5CS037-Concepts and Technologies of AI Lecture-09 Supervised Machine Learning. Linear Methods for Classification.

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Story So Far....

Remember!!!: Components of Machine Learning.

• Dataset:

Labelled vs. Unlabeled Dataset.

• A Decision Process (Representation/Model):

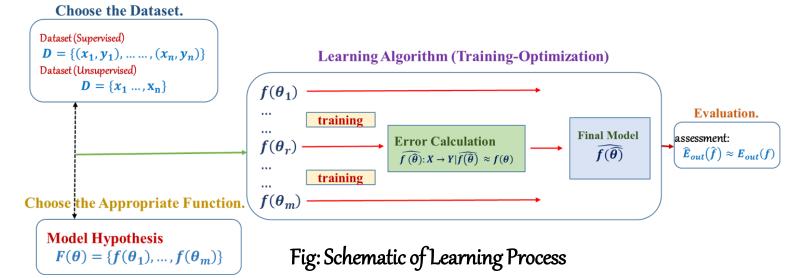
 Machine learning algorithms(Models) are used to make inference or estimate of an output based on input data – labeled or unlabeled.

• An Error Function (Evaluation):

- A performance metric used to evaluate the estimate of a model.
- Metrics depends on types of learning (supervised or unsupervised) and types of task (Classification or Regression)

An model Optimization Process:

 An automated algorithm or process used to update parameters of machine learning models until threshold or accepted evaluation metric has been achieved



Regression So far.....

• Assumptions:

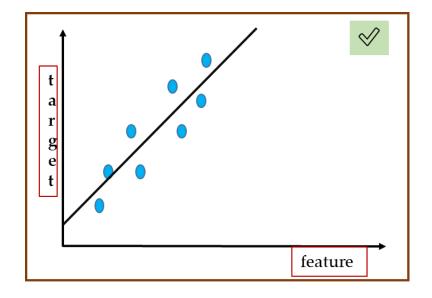
• Exist a liner relationship $\rightarrow \{Y = w_0 + W^T X.\}$

• Simple linear regression:

• Relationship between {one} numerical response/independent/feature{X} and {a} numerical predictor/dependent/target{Y}.

Multiple linear regression:

• Relationship between {multiple} numerical response/independent/feature{X} and {a} numerical predictor/dependent/target{Y}.



Classification.

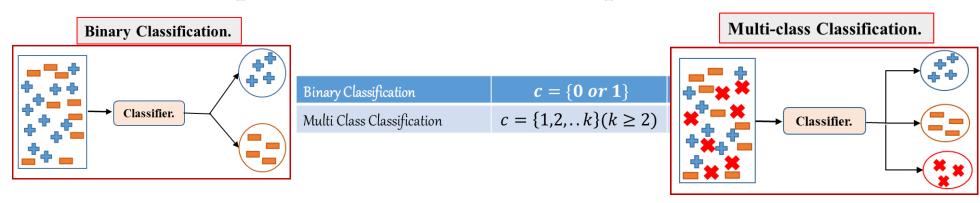
1. Introduction.

1.1 Classification: Motivation.

- Classification problems occur often, perhaps even more so than regression problems. Some examples include:
 - A person arrives at the emergency room with a set of symptoms that could possibly be attributed to one of three medical conditions.
 - Which of the three conditions does the individual have?
 - An **online banking service** must be able to determine **whether or not** a **transaction** being performed on the site is **fraudulent**, on the **basis of the user's IP address**, past **transaction history**, and **so forth**.
- Up to this point, the methods we have seen have centered around modeling and the inference of a quantitative response variable (ex: House prices).
 - Linear regression perform well under these situations
- When the **response variable is categorical**, then the problem is no longer called a regression problem but is instead labeled as a **classification problem**.
- The goal is to attempt to classify each observation into a category (aka, class or cluster) defined by **Y**, based on a set of predictor variables **X**.

1.2 Classification: Definition.

- In classification:
 - we take an input vector $\{x^1, ..., x^d\} | X \in \mathbb{R}$ and **assign** it to one of K discrete classes or groups C_k where k = 1, ..., k.
- In most common cases, the classes are taken to be disjoint, so that each input is assigned to one and only one class.
- There can be multiple scenario for the label space *C*.



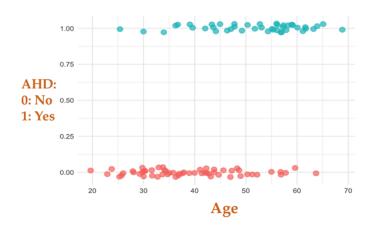
1.3 Classification: Example – Binary Classification.

- Given a pair of dataset: (*X*, *Y*)
 - $X := x_i^1 :=$ is a feature vector :=Age.
 - $Y := y_i :=$ is a target scalar :=Acute Heart Disease
- A categorical variable *y* could be encoded to be quantitative: For example:

•
$$y = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y = No \\ 1 & \text{if } y = Yes. \end{cases}$$

Age	Heart Disease	
63	No	
67	Yes	
67	Yes	
37	No	
41	No	

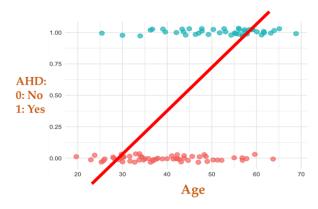
- Our Objective is to assign a class Yes or No to our Feature Space Age.
- Let's Explore the data:



- Can we fit a line?
 - What happens if we use linear regression to predict this?

1.4 Classification: Example – Why not Linear Regression?

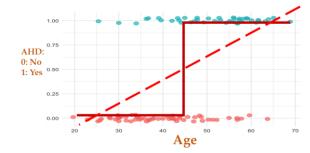
• If we use linear regression:



- A linear regression could be used to predict *y* from *x*. What would be wrong with such a model?
 - The model would imply a specific ordering of the outcome, and would treat a one-unit change in *y* equivalent.
 - The jump from y = 1 to y = 2 should not be interpreted as the same as a jump from y = 2 to y = 3.
 - Similarly, the response variable could be reordered such that y = 0 represents Yes and y = 1 represents No, and then the model estimates and predictions would be fundamentally different.

• One idea to try to solve the issues from the regression line would be to set some threshold "T" such as:

•
$$\hat{y}_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } w_0 + W^T X \ge T \\ 0 & \text{if } w_0 + W^T X < T \end{cases}$$



• If we apply a non linear transformation to aforementioned equation:

•
$$\hat{y}_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } sign(w_0 + W^T X) \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } sign(w_0 + W^T X) < 0 \end{cases}$$

Can we find such function?

Logistic Regression for Binary Classification

2. Component 1: A Decision Process.

2.1 Logistic Regression: The Logistic Model.

- {Disclaimer!!
 - Throughout this section we will assume that the outcome has two classes, for simplicity.
 - We return to the general K class setup at the end.}
- Setting Logistic Regression for binary classification:
 - Here: $D = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$. Where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{0, 1\}$.
- Logistic regression starts with different model setup than linear regression:
 - instead of modeling Y as a function of X directly,
 - we model the probability that Y is equal to class 1, given X i.e.

•
$$P(Y=1|X) = \frac{\exp^{W^T X}}{1 + \exp^{W^T X}}$$

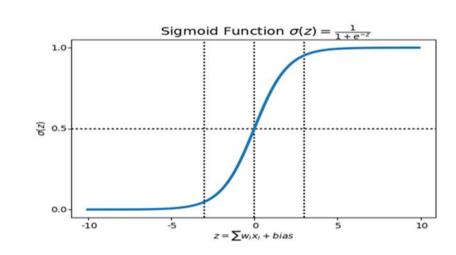
• The function on the right-hand side above is called the **sigmoid of** W^TX .(a.k.a **logistic function**)

2.2 Logistic Regression: The Logistic Function.

- Logistic/Sigmoid function:
 - The logistic function σ is a function from the real line to the unit interval (0,1)

•
$$\sigma(t) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-t}} = \frac{e^t}{1 + e^t} - \infty < t < \infty$$

- The function maps any real value into another value between 0 and 1.
- In machine learning, we use sigmoid to map predictions to probabilities.
- Properties:
 - Range: $0 < \sigma(t) < 1$.
 - Inverse: $t = \sigma^{-1}(p) = \ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)$: logit function.
 - Derivative: $\frac{d}{dt}\sigma(t) = \sigma(t) (1 \sigma(t)) = \sigma(t)\sigma(-t)$



2.3 Logistic Regression: The logit function.

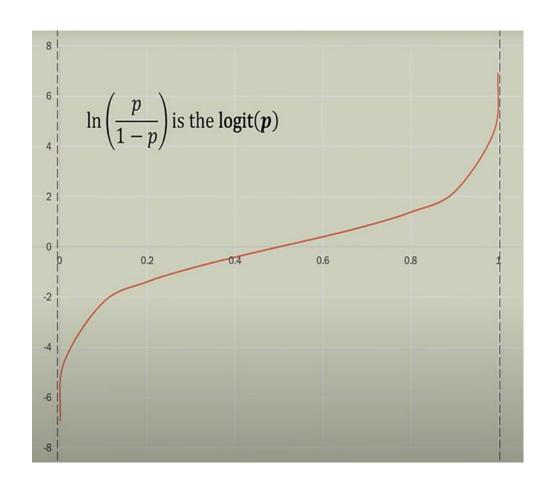
• Rewriting our logistic equation → {A Decision Process}:

•
$$P(Y = 1|X) = p(x) = \frac{exp^{W^TX}}{1 + exp^{W^TX}}$$

- In terms of logit function:
 - $\ln\left(\frac{p(x)}{1-p(x)}\right) = W^T X. \rightarrow \{A \text{ Decision Process}\}\$
- If we Visualize the *logit* Function: Interesting Observation.
 - When p = 0;

•
$$ln\left(\frac{0}{1}\right) = ln(0) = (-\infty)$$

- When p = 1;
 - $ln\left(\frac{1}{0}\right) = (\infty)$
- When p = 0.5;
 - $ln\left(\frac{0.5}{0.5}\right) = ln(1) = 0$



2.4 Decision Boundary: Logistic Regression.

- Suppose that we have formed the estimate **W**of the logistic coefficients, as discussed in the last section.
- To predict the outcome of a new input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we form: $\widehat{p(x)} = \frac{\exp^{W^T X}}{1 + \exp^{W^T X}};$

•
$$\widehat{p(x)} = \frac{\exp^{W^T X}}{1 + \exp^{W^T X}}$$

• and infer the associated class according:

•
$$\widehat{f(x)} = \begin{cases} 0, & \widehat{p(x)} \le 0.5 \\ 1, & \widehat{p(x)} > 0.5 \end{cases}$$

- Equivalently for logits:
 - logit $\widehat{p(x)} = w^T x$
- and infer the associated class according:

$$\bullet \quad \widehat{f(x)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \widehat{w^T x} \le 0 \\ 1 & \widehat{w^T x} > 0 \end{cases}$$

Logistic Regression for Multiclass Classification.

3. Component 1: A Decision Process.

3.1 Logistic Regression: Multiclass Classification.

- For example: predicting 3+ classes.
- There are several extensions to standard logistic regression when the response variable *Y* has more than **2 categories**. The two most common are:
 - ordinal logistic regression
 - multinomial logistic regression

3.2 Multinomial Logistic Regression: Approach-1.

- The first approach sets one of the class in the response variable as the *reference* group, and then fits separate logistic regression models to predict the other cases based off of the reference group.
- For example:

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & class A \\ 2 & class B \\ 3 & class C \end{cases}$$

- We could select the *y* = 3 (class C) case as the reference group, and then fit two separate models:
 - Model 1: predicts Y = 1 from Y = 3
 - Model 2: predicts Y = 2 from Y = 3

- To predict k classes (k > 2) from a fixed set of predictors X;
 - How does this approach fits?
- We can generalize as:

$$ln\left(\frac{P(Y=K-1)}{P(Y=K)}\right) = w_{0,K-1} + w_{1,K-1}X_1 + w_{2,K-1}X_2 + \dots + w_{p,K-1}X_p$$

- Each separate model can be fit as independent standard logistic regression models!
- Challenges with this approach:
 - How many parameters would need to be estimated?
 - How could these models be used to estimate the probability of an individual falling in each concentration?

3.3 Multinomial Logistic Regression: Approach-II.

- One vs. Rest Logistic Regression (OvR):
 - If there are 3 classes, then 3 separate logistic regressions are fit, where the probability of each category is predicted over the rest of the categories combined. So for our example, 3 models would be fit:
 - a first model would be fit to predict A from (B and C) combined.
 - a second model would be fit to predict B from (C and A) combined
 - a third model would be fit to predict C from (A and B) combined

3.4 Multinomial Logistic Regression: One Vs. Rest.

- To predict k classes (k > 2) from a fixed set of predictorsX;
 - How does this approach fits?

$$ln\left(\frac{P(Y=1)}{P(Y\neq 1)}\right) = w_{0,1} + w_{1,1}X_1 + w_{2,1}X_2 + \dots + w_{p,1}X_p$$

$$ln\left(\frac{P(Y=2)}{P(Y\neq 2)}\right) = w_{0,2} + w_{1,2}X_1 + w_{2,2}X_2 + \dots + w_{p,2}X_p$$

• We can generalize as:

$$ln\left(\frac{P(Y=K)}{P(Y\neq K)}\right) = w_{0,K} + w_{1,K}X_1 + w_{2,K}X_2 + \dots + w_{p,K}X_p$$

• Each separate model can be fit as independent standard logistic regression models!

- Challenges with this approach:
 - How do we convert a set of probability estimates from separate models to one set of probability estimates?
 - In our example; we created three different model and calculated the probability for each class such as:
 - $P(Y \in A) = 0.55$; $P(Y \in B) = 0.66$; $P(Y \in C) = 0.44$.
 - In above B has the highest probability:
 - Does that mean "B" must be assigned?
 - When there are more than 2 categories in the response variable then there is no guarantee that $P(Y = k) \ge 0.5$ for any one category. So any classifier (logistic or other) will instead have to select the group with the largest estimated probability.
 - In such cases classification boundaries are much more difficult to determine mathematically.
- Solutions:
 - Is there a way to calculate the probability of all that sums up to 1.

3.5 Multinomial Logistic Regression: Softmax

- Softmax is a mathematical function that is often used in machine learning and deep learning for various purposes, but most commonly for multiclass classification problems.
 - It is used to transform a vector of raw scores or logits (real numbers) into a probability distribution over multiple classes.
- The softmax function takes an input vector (commonly denoted as "z") of length "N" and computes a new vector of the same length, where each element in the new vector represents the probability of the corresponding class.
- Represented by:
 - $softmax(z)_i = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^N e^{z_j}}$
 - Here:
 - e: Euler's number.
 - Zi: is the raw score or "logit" for class "i".
 - Denominator: sum of the exponentials of all the raw scores, ensuring output probabilities to sum 1.
 - "chatgpt"

3.6 Multinomial Logistic Regression: Softmax ~ illustrations.

- Example: Softmax illustrations:
 - Raw scores for three classes:

•
$$P(Y \in A) = 0.55$$
; $P(Y \in B) = 0.66$; $P(Y \in C) = 0.44$
 $softmax(z)_A = \frac{e^{0.55}}{e^{0.55} + e^{0.66} + e^{0.44}} \approx \frac{1.739}{5.230} \approx 0.332$
 $softmax(z)_B = \frac{e^{0.66}}{e^{0.55} + e^{0.66} + e^{0.44}} \approx \frac{1.937}{5.230} \approx 0.370$
 $softmax(z)_C = \frac{e^{0.44}}{e^{0.55} + e^{0.66} + e^{0.44}} \approx \frac{1.554}{5.230} \approx 0.298$

3.6 Multinomial Logistic Regression: Softmax Regression.

• Softmax Regression (Multiclass Classification):

- Given a test input x, we want out hypothesis function to estimate the probability that P(y = k|x) for each value of k.
- We want to estimate the probability of the class label taking on each of the different possible values.
- Our hypothesis will output a **k** dimensional vector giving us our **k** estimated probabilities, represented as:

$$\widehat{f_{w}(x)} = \begin{bmatrix} P(y=1|x,w) \\ P(y=2|x,w) \\ \vdots \\ P(y=k|x,w) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} e^{w_{1}^{T}x} \\ e^{w_{2}^{T}x} \\ \vdots \\ e^{w_{k}^{T}x} \end{bmatrix}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{w^{T}x}}$$

Estimating parameters of Linear Regression.

4. An Error Functions

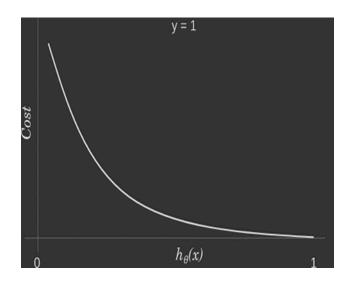
4.1 Logistic Regression: Error Function.

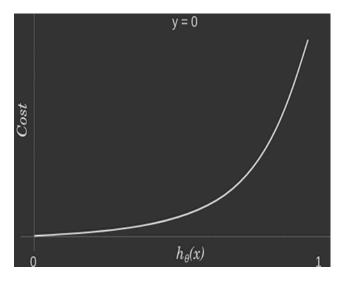
- Cost function for linear regression:
 - $MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum (y \hat{y})^2$
- What happens if we use the same cost function?
 - Remember we have *sigmoid function* in the logistic regression.
- It introduces the *non linearity* and we would end up with weirdly shaped non convex graph.
- We need Better cost function for LR.

4.2 Logistic Regression: Error Function.

• For logistic regression the cost function is defined as:

•
$$Cost(f_w(x), y) = \begin{cases} -log(f_w(x)) & \text{if } y = 1 \\ -log(1 - f_w(x)) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$





4.2 Logistic Regression: Error Function.

- It is also known as the log loss or cross-entropy loss, is a measure of the error between the predicted probabilities and true class labels.
- The logistic regression cost function is also known as the cross-entropy loss function or the log loss function.
- If we further optimize our cost functions we get;
 - $Cost(f_w(x,y) = -y \log(f_w(x)) (1-y) \log(1-f_w(x))$
 - Proof: try to replace y with 0 and 1 we will end up with two pieces of the original function.
- The final cost function will be:
 - $J(w) = -\frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} y^{i} \log \left(f_{w}(x^{i}) \right) + (1 y^{i}) \log (1 f_{w}(x^{i})) \right]$ $Here: f_{w}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{W^{T}X}}$

Learning a Parameters of Logistic Regression.

5. An Optimization Process.

2.6 Logistic Regression: Optimization — Gradient Descent.

• Algorithm:

- Have cost function $J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, where $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, ..., \boldsymbol{\theta}_m]$
- ullet Start off with some guesses for $heta_0$, ..., $heta_m$
 - It does not really matter what values you start off with, but a common choice is to set them all initially to zero
- Repeat until convergence{

$$\theta_{j} = \theta_{j} - \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^{T} x^{i}}} - y^{i}) x_{j}^{(i)}$$

Learing rate, which controls how big a step we take when we update θ_i

6. Classification - Evaluation Metrics.

6.1 Evaluation Metrics-Error in Classification.

- There are 2 major types of error in classification problems based on a binary outcome. They are:
 - False positives: incorrectly predicting $\hat{Y} = 1$ when it truly is in Y = 0.
 - False negative: incorrectly predicting $\hat{Y} = 0$ when it truly is in Y = 1.

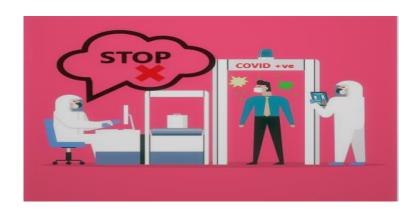
6.1 Evaluation Metrics-Confusion Matrix.

- A confusion matrix, is a technique for summarizing the performance of classification algorithm.
 - Example: we have a machine learning model classifying passengers as COVID positive and negative. When performing classification predictions, there are four types of outcomes that could occur:

		Actually Positive (1)	Actually Negative (0)
	Predicted Positive (1)	True Positives (TPs)	False Positives (FPs)
	Predicted Negative (0)	False Negatives (FNs)	True Negatives (TNs)

Confusion Matrix.

- True Positives:
 - When you predict an observation belongs to a class and it actually does belong to that class.
 - In this case, a passenger who is classified as COVID positive and is actually positive.



• False Positives:

• When you predict an observation belongs to a class and it actually does not belong to that class. In this case, a passenger who is classified as COVID positive and is actually not COVID positive (negative).



• False Negative

- When you predict an observation does not belong to a class and it actually does belong to that class.
- In this case, a passenger who is classified as not COVID positive (negative) and is actually COVID positive.



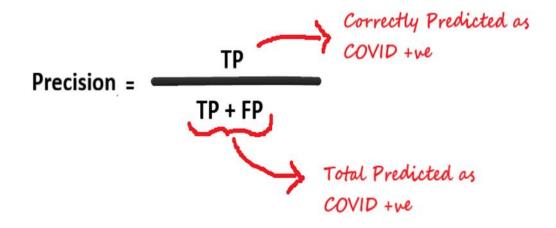
• True Negatives:

- When you predict an observation does not belong to a class and it actually does not belong to that class.
- In this case, a passenger who is classified as not COVID positive (negative) and is actually not COVID positive (negative).



- Accuracy
- simply a ratio of correctly predicted observation to the total observations.

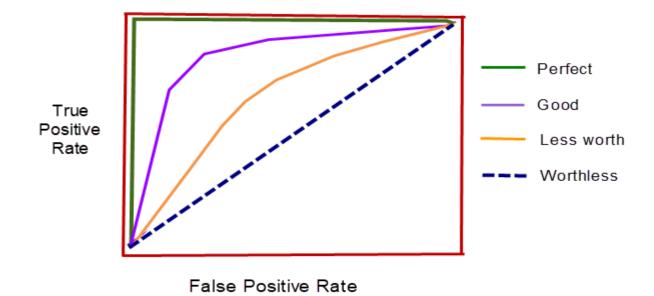
- Precision:
- Precision is the ratio of correctly predicted positive observations to the total predicted positive observations.



- Recall(Sensitivity):
- Aka True Positive Rate.
- Recall is the ratio of correctly predicted positive observations to the all observations in actual class — yes
- Out of all the positive classes, how many instances were identified correctly.
- i.e. Sensitivity describes how good a model at predicting positive classes.
- higher the sensitivity value means your model is good in predicting positive classes

- F1 Score:
- F1 Score is the weighted average of Precision and Recall.

- how good a model can predict each of the classes.
- ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) curve is a visualization of false positive rate (x-axis) and the true positive rate (y-axis).



Thank You any Question!!!

when your lecturer asks if you have any questions

