

Supervised Classification



Usually we don't directly predict hard labels $h(x)$. Scores / Probabilities are more informative and it's much easier to work with continuous values in optimization

Setup Categorical Label Prediction

finite number of classes
↑

Classification tasks aim at predicting a discrete output
 $y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{C_1, \dots, C_g\}$ with $2 \leq g < \infty$ given Data D .

We encode \mathcal{Y} as:
- binary case $g=2$: $y = \{0, 1\}$ or $y = \{-1, 1\}$
better for probabil. models decision boundary

usually unordered classes
- multiclass case $g>2$: $y = \{1, \dots, g\}$, score/prob. for each class

! Our model $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^g$ outputs scores/probabilities and not classes.

↳ Continuous function is easier to optimize than discrete-valued functions.

↳ Scores/Probabilities contain more information and can be transformed into classes. But this transformation is non-injective

Approaches to construct classifiers

Goal: Model joint data-generating process to obtain class prob. directly
[of being in class k given feature vector x]

Generative Approach: Model posterior probability $\pi_k(x)$ using Bayes

Idea: Assume that the data generating process for x depends on y .

Then we want to answer "Which y tends to have x like that?"

$$\pi_k(x) = P(y=k|x) = \frac{P(x|y=k) \cdot P(y=k)}{P(x)} = \frac{P(x|y=k) \cdot \pi_k}{\sum_j P(x|y=j) \cdot \pi_j} \text{ same for all classes}$$

π_j being a prior estimated from data, by "using e.g. relative frequencies (estimate)"

→ Model posterior distributions, then choose best decision boundary based on that

We can't have limited data n , if p gets "too large" for that then we may prefer simpler LDA approach

Reminder: LDA might be preferable over QDA in higher dimensions of features p. 11

(much less params) → est. than QDA

Scoring classifier

Construct g discriminant/scoring functions $f_1, \dots, f_g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

for each observation $x^{(i)}$

We choose the class with the maximum score, i.e. $h(x) = \arg \max_{k=1, \dots, g} f_k(x)$

Special case $g=2$:

(always 1 DFF)

"preference" score for positive class

One discriminant/scoring function is sufficient: $f(x) = f_+(x) - f_-(x)$ (Note: $y = \{-1, 1\}$)

$h(x) = \text{sgn}(f(x))$ and $|f(x)|$ is called confidence. here this encoding is very natural for positive vs negative class

Linear Classifier

Affine linear in features x if we allow transf. of feature space (e.g. polynomial)
we can handle non-linear classif. in original space (can learn non-linear boundary)

If the discriminant/scoring functions f_1, \dots, f_g can be specified as linear functions, i.e. $f_k(x) = w_k^T x + b_k$ with g being a rank-preserving, monotone transformation, then we call f_1, \dots, f_g linear classifiers. note: $w_k^T x + b_k$ refer to params θ_k

The decision boundaries are hyperplanes. or $x^T w_i = x^T w_j$ but in general these are just some const. values so that $g(\cdot)$ is affine-linear

$f(x)$ with scorevec: $f_i(x) = f_j(x) \Leftrightarrow w_i^T x + b_i = w_j^T x + b_j \Leftrightarrow (w_i - w_j)^T x + (b_i - b_j) = 0$

Binary case: convert scores or prob. to class outputs by thresholding $h(x) := [f(x) \geq c]$; standard $c=0$ for scores, $c=0.5$ for prob.

Discriminant Approach

Goal: Directly learn Decision boundary with ERM

Idea: Use empirical risk minimization with a suitable Loss-function

We want to answer "What is the best prediction for y given x ?"

$$\hat{f} = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} R_{\text{emp}}(f) = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y^{(i)}, f(x^{(i)}))$$

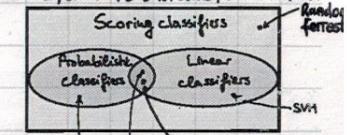
Decision Region

A decision region for class k is defined as $\mathcal{X}_k := \{x \in \mathcal{X} | h(x) = k\}$ Sol. ii) random allocation Full indifference?

The decision boundaries are defined as hypersurfaces in \mathcal{X} with fixed maximal score:

$$\exists x \in \mathcal{X} \mid \exists i, j \in \{1, \dots, g\}: f_i(x) = f_j(x) \wedge \forall k \neq i, j: f_k(x) \geq f_i(x) \wedge f_k(x) \geq f_j(x) \text{ or } f_i(x) = f_j(x)$$

Special case $g=2$ with threshold c : the decision boundary is $\{x \in \mathcal{X} | f(x) = c\}$



Connections and differences of LDA, QDA and NB

• Fill model conditional dist. of features $f_k(y=k)$ as multivariate Gaussian

• QDA: $x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$ LDA: $x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma) \mid \Sigma_k = \Sigma$ some (gaussian)

• LDA and NB are special cases! (NB: $x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \mid \Sigma_k = \text{diag}(\sigma_k^2) = (\sigma_k^2 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0 \ \sigma_k^2) \text{ cov}(x_i, x_j) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{corr} = 0$)

Why? NB requires the least amount of parameter estimators for smallish k and large n .

• Cond. independence assumption: $P(x_1|y=k) \cdots P(x_n|y=k)$ Priors equally

• NB estimated as rel. frequencies from training data

Joint cond. distr. (prob. for discrete x) = product, factors across x : $P(x_1, \dots, x_n|y=k) = \prod_i P(x_i|y=k)$

Gaussian Naive Bayes (GNB): $P(x_1, \dots, x_n|y=k) = \prod_i P(x_i|y=k)$ only need to estimate univariate dist.

(We could choose other dist., that's fine)

$P(x_1|y=k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x - \mu_k)\right) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu_k)^T (x - \mu_k)}{\sigma_k^2}\right)$

Always 1 active cat. \rightarrow for $x_j = m$ count of $x_j = m$ in class k \rightarrow count of $x_j = m$ in total count in class k

$P_{kj|m} = \frac{n_{jm}}{n_{j|m}}$ total count in class k

Categorical NB: $P(x_j|y=k) = \prod_m P(x_{jm})$ b.v. $P(x_j|y=k) = \prod_m P(x_{jm})$ for different categories?

not the same \rightarrow for certain categories we need to estimate more parameters

• For categorical features: We further assume that $x_j|y=k$ is multinomial distributed, i.e. $P(x_j|y=k) = \frac{n_{jm}}{n_{j|m}}$ (1/m, in feature vector x)

with $n_{jm}/n_{j|m}$ being the (absolute)/relative frequency of category m in feature j restricted to class k . Multinomial Naive Bayes

Note: The multinomial Naive Bayes classifier is a linear classifier. (Hence no information about other features!) \rightarrow the posterior prob. $\pi_k(x_1=m, x_2=\dots, x_n=\dots)=0$ just due to one factor in $\prod_j P(x_{jm}|y=k)$!

If $3m/n_{jm}=0$, then we replace the 0 with a small value (Laplace Smoothing). \rightarrow $\pi_k(x_1=m, x_2=\dots, x_n=\dots)=0$ with count small or >0

Examples

Logistic (sigmoid) function $P(y=1|x, \theta) = \pi(x|\theta)$

for binary classif.: $s(\cdot)$ estimates prob. of class "1"

not to confuse with Discriminant Approach!

Only sensible for numerical features

Multivariate gaussian distribution in each class

Linear discriminant analysis assumes that each

class density is modeled as

$$x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma)$$

where the covariance Σ is equal for all classes.

Note: $\pi_k(x) = P(x|y=k) \cdot \pi_k = \exp(\theta_k^T x + \theta_k)$

Linear decision boundary

LDA gives a linear classifier

Quadratic discriminant analysis assumes that

each class density is modeled as

$$x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

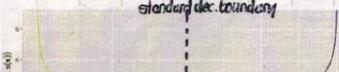
where the covariances Σ_k do not need to be equal.

Note: $\log(\pi_k(x))$ defines a quadratic function in x , i.e. not linear.

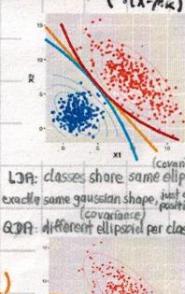
⇒ quadratic decision boundary

But if quadratic terms cancel we can also get linear boundary!

→ this occurs when $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$ (LDA assumption)



Finalizes heavier the more confident we are in a wrong prediction! ($\text{loss} \rightarrow \infty$)



Exercise Classification: Generative Approaches

1.1 Proof that LDA is a linear classifier model class distribution as $x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma)$

Starting point is modelling posterior probability: $T_{ik}(x) = P(y=k|x) = \frac{T_k \cdot p(x|y=k)}{p(x)}$

proportional, insert $x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma)$ without normalise constant $\propto T_k \cdot p(x|y=k) \propto T_k \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_k)\right) = T_k \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^T \Sigma^{-1}x - \frac{1}{2}\mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k + x^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k\right) \propto \Sigma^{-1} \text{ symmetric, covariance matrix } \Sigma^{-1} = \Sigma^{-1}$

$= \exp\left(\log T_k - \frac{1}{2}\mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k + x^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^T \Sigma^{-1}x\right)$ quadratic form in x some scalar $\Rightarrow x^T \Sigma^{-1}x = (x^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k)^T x = \mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1} x$

$= \exp(w_{0k} + x^T \mu_k) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^T \Sigma^{-1}x\right) \propto \exp(w_{0k} + x^T w_k)$ resulting in scalar $\downarrow \frac{1}{2}x^T \Sigma^{-1}x + \frac{1}{2}\mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k = x^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k$ or \propto

by defining $w_{0k} := \log T_k - \frac{1}{2}\mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k$ and $w_k := \Sigma^{-1}\mu_k$ (dep. of x) (indep. of x)

linear decision boundary: $\log(T_k(x)) = \log(T_k(x)) \Leftrightarrow x^T(w_k - w_0) + (b_k - b_0) = 0$ but independent of class k since Σ is by assumption identical for all classes!

Contrast this with QDA Model class (feature) distribution as $x|y=k \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$

ignoring $|\Sigma|^{-1/2}$ for LDA as a constant, but here it depends on class $k \Rightarrow$ therefore no further simplifications possible

$$T_{ik}(x) \propto \dots T_k |\Sigma_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^T \Sigma_k^{-1}x - \frac{1}{2}\mu_k^T \Sigma_k^{-1}\mu_k + x^T \Sigma_k^{-1}\mu_k\right)$$

$$\log() = \log T_k - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_k| - \frac{1}{2} \mu_k^T \Sigma_k^{-1} \mu_k + x^T \Sigma_k^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma_k^{-1} x$$

Same for Gaussian Naive Bayes with numerical features (depending on k)

Just replace Σ_k with $\text{diag}(\sigma_k^2)$

(Two-class Problem)
quadratic decision boundary: Assume indifference betw. classes a and b
 $\log(T_a(x)) = \log(T_b(x)) \Leftrightarrow -\frac{1}{2}x^T(\Sigma_a^{-1} - \Sigma_b^{-1})x + x^T(\Sigma_a^{-1}\mu_a - \Sigma_b^{-1}\mu_b) + b = 0$
 \Leftrightarrow for same Σ across classes quadratic form disappears & get linear boundary!

Parameter Estimators in LDA and QDA

$$\text{LDA: } \hat{T}_{ik} = \frac{n_k}{n} \text{ where } n_k \text{ is number of class } k \text{-observations}$$

$$\hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i:y^{(i)}=k}^{n_k} x^{(i)} \text{ for average feature vector of class } k$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{k=1}^{n-k} \sum_{i:y^{(i)} \neq k}^{n-k} (x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_k)(x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_k)^T$$

average everything across all classes to get same cov. matrix for all classes
 \Rightarrow estimate "pooled cov. matrix"

$$\text{Overall: } (k-1) + k \cdot p + \frac{p(p+1)}{2} \text{ Parameters to estimate}$$

$$\hat{T}_{ik} = \frac{1}{\hat{\mu}_k^T \hat{\mu}_k} \sum_{j:y^{(j)}=k}^{n_k} (x^{(j)} - \hat{\mu}_k)(x^{(j)} - \hat{\mu}_k)^T$$

$$= \frac{1}{n_k - 1} \sum_{j:y^{(j)}=k}^{n_k} (x^{(j)} - \hat{\mu}_k)(x^{(j)} - \hat{\mu}_k)^T$$

$$\text{QDA: } \hat{T}_{ik} = \frac{n_k}{n} \text{ prior probabilities} \hat{=} \text{class frequencies}$$

$$\hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i:y^{(i)}=k}^{n_k} x^{(i)}$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n_k - 1} \sum_{i:y^{(i)}=k}^{n_k} (x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_k)(x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_k)^T$$

$$\text{Overall: } (k-1) + k \cdot p + \frac{1}{2} \frac{p(p+1)}{2} \text{ parameters to estimate}$$

$$\text{GNB: } (k-1) + k \cdot p + k \cdot p = (k-1) + 2kp$$

Cov is Diagonal Matrix

p: features

k: classes, may also use g for that

$$\text{one for each class as } \hat{\mu}_k \text{ is } p \text{-times entop cov. matrix symmetric (one for each feature)}$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = p^2 - p + p$$

inner feature variances on diagonal

Note] For QDA we have to estimate way more parameters because of estimation of separate cov. matrix per class

\Rightarrow Weird side effect: LDA might perform better than QDA in higher dimensions even if data-generating process matches QDA assumptions (fully or better)!!
class error & cross-validation in terms of feature sparseness, e.g. 100+ features ($p=100$)

The reason is that we have a limited amount of data (n) and therefore we can't estimate QDA params perfectly. If n too small and/or p too large LDA might be preferred
 \rightarrow Least amount of parameter estimators in almost all scenarios

Then it should not surprise that Gaussian NB often works best even though assumption of cond. feature independence is usually unrealistic!

Exercise Logistic Regression (Discriminant Approach)

hard label prediction $\hat{y}=1 \Leftrightarrow T(x) \geq \alpha, \alpha \in (0,1)$

Proof that decision boundary is a linear hyperplane Remember: Logistic regression estimates prob. $P(y=1|x, \theta) = T(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-\theta^T x)}$

$$T(x) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-\theta^T x)} = \alpha \Leftrightarrow 1 + \exp(-\theta^T x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \Leftrightarrow \exp(-\theta^T x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 \Leftrightarrow \theta^T x = \log\left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) \quad \hat{y}=1 \text{ for all points on or above this plane}$$

For $\alpha=0.5$: $\theta^T x = -\log(2-1) = -\log(1) = 0$, so $\theta^T x \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{y}=1$ "1" halfspace

$\theta^T x < 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{y}=0$ "0" halfspace

Logistic Regression

Regression mit binärer Zielgröße \Rightarrow Ein Parameter $\Pi^i = \mathbb{P}(Y^{(i)}=1) = \mathbb{E}(Y^{(i)})$ bzw. $\mathbb{P}(Y_i=1|X_i)=\mathbb{E}(Y_i|X_i)$
codiert als 1/0

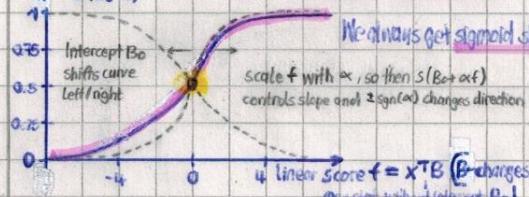
Wir interessieren uns dafür, wie Einflussgrößen X mit Erwartungswert bzw. Wahrscheinlichkeit für das "1" Ereignis zusammenhängen

Bernoulli-Verteilung: $Y^{(i)}|X^{(i)} \sim \text{B}(\Pi^{(i)})$ $i=1, \dots, n$ unabhängig

16LM] Logistic Regression is simply Bernoulli-Regression with its natural Link Function, the Logit function

We could use other sigmoid types, and CDF would fit requirement, but logistic function is the most natural

Logistic function (sigmoid) squashes linear predictor to [0,1] probability interval / estimated linear scores



We always get sigmoid shape with turning point at $(\text{score} = 0, \Pi = 0.5)$, here maximal slope in region of highest dev uncertainty

$$S(0) = \frac{e^0}{1+e^0} \approx 0.5 \quad \text{if log-odds} = 0, \log\left(\frac{e^0}{1+e^0}\right) = \log(1) = 0$$

natural decision boundary at $\Pi = 0.5$ s.t. scores > 0 ($\rightarrow \text{log-odds} > 0$) lead to class "1" and vice versa
however there are use cases where we don't base decision boundary on "natural" $\Pi = 0.5$. Identical to hard boundary $\Pi = 0.5$: $L(Y_i=1|1-\Pi_i=0) = L(Y_i=1|0) = 0$ equal treatment of observations

$f = x^T B$ as x -axis captures all linear comb. artifacts into one dimension

\Rightarrow have to group them to analyze, ore, $\epsilon = 0$ or 1 for hard Π .

Very small change excludes at edges, medium in the middle

always $\epsilon = 1 - \Pi$ and depend in size on curve location

In 1D we could also plot feature on x-axis, then different B_0 change slope!

Still sigmoidal shape with turning point at $(\Pi = 0.5, \text{but possibly } X_1 > 0)$

GLM vs. classical LM: no residuals by model design & useless to analyze (follows no distribution)

Es besteht ein linearer Zusammenhang mit den Log-Odds! Interpretation ist schwieriger als bei klassischem linearem Modell für marginale Effekte von A_i

$$\mathbb{P}(Y=1|X) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X) = \frac{\exp(X^T B)}{1+\exp(X^T B)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad q(Y=1|X) = \dots \exp(X^T B) \quad \text{estimated odds of class "1" for given feature vector } X$$

If we define $X^{(k)} = X + (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$ then we get $q(Y=1|X^{(k)}) = \exp(B_k) q(Y=1|X) \quad \log(q(Y=1|X^{(k)})) = \log(q(Y=1|X)) + B_k$
multiplied relative odds change when X_k increases by one unit additive log odds change

$$\log(q(Y=1|X)) = X^T B \quad \text{Logistic Regression assumes linear structure in } X \text{ for the log-odds of positive class (also odds ratio change by factor } \exp(B_k))$$

don't misinterpret $\exp(B_k)$ as relative risk!

Only at risk if $q = \text{every rate} \Rightarrow q = P(Y=1)$

MLE estimator in logistic function:

$$\hat{B}_{MLE} = \underset{B}{\operatorname{argmax}} \quad L(B) \text{ with } L(B) = \prod_{i=1}^n \Gamma(X^{(i)^T B})^{y^{(i)}} (1 - \Gamma(X^{(i)^T B}))^{1-y^{(i)}} \quad \text{and } P(B) = \log L(B) = \sum Y_i \log (\Gamma(X^{(i)^T B}) + (1-Y_i) \log (1 - \Gamma(X^{(i)^T B}))$$

$$\text{Score-fct. } S(B) = \frac{\partial \hat{L}}{\partial B} = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i \frac{\exp(X^{(i)^T B})(1 - \exp(X^{(i)^T B}))}{\exp(X^{(i)^T B})} + (1-Y_i) \frac{-\exp(X^{(i)^T B})(1 - \exp(X^{(i)^T B}))}{1 - \exp(X^{(i)^T B})}) = \dots \sum (Y_i X^{(i)} - \Gamma(X^{(i)^T B}) X^{(i)}) = \sum (Y_i - \Gamma(X^{(i)^T B})) X^{(i)}$$

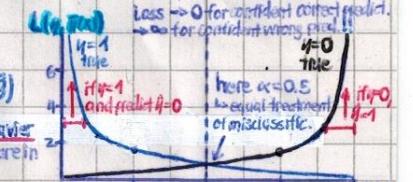
$r^i = r(1-r)$ with knowledge of $r^i = \frac{\exp(X^{(i)^T B})}{1+\exp(X^{(i)^T B})} = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B})} = (1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}))^{-1}$
just taking the (-1) not X for now: $-\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}) \cdot (-1) = \frac{(1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}) - 1) \cdot 1}{(1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}))^2} = r(1-r) = \Pi(1-\Pi)$ here
without inner function chain rule: $r^i = \frac{(1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}) - 1) \cdot 1}{(1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}))^2} = \frac{(1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}) - 1) \cdot 1}{(1+\exp(-X^{(i)^T B}))^2} = r(1-r) = \Pi(1-\Pi)$

$$\Rightarrow \text{For MLE parameter estimator: } S(\hat{B}_{MLE}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \Gamma(X^{(i)^T \hat{B}_{MLE}})) X^{(i)} = 0$$

δ_{kk} 2-k-th diagonal element of inverse fisher matrix at point \hat{B}_{MLE} : $\Gamma^{-1}(\hat{B})$

Wide confidence interval: $\hat{B}_k \pm \hat{\sigma}_{B_k} Z_{1-\alpha/2}$ with $\hat{\sigma}_{B_k} = \sqrt{\delta_{kk}}$

Log-loss penalizes heavier than one confidence interval in a wrong prediction



for odds-ratios change factor we get transformed CI: $\exp[\hat{B}_k \pm \hat{\sigma}_{B_k} Z_{1-\alpha/2}]$

first estimate $P(Y=1|X, \theta)$ $\theta < 0 \Rightarrow$ hard label choice: $h(X^{(i)}|\theta, \alpha) = I_{[X^{(i)} > 0]} \left(\frac{1}{1+\exp(-X^{(i)})} \right)$ with $\alpha \in (0,1)$, typically $\alpha=0.5$

Hypothesis Space: $H = \{ \Pi: X \rightarrow [0,1] | \Pi(x) = S(\theta^T x) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-\theta^T x)}, \theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \}$ ($\Pi = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}} L(Y_i, \Pi)$ with $f(x|1) = \theta^T x$ and $L(Y_i, f) = -y_i \log(1 + \exp(-\theta^T x))$)

Logistic Regression in Machine Learning: ERM requires suitable loss function to find optimal parameters $\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} R_{\text{emp}}(\theta) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_i L(Y_i, f(x^{(i)}, \theta))$

$\Pi(Y^{(i)}) = \prod_{j \neq i} \Pi(X^{(j)|1}) \Pi(1 - \Pi(X^{(j)|0})) = \prod_{j \neq i} \Pi(X^{(j)|1}|\theta) (1 - \Pi(X^{(j)|0}|\theta))$ cleverly combining the two cases by using exponents. Only one of the two factors is not 1 depending if $y^{(j)} = 1$ or 0

Now log to turn nasty product into nice sum: $\hat{L}(\theta) = \log(L(\theta)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(\Pi(X^{(i)}|1|\theta) + (1 - \Pi(X^{(i)}|0|\theta)))$ maximize this to find $\hat{\theta}$

$\hat{\theta}$ maximizes Likelihood & minimizes R_{emp} of model

... to turn this into minimization problem: $-\hat{L}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n -y^{(i)} \log(\Pi(X^{(i)}|1|\theta)) - (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \Pi(X^{(i)}|0|\theta))$ $\log(1-\Pi) = \log\left(\frac{1}{1+\exp(-f)}\right) = -f - \log(1+\exp(-f)) = \log\left(\frac{\exp(-f)}{1+\exp(-f)}\right) = -f$

also semi-called cross-entropy loss, works beyond Log Reg. for all types of binary classification models with discriminant ERM approach: $Y_i, \Pi = (1-y) + f + \log(1+\exp(-f))$ $\log(f) = \log((1+\exp(-f))/f) = \log(1/\exp(-f)) = -f$

\Rightarrow Bernoulli/Binomial/Log-Loss: $L(Y_i, \Pi) = -y \log(\Pi) - (1-y) \log(1-\Pi)$ with logit link $\Pi(x) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-f)}$ $\hat{L}(\theta) = -\hat{f} + \log(1+\exp(-\hat{f}))$

Convex/V Logistic Regression has unique solution under simple regularity conditions, so design matrix X must have full rank and data not perfectly linearly dependent (i.e. linearly dependent columns)

also same to OLS linear least squares optimization with quadratic loss function (e.g. Newton-Raphson)

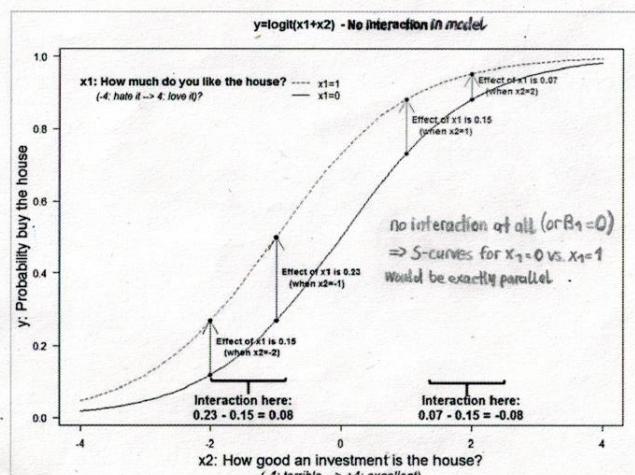
Interpretation von logistischer Regression

Die folgenden Aussagen gelten für eine Einflussgröße x_k bei Festhalten aller anderen Einflussgrößen (c.p.)

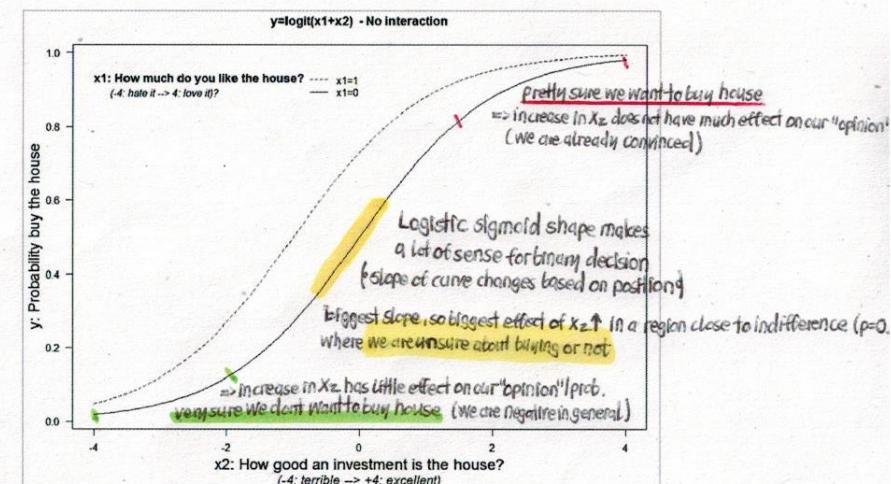
- Erhöht sich x_k um eine Einheit, so ändert sich die logarithmierte Chance von Y um β_k .
- Wenn x_k um eine Einheit steigt, so ändert sich die Chance von Y um den Faktor $\exp(\beta_k)$.
- Das Odds Ratio (Chancenverhältnis) zwischen Y bei x_k und Y bei $x_k + 1$ ist $\exp(\beta_k)$.

W'keit	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.95	0.99
Odds	1/99	1/19	1/9	3/7	2/3	1	1.5	7/3	9	19	99
Log odds	-4.6	-2.9	-2.2	-0.85	-0.41	0	0.41	0.85	2.2	2.9	4.6

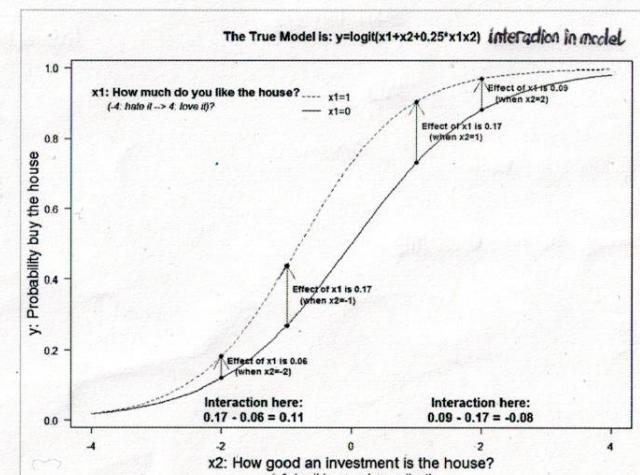
Logistische Regression: Interpretation von Interaktionen



Logistische Regression: Logistische Link-Funktion



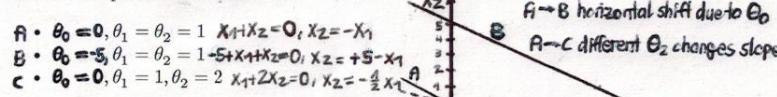
Logistische Regression: Interpretation von Interaktionen



Linear classifiers like logistic regression learn a decision boundary that takes the form of a (linear) hyperplane.

Hyperplanes can be defined by equations $\theta^T x = b \Leftrightarrow \theta^T x - b = 0$ with coefficients θ and scalar $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

In order to see that such expressions actually describe hyperplanes, consider $\theta^T x = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 = 0$. Sketch the hyperplanes given by the following coefficients and explain the difference between the parameterizations:



Exercise 3: Decision Boundaries & Thresholds in Logistic Regression

Learning goals

- 1) Understand that logistic regression finds a linear decision boundary
- 2) Get a feeling for how parameterization changes predicted probabilities

In logistic regression (binary case), we estimate the probability $p(y=1|x, \theta) = \pi(x|\theta)$. In order to decide about the class of an observation, we set $\hat{y} = 1$ iff $\pi(x|\theta) \geq \alpha$ for some $\alpha \in (0, 1)$.

Show that the decision boundary of the logistic classifier is a (linear) hyperplane.

Hint

Derive the value of $\theta^T x$ (depending on α) starting from which you predict $\hat{y} = 1$ rather than $\hat{y} = 0$.

Below you see the logistic function for a binary classification problem with two input features for different values $\theta^T = (\theta_1, \theta_2)^T$ (plots 1-3) as well as α (plot 4). What can you deduce for the values of θ_1 , θ_2 , and α ? What are the implications for classification in the different scenarios?

Derive the equation for the decision boundary hyperplane if we choose $\alpha = 0.5$.

Explain when it might be sensible to set α to 0.5:

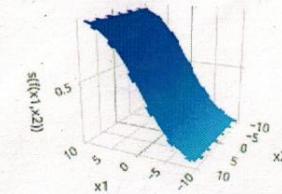
$\alpha=0.5$: losses of misclassified observations are treated equally \uparrow Log-loss
 $L(y, \pi) = -y \log(\pi) - (1-y) \log(1-\pi)$
 i.e. $L(y=0|y=1) = -\log(\pi)$ and $L(y=1|y=0) = -\log(1-\pi)$ are identical at boundary $\pi(x|\theta) = 0.5$!

$\alpha >> 0.5$: choose this if we need be careful with class "1" predictions

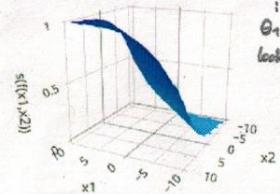
for example when decision triggers a costly/dangerous therapy, so we want to minimize False-Positives

Vice versa: Go $\alpha << 0.5$ if we want to heavily emphasize penalty on False-Negatives, e.g. airport weapons security

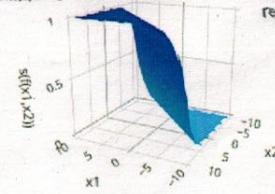
Plot (1)
 hypersurface is symmetric parallel across x_2 -axis
 $\Rightarrow \theta_2 = 0, x_2$ has zero effect
 $\theta_1 \approx 0.5$ by visual cue



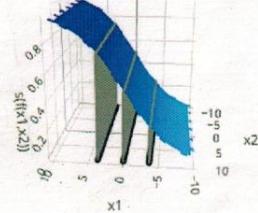
Plot (2)
 both feature dimensions affect logistic function,
 to equal degree $\Rightarrow \theta_1 = \theta_2$; hypersurface not tilted in either direction
 We also see that $\theta_1, \theta_2 > 0$ as $\pi(\cdot)$ \uparrow with $x_1 \uparrow, x_2 \uparrow$
 \vdots
 $\theta_1 = -\theta_2$ would look differently



Plot (3)
 Very similar to (2) with minor differences:
 steeper Logistic fat \Rightarrow larger abs. θ_1, θ_2 values
 sharper separation between class predictions, less in the more confidence in our decisions
 $\pi(x|\theta) = 0.5$ region



Plot (4)
 This is Plot (1) with different α -thresholds visualised
 midline at $x_1=0$ corresponds to $\alpha=0.5$
 other hyperplanes \equiv higher(left) and lower(right) thresholds



misleading slices, just vertical
 - It appears as if x_1 is const. at thresholds in general.
 - actually it's just a geometric representation which looks like this here because of $\theta_2=0$