Machine Learning (CE 40717) Fall 2025

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- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
- **3** Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- **5** References

1 Introduction

Introduction

- 2 Logistic Regression
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- **5** References



Binary Classification Problem

- Consider a binary classification task:
 - Email classification: Spam / Not Spam
 - Online transactions: Fraudulent / Genuine
 - Tumor diagnosis: Malignant / Benign

Define the target variable formally:

$$y \in \{0, 1\},$$

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{Negative class (e.g., benign tumor)} \\ 1 & \text{Positive class (e.g., malignant tumor)} \end{cases}$$

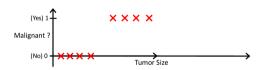
Introduction

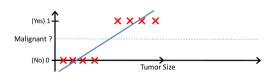
• A natural approach is to use linear regression:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

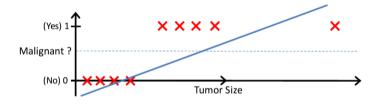
and define a threshold at 0.5 for prediction:

$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} 1, & h_{\theta}(x) \ge 0.5 \\ 0, & h_{\theta}(x) < 0.5 \end{cases}$$





- Addition of new data points can yield predictions outside [0, 1].
- · Linear regression does not provide probabilistic outputs.
- The decision boundary may be highly sensitive to outliers.



Requirement: $0 \le h_{\theta}(x) \le 1$

Logistic regression:
$$f(x; \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top} x)$$
, $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$

Introduction

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
 - Fundamentals
 - Decision surface
 - MLE and MAP
 - Gradient descen
 - Multi-class logistic regression
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- **5** References



- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression Fundamentals

Decision surface
MLE and MAP
Gradient descent
Multi-class logistic regression

- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- 5 References

Introduction

- Suppose we have a binary classification task (so K = 2).
- By observing age, gender, height, weight and BMI we try to distinguish if a person is overweight or not overweight.

| Age | Gender | Height (cm) | Weight (kg) | BMI | Overweight | | |
|-----|--------|-------------|-------------|------|------------|--|--|
| 25 | Male | 175 | 80 | 25.3 | 0 | | |
| 30 | Female | 160 | 60 | 22.5 | 0 | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| 35 | Male | 180 | 90 | 27.3 | 1 | | |

- We denote the features of a sample with vector *x* and the label with *y*.
- In logistic regression we try to find an $\sigma(w^T x)$ which predicts **posterior** probabilities P(y = 1|x).

Introduction (cont.)

• $\sigma(w^T x)$: probability that y = 1 given x (parameterized by **w**)

$$P(y = 1|x, \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)$$

$$P(y = 0|x, \mathbf{w}) = 1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)$$

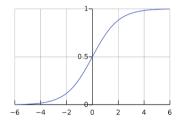
- We need to look for a function which gives us an output in the range [0, 1]. (like a probability).
- Let's denote this function with $\sigma(.)$ and call it the **activation function**.

Introduction (cont.)

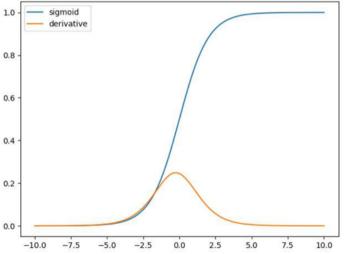
• Sigmoid (logistic) function.

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

- A good candidate for activation function.
- It gives us a number between 0 and 1 smoothly.
- It is also differentiable



Sigmoid function & its derivative



Introduction (cont.)

• The sigmoid function takes a number as input but we have:

$$x = [x_0 = 1, x_1, ..., x_d]$$

 $w = [w_0, w_1, ..., w_d]$

- So we can use the **dot product** of x and w.
- We have $0 \le \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) \le 1$. which is the estimated probability of y = 1 on input x.
- An Example : A basketball game (Win, Lose)
 - $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) = 0.7$
 - In other terms 70 percent chance of winning the game.

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression

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Decision surface

MILE and MAP

Gradient descen

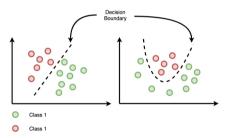
Multi-class logistic regression

- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- 5 References



Decision surface

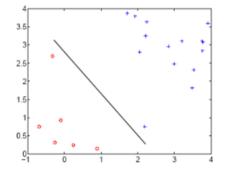
- Decision surface or decision boundary is the region of a problem space in which the output label of a classifier is ambiguous. (could be linear or non-linear)
- In binary classification it is where the probability of a sample belonging to each y = 0 and y = 1 is equal.

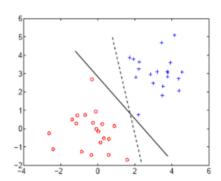


 Decision boundary hyperplane always has one less dimension than the feature space.

Decision surface (cont.)

• An example of linear decision boundaries:





- Back to our logistic regression problem.
- Decision surface $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) = \mathbf{constant}$.

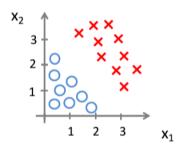
$$\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\mathbf{w}^T x)}} = 0.5$$

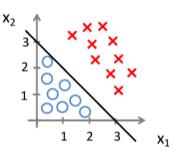
- Decision surfaces are linear functions of x
 - if $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) \ge 0.5$ then $\hat{y} = 1$, else $\hat{y} = 0$
 - Equivalently, if $\mathbf{w}^T x + w_0 \ge 0.5$ then decide $\hat{y} = 1$, else $\hat{y} = 0$

\hat{y} is the predicted label

Decision boundary example

$$\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) = \sigma(w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2)$$



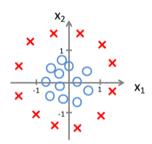


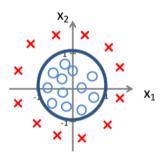
Predict y = 1 if $-3 + x_1 + x_2 \ge 0$

Non-linear decision boundary example

$$\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x) = \sigma(w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + w_3 x_1^2 + w_4 x_2^2)$$

We can learn more complex decision boundaries when having higher order terms





Predict
$$y = 1$$
 if $-1 + x_1^2 + x_2^2 \ge 0$

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression

Fundamentals

MLE and MAP

Gradient descent

Multi-class logistic regression

- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- 5 References

20 / 65

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

• For *n* independent samples, the likelihood is:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, \mathbf{w})$$

• For binary classification $(y \in \{0, 1\})$:

$$P(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)})^{y^{(i)}} (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x^{(i)}))^{1 - y^{(i)}}$$

Log-likelihood:

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[y^{(i)} \log \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)})) \right]$$

From Likelihood to Cost Function

• Maximizing the likelihood ⇔ minimizing the negative log-likelihood (NLL):

$$J_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{w}) = -\ell(\mathbf{w})$$

• Can be written as an integral over the data distribution:

$$J_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{w}) = -\int p(x, y) \log P(y|x, \mathbf{w}) \, dx \, dy$$

• Empirical estimate (training data):

$$J_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log P(y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}, \mathbf{w})$$

• This is exactly the **cross-entropy loss** used in classification.



Maximum A Posteriori Estimation (MAP)

• MAP incorporates prior knowledge about parameters:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} P(\mathbf{w}|D)$$

• Using Bayes' rule:

$$P(\mathbf{w}|D) \propto P(D|\mathbf{w})P(\mathbf{w})$$

• Equivalently:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \left[\log P(D|\mathbf{w}) + \log P(\mathbf{w}) \right]$$

Cost function:

$$J_{\text{MAP}}(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log P(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, \mathbf{w}) - \log P(\mathbf{w})$$

• Gaussian prior: $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2 I)$

$$P(\mathbf{w}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{w}\|^2}{2\tau^2}\right)$$

• MAP cost function:

$$J_{\text{MAP}}(\mathbf{w}) = J_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{w}) + \frac{1}{2\tau^2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

• Let $\lambda = 1/\tau^2$:

$$J_{\text{MAP}}(\mathbf{w}) = J_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{w}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

• Equivalent to **L2-regularized logistic regression**.

• Laplace prior: $\mathbf{w} \sim \text{Laplace}(0, b)$

$$P(\mathbf{w}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{w}\|_1}{b}\right)$$

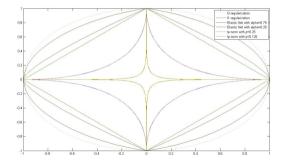
• MAP cost:

$$J_{\text{MAP}}(\mathbf{w}) = J_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

where $\lambda = 1/b$

• L1 penalty encourages **sparsity** (feature selection).

- L2 (Ridge): smooths weights, keeps all features but shrinks them.
- L1 (Lasso): drives some weights to zero, performs feature selection.
- Both prevent overfitting by penalizing model complexity.



| Туре | Form | Properties / Advantages | Disadvantages / Effect | |
|------|--|---|-------------------------------------|--|
| L2 | $r(\mathbf{w}) = \ \mathbf{w}\ _2^2$ | Strictly convex, differentiable | Dense solutions (uses all features) | |
| L1 | $r(\mathbf{w}) = \ \mathbf{w}\ _1$ | Convex, encourages sparsity | Not differentiable at 0 | |
| Lp | $r(\mathbf{w}) = \ \mathbf{w}\ _p = (\sum_i v_i ^p)^{1/p}, 0$ | Very sparse solutions, initialization dependent | Non-convex, not differentiable | |

Note: Choice of regularizer affects sparsity and smoothness of learned weights.

MLE vs MAP Comparison

| | MLE | MAP | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| Objective | Maximize likelihood $P(D \mathbf{w})$ | Maximize posterior $P(D \mathbf{w})P(\mathbf{w})$ | |
| Prior | None (uniform) | Explicit prior $P(\mathbf{w})$ | |
| Cost function | $-\log P(D \mathbf{w})$ | $-\log P(D \mathbf{w}) - \log P(\mathbf{w})$ | |
| Regularization | None | Arises from prior | |
| Overfitting control | No | Yes | |

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression

Decision surface

Gradient descent

Multi-class logistic regression

- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- **5** References

October 18, 2025

Remember from previous slides:

$$J(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} -y^{(i)} \log(\sigma(\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)})) - (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)}))$$

Update rule for gradient descent:

$$w^{t+1} = w^t - \eta \nabla_w J(w^t)$$

• With J(w) definition for logistic regression we get:

$$\nabla_{w} J(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sigma(\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x^{(i)}$$

• Compare the gradient of logistic regression with the gradient of SSE in linear regression :

$$\nabla_{w} J(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sigma(\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x^{(i)}$$

$$\nabla_{w} J(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} x^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x^{(i)}$$

Loss function

- Loss function is a single overall measure of loss incurred for taking our decisions (over entire dataset).
- We have:

$$Loss(y, \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)) = -y \times \log(\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)) - (1 - y) \times \log(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x))$$

• Since in binary classification either y = 1 or y = 0 we have:

$$Loss(y, \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)) = \begin{cases} -\log(\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

• How is it related to zero-one loss? (\hat{y} is the predicted label and y is the ture label)

$$Loss(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \neq \hat{y} \\ 0 & \text{if } y = \hat{y} \end{cases}$$

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression

Fundamentals
Decision surface
MLE and MAP
Gradient descen

Multi-class logistic regression

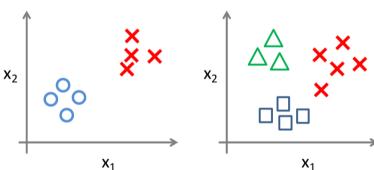
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- 5 References

Multi-class logistic regression

• Now consider a problem where we have *K* classes and every sample only belongs to one class (for simplicity).

Binary classification:

Multi-class classification:



Multi-class logistic regression (cont.)

- For each class k, $\sigma_k(x; \mathbf{W})$ predicts the probability of y = k.
 - i.e., $P(y = k | x, \mathbf{W})$
- For each data point x_0 , $\sum_{k=1}^K P(y=k|x_0, \mathbf{W})$ must be 1
 - W denotes a matrix of w_i 's in which each w_i is a weight vector dedicated for class label i.
- On a new input x, to make a prediction, we pick the class that maximizes $\sigma_k(x; \mathbf{W})$:

$$\alpha(x) = \underset{k=1,...,K}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \sigma_k(x; \mathbf{W})$$

if $\sigma_k(x; \mathbf{W}) > \sigma_j(x; \mathbf{W}) \ \forall j \neq k$ then decide C_k

Multi-class logistic regression (cont.)

• K > 2 and $y \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$

$$\sigma_k(x, \mathbf{W}) = P(y = k|x) = \frac{\exp(w_k^T x)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(w_j^T x)}$$

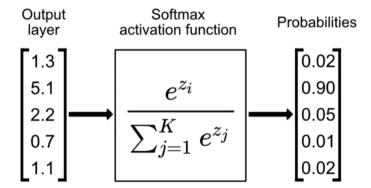
- Normalized exponential (Aka Softmax)
- if $w_k^T x \gg w_j^T x$ for all $j \neq k$ then $P(C_k | x) \approx 1$ and $P(C_j | x) \approx 0$
- Note: remember from Bayes theorem:

$$P(C_k|x) = \frac{P(x|C_k)P(C_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} P(x|C_j)P(C_j)}$$

- Softmax function **smoothly** highlights the maximum probability and is differentiable.
- Compare it with max(.) function which is strict and non-differentiable
- Softmax can also handle negative values because we are using exponential function
- And it gives us probability for each class since:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\exp(w_k^T x)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \exp(w_j^T x)} = 1$$

• An example of applying softmax (note that $z_i = w^T x_i$):



38 / 65

- Again we set J(W) as negative of log likelihood.
- We need $\hat{W} = \underset{W}{\operatorname{arg min}} J(W)$

$$J(W) = -\log \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, \mathbf{W})$$

$$= -\log \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \sigma_{k}(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W})^{y_{k}^{(i)}}$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} y_{k}^{(i)} \log(\sigma_{k}(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}))$$

- If **i-th** sample belongs to class k then $y_{\iota}^{(i)}$ is 1 else 0.
- Again no closed-from solution for \hat{W}

• From previous slides we have:

$$J(W) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k^{(i)} \log(\sigma_k(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}))$$

In which:

$$W = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_K], \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(n)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1^{(1)} & \dots & y_K^{(1)} \\ y_1^{(2)} & \dots & y_K^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_1^{(n)} & \dots & y_K^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}$$

- *y* is a vector of length *K* (1-of-*K* encoding)
 - For example $y = [0, 0, 1, 0]^T$ when the target class is C_3 .



• Update rule for gradient descent:

$$\begin{aligned} w_j^{t+1} &= w_j^t - \eta \nabla_W J(W^t) \\ \nabla_{w_j} J(W) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma_j(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}) - y_j^{(i)}) x^{(i)} \end{aligned}$$

• w_j^t denotes the weight vector for class j (since in multi-class LR, each class has its own weight vector) in the t-th iteration

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
- **3** Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- **5** References

Evaluation Context

- Model evaluation quantifies predictive performance on unseen data.
- Metrics are derived from the confusion matrix:

| | Predicted Positive | Predicted Negative |
|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Actual Positive | TP | FN |
| Actual Negative | FP | TN |

• TP, TN, FP, FN provide the foundation for classification performance indices.

Accuracy: proportion of correctly classified instances

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

Error Rate: complement of accuracy

Error Rate =
$$\frac{FP + FN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} = 1 - Accuracy$$

- Accuracy is reliable for balanced class distributions.
- Limited interpretability for skewed datasets.

Precision (Positive Predictive Value)

$$P = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

- Fraction of predicted positives that are truly positive.
- Sensitive to false positives.

Recall (Sensitivity / True Positive Rate)

$$R = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

- Fraction of actual positives correctly identified.
- Sensitive to false negatives.



F1-Score: harmonic mean of precision and recall

$$F1 = 2 \cdot \frac{P \cdot R}{P + R}$$

- Provides a single measure balancing precision and recall.
- Useful in imbalanced datasets or when both types of error are significant.
- Trade-off: Increasing recall typically decreases precision and vice versa.

Comparative Overview

| Metric | Formula | Focus | Typical Use-Case |
|-----------|--|------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Accuracy | $\frac{TP+TN}{TP+FP+FN+TN}$ | Overall correctness | Balanced classes |
| Precision | $\frac{TP}{TP+FP}$ | False positive control | Spam detection, IR |
| Recall | $\frac{TP}{TP+FN}$ | False negative control | Medical diagnosis, anomaly detection |
| F1-Score | $rac{\overline{TP}}{\overline{TP}+\overline{FP}}$ \overline{TP} $\overline{TP}+\overline{FN}$ $2\frac{PR}{P+R}$ | Balance | Imbalanced or skewed datasets |

- Metric choice should reflect operational objectives and misclassification costs.
- Always interpret metrics in conjunction with the confusion matrix.



- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading

Probabilistic view in classification Probabilistic classifiers

5 References

48 / 65

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
 Probabilistic view in classification
- **6** References

Probabilistic view in classification problem

- In a classification problem:
 - Each **feature** is a **random variable** (e.g. a person's height)
 - The class label is also considered a random variable (e.g. a person could be overweight or not)
- We observe the feature values for a random sample and intend to find its class label
 - Evidence: Feature vector *x*
 - Objective: Class label

• Posterior probability: The probability of a class label C_k given a sample x

$$P(C_k|x)$$

• Likelihood or class conditional probability : PDF of feature vector x for samples of class C_k

$$P(x|C_k)$$

• Prior probability: Probability of the label be C_k

$$P(C_k)$$

- P(x): PDF of feature vector x
 - From total probability theorem:

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=1}^K P(x|C_k)P(C_k)$$



- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
 Probabilistic view in classification
 Probabilistic classifiers
- 6 References

Probabilistic classifiers

- Probabilistic approaches can be divided in two main categories:
 - Generative
 - Estimate PDF $P(x, C_k)$ for each class C_k and then use it to find $P(C_k|x)$. Alternatively estimate both PDF $P(x|C_k)$ and $P(C_k)$ to find $P(C_k|x)$.
 - Discriminative
 - Directly estimate $P(C_k|x)$ for class C_k

Probabilistic classifiers (cont.)

- Let's assume we have input data *x* and want to classify the data into labels *y*.
- A generative model learns the **joint** probability distribution P(x, y).
- A discriminative model learns the **conditional** probability distribution P(y|x)

• Suppose we have the following dataset in form of (*x*, *y*):

• P(x, y) is:

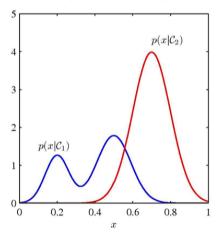
• P(y|x) is:

Discriminative vs. Generative: example (cont.)

- The distribution P(y|x) is the natural distribution for classifying a given sample x into class y.
 - This is why that algorithms which model this directly are called discriminative algorithms.
- Generative algorithms model P(x, y), which can be transformed into P(y|x) by Bayes rule and then used for classification.
 - However, the distribution P(x, y) can also be used for other purposes.
 - For example we can use P(x, y) to **generate** likely (x, y) pairs

- Inference
 - Determine class conditional densities $P(x|C_k)$ and priors $P(C_k)$
 - Use Bayes theorem to find $P(C_k|x)$
- 2 Decision
 - Make optimal assignment for new input (after learning the model in the inference stage)
 - if $P(C_i|x) > P(C_j|x) \forall j \neq i$, then decide C_i .

• Generative approach for a binary classification problem:



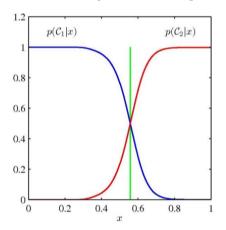
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Discriminative approach

- Inference
 - Determine the posterior class probabilities $P(C_k|x)$ directly.
- 2 Decision
 - Make optimal assignment for new input (after learning the model in the inference stage)
 - if $P(C_i|x) > P(C_i|x) \forall j \neq i$, then decide C_i .

Discriminative approach (cont.)

• Discriminative approach for a binary classification problem:



Discriminative approach (cont.)

- Logistic regression is a **discriminative** approach.
- We directly want to specify the class label with $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^Tx)$

- Introduction
- 2 Logistic Regression
- 3 Evaluation Metrics
- 4 Extra reading
- **5** References

Contributions

- These slides are authored by:
 - Danial Gharib



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Any Questions?