-8596)

Find out: $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \theta^T x$

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Gradient Descent Algorithm

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Negative log-likelihood

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} l(\theta) = (y - h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}))x_j$$

- ▶ The form of this derivative is **identical** to that of the linear regression with square loss.
- ▶ However, these are **not the same algorithm**. **Because,**
 - ▶ $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta^T \mathbf{x}$ for linear regression
 - ▶ $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$ for logistic regression

Generalised Linear Models (Not taught)

In fact, these are same because both linear regression and logistic regression belong to the same family of models.

Logistic Regression Algorithm

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Recap

- ▶ Activation: $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}) = 1/(1 + \exp(-\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}))$
- ▶ Objective function: $y \log h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - y) \log(1 - h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}))$

Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithm

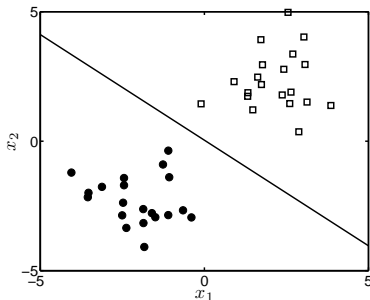
- ▶ For each training point $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ (one training instance at a time):
 - ▶ For each parameter vector component j (one parameter dimension at a time):
 - ▶ $\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}))\mathbf{x}_j^{(i)}$

Menti-Quiz (Code: 8867-8596)

Think about ways of improving and generalising the algorithm (you may work in pairs before submitting a solution).

Decision boundary

- Once we have θ , we can classify new examples.



Line corresponding to $P(y_{\text{new}} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}; \theta) = 0.5$

- $\theta^T \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}} = 0 \implies \exp(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) = 1$
- $\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\theta^T \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}})} = \frac{1}{2}$
- The classifier is the **most uncertain (least confident)** along the boundary.

Contours of the posterior probabilities

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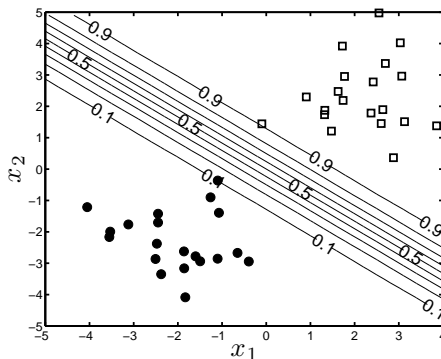
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- ▶ Contours of $P(y_{\text{new}} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \theta)$.
- ▶ Do they look sensible?

Model Calibration (with thresholds)

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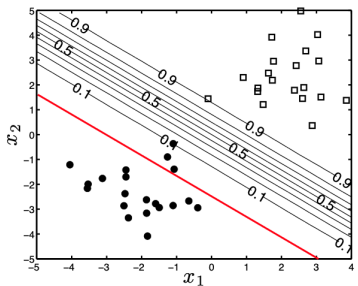
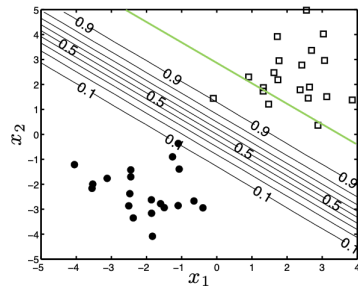
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- ▶ An easy way to change model predictions to be more conservative towards predicting a particular class.
- ▶ Confidence threshold set to a value $\tau \in [0, 1]$.
- ▶ Example: Predict $y = 1$ only if $P(y|x_{new}) > \tau$.
- ▶ Such calibrations are needed for critical tasks, such as cancer prediction, e.g., predict “not cancer” only if confidence > 0.95 .

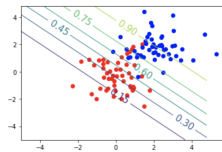
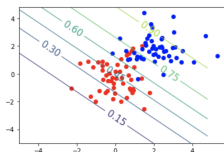
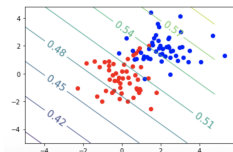
Model Calibration (with temperature)

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Generalized Sigmoid

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\alpha \theta \cdot \mathbf{x})}$$



Menti-Quiz (Code: 8867-8596)

Match each plot with a temperature ($\alpha \in \{1, 10, 50\}$)

- Higher the temperature:
 - Steeper is the activation
 - Narrower are the contour bands (iso- p lines)

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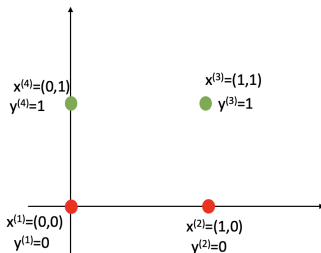
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- ▶ Let's take $\theta = (0, 0.1, 0.1)$ (the first term being the bias term). $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^3$.
- ▶ Each \mathbf{x} needs to be prepended with a '1', e.g., we work with $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (1, 0, 0)$.

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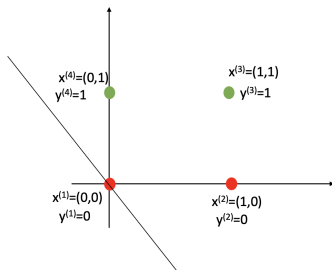
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- ▶ How do we plot the decision boundary?
 - ▶ Remember at the boundary: $\theta \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$.
- ▶ Visually plot the line $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 = 0$.
 - ▶ Substituting: $0 + 0.1x_1 + 0.1x_2 = 0 \implies x_2 = -x_1$.
- ▶ Boundary as shown below.



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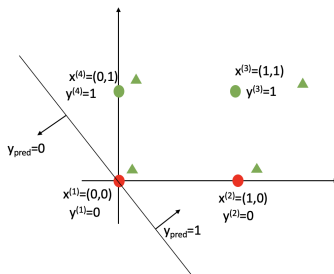
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Coursework

- ▶ Is our boundary good?
 - ▶ Let's denote our predictions with triangles.
 - ▶ How many misclassifications? 2.
- ▶ Now let's see how we can modify the boundary to do better.



Logistic Regression Working Example

Gradient Update

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - \text{sigmoid}(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)}.$$

- ▶ **Select a point and a component.**
 - ▶ Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - ▶ And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .

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Gradient Update

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - \text{sigmoid}(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)}.$$

- ▶ **Select a point and a component.**
 - ▶ Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - ▶ And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .
- ▶ Compute:
 - ▶ $\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0, 0.1, 0.1) \cdot (1, 1, 0) = 0 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 0 = 0.1$.

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Gradient Update

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - \text{sigmoid}(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)}.$$

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► Select a point and a component.

- Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
- And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .

► Compute:

- $\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0, 0.1, 0.1) \cdot (1, 1, 0) = 0 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 0 = 0.1$.
- $\text{sigmoid}(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = 1/(1 + \exp(-0.1)) = \exp(0.1)/(1 + \exp(0.1)) = 1.1/2.1 = 0.52$.

Logistic Regression Working Example

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Gradient Update

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - \text{sigmoid}(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)}.$$

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- ▶ **Select a point and a component.**
 - ▶ Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - ▶ And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .
- ▶ Compute:
 - ▶ $\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0, 0.1, 0.1) \cdot (1, 1, 0) = 0 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 0 = 0.1$.
 - ▶ $\text{sigmoid}(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = 1/(1 + \exp(-0.1)) = \exp(0.1)/(1 + \exp(0.1)) = 1.1/2.1 = 0.52$.
- ▶ Now modify θ_1 .
 - ▶ $\theta_1 \leftarrow 0.1 + (0 - 0.52) \times 1$.
- ▶ New parameter vector: $\theta = (0, -0.42, 0.1)$.

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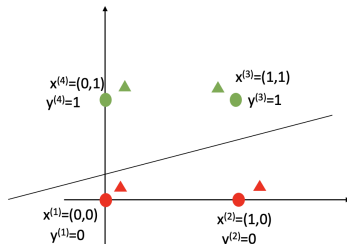
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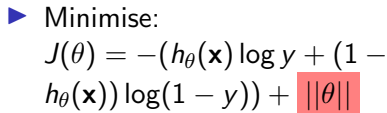
Coursework

- ▶ Homework: Work out on paper one more update.
- ▶ If you run the updates for an adequate number of times (say 5 times), what do you expect the decision boundary to be?



- ▶ If the classes are linearly separable logistic regression is guaranteed to converge to the perfect classifier.

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Classifier Performance Evaluation

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- ▶ How do we know how accurate are our predictions?
 - ▶ Which algorithm? Regularization or without
 - ▶ What model calibration?
- ▶ Need performance indicators.

Classifier Performance Evaluation

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- ▶ How do we know how accurate are our predictions?
 - ▶ Which algorithm? Regularization or without
 - ▶ What model calibration?
- ▶ Need performance indicators.
- ▶ We'll cover:
 - ▶ Accuracy
 - ▶ Precision/Recall
 - ▶ Confusion matrix and Precision-recall curves

- ▶ How many correct classifications in total.
- ▶ Consider a set of predictions $\hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_N$ and a set of true labels y_1, \dots, y_N .
- ▶ Mean accuracy is defined as:

$$A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_i = y_i)$$

- ▶ $\mathbb{I}(A)$ is 1 if A is true and 0 otherwise

- ▶ How many correct classifications in total.
- ▶ Consider a set of predictions $\hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_N$ and a set of true labels y_1, \dots, y_N .
- ▶ Mean accuracy is defined as:

$$A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_i = y_i)$$

- ▶ $\mathbb{I}(A)$ is 1 if A is true and 0 otherwise
- ▶ Advantages:
 - ▶ Can do binary or multi-class classification.
 - ▶ Simple to compute.
 - ▶ Single value.

Disadvantage: Doesn't take into account **class imbalance**.

- ▶ We're building a classifier to detect a rare disease.
- ▶ Assume only 1% of population is diseased.
- ▶ Diseased: $y = 1$
- ▶ Healthy: $y = 0$
- ▶ What if we always predict healthy? ($y = 0$)
- ▶ Accuracy 99%
- ▶ But classifier is rubbish!

Precision and Recall

- Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:

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Precision and Recall

- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- ▶ **True positives (TP)** – the number of objects with $y = 1$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (**diseased** people diagnosed as **diseased**).

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Precision and Recall

- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- ▶ True positives (TP) – the number of objects with $y = 1$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (**diseased** people diagnosed as **diseased**).
- ▶ **True negatives (TN)** – the number of objects with $y = 0$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (**healthy** people diagnosed as **healthy**).

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Precision and Recall

- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- ▶ True positives (TP) – the number of objects with $y = 1$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (**diseased** people diagnosed as **diseased**).
- ▶ True negatives (TN) – the number of objects with $y = 0$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (**healthy** people diagnosed as **healthy**).
- ▶ **False positives (FP)** – the number of objects with $y = 0$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (**healthy** people diagnosed as **diseased**).

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Precision and Recall

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- ▶ False positives (FP) – the number of objects with $y = 0$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (**healthy** people diagnosed as **diseased**).
- ▶ **False negatives (FN)** – the number of objects with $y = 1$ that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (**diseased** people diagnosed as **healthy**).

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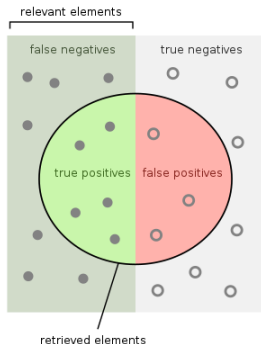
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Visual representation of precision and recall

$$P = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad R = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$



- ▶ Effective for class imbalanced problems.
- ▶ Two different performance measures used for specific types of tasks - **precision oriented** or **recall oriented**.
- ▶ Trade-off between the two. Why?

Menti-Quiz (Code: 8867-8596)

Think an example each for a precision and a recall oriented task.

How many retrieved items are relevant?



How many relevant items are retrieved?



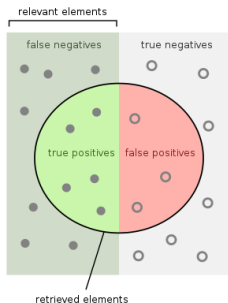
- ▶ Detecting cancer cells from images is a recall-oriented task. Why?
- ▶ Whether to turn an AI-driven car is a precision-oriented task. Why?

Precision-Recall Trade-off

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Precision = $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$



How many relevant items are retrieved?

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$


- ▶ Useful to analyze the effects of model calibration.
- ▶ Default threshold in logistic regression is 0.5.
- ▶ However, we could use any threshold we like.
- ▶ Threshold \uparrow :
 - ▶ Precision \uparrow , Recall \downarrow .
- ▶ Threshold \downarrow :
 - ▶ Precision \downarrow , Recall \uparrow .

Precision-Recall Curves

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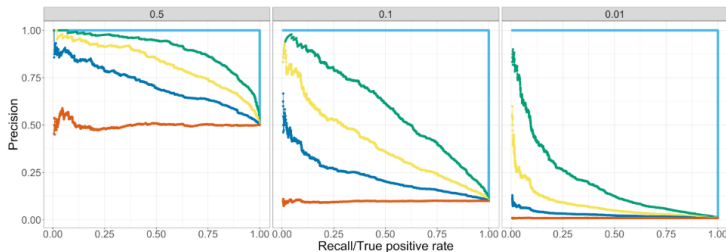
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- ▶ With an increase from low to high recall, the precision should stay as high as possible for an ideal classifier.
- ▶ Each error brings precision down.

A word about the practical coursework (25%)

- ▶ Will be released early next week (or sooner!) — this **won't be just a coding exercise!**.
- ▶ Task: Breast Cancer Detection from tabular data.
- ▶ **Task-1: Ensemble Model**
 - ▶ Teach yourself about model-ensembles or mixture of experts (we will not cover this in lectures).
 - ▶ Implement an ensemble of logistic regression trained over different partitions of the data.
- ▶ **Task-2: Explore model calibration to **maximise recall**.**
 - ▶ Write a report **explaining** and **motivating** your design choices and hyper-parameters.

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