# **Classification and Regression**

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# Recap: Introduction to DL

## What are AI, ML, and DL?

## • Artificial Intelligence (AI)

- Broadest field: making machines think and act like humans.
- Includes: reasoning, problem-solving, planning, learning.
- Covers all approaches: symbolic AI, expert systems, ML, DL.

### Machine Learning (ML)

- Subset of AI: learns patterns from data without explicit rules.
- Scope: about 70–80% of modern AI progress comes from ML.
- Main paradigms:
  - Supervised Learning: Learn from labeled data (X, Y) to predict outcomes.
    Examples: regression (predict house prices), classification (cat vs dog).
  - Unsupervised Learning: Discover hidden structure in unlabeled data (X) only.
    Examples: clustering (customer segments), dimensionality reduction (PCA).
  - Reinforcement Learning: Learn by interacting with an environment to maximize cumulative reward. Examples: game-playing (chess, Go), robotics, self-driving cars.

### Deep Learning (DL)

- Subset of ML: neural networks with many layers (depth).
- Scope: ≈80–90% of state-of-the-art ML today is DL.
- Excels with high-dimensional data: images, text, speech.
- Dominates practical applications today (vision, NLP, speech).

# Historical Development of Deep Learning

- Early Origins (1940s-1960s): McCulloch-Pitts (1943): first neuron model, Rosenblatt's Perceptron (1958): first trainable neural netwrok.
- First Al Winter (1970s): Minsky & Papert (1969) show perceptron limits (XOR), Loss of funding & shift to symbolic Al.
- Backpropagation Revolution (1980s): Werbos (1974),
  Rumelhart–Hinton–Williams (1986) → training multi-layer NNs.
- Second Al Winter (1987–1995): Hardware & data insufficient, neural nets sidelined; symbolic/statistical Al rise.
- Statistical Learning Era (1990s–2000s): SVMs (Vapnik), Probabilistic Graphical Models (Pearl), strong math foundations (optimization, RKHS).
- Deep Learning Boom (2006–2015): DBNs (Hinton) in 2006, ImageNet/AlexNet (2012), Word2Vec, GANs.
- Modern Era (2017-Present): Transformers (2017), LLMs (GPT, BERT), AlphaGo, Diffusion Models, Multimodal Al.

# Applications of Deep Learning – At a Glance

#### Computer Vision

- Image recognition, object detection
- Medical imaging, self-driving cars
- CNNs, YOLO, U-Net

### Natural Language Processing (NLP)

- Translation, chatbots, summarization
- RNNs, Transformers, LLMs

#### Speech & Audio

- Speech recognition, assistants, music generation
- RNNs, Transformers, GANs

#### Healthcare & Life Sciences

- · Disease diagnosis, drug discovery, personalized medicine
- . CNNs, GNNs, Bayesian DL

#### Science & Engineering

- Climate modeling, physics simulations, astronomy
- PINNs. Autoencoders

### Daily Life & Industry

- Recommendations (Netflix, Amazon)
- Finance & fraud detection
- · Social media filters, traffic prediction
- Graph DL, CNNs, GANs

# **Tools for Deep Learning**

- Mathematical Tools
  - Linear Algebra vectors, matrices, eigenvalues.
  - Probability & Statistics distributions, Bayesian methods.
  - Calculus differentiation, gradients, optimization.
  - Optimization Theory convex and non-convex methods.
- Programming Foundations
  - Python (we will use throughout)
  - Mathematical Libraries: NumPy, SciPy, SymPy.
  - Data Handling: Pandas, SQL.
  - Documentation: Jupyter Notebooks (we will use throughout)
- Deep Learning Frameworks
  - TensorFlow (Google) (we will use throughout)
  - PyTorch (Meta), JAX (Google), Keras.
- Computational Tools
  - GPUs & TPUs NVIDIA CUDA, Google TPUs.
  - Cloud Platforms: Google Colab (we will use throughout), AWS, Azure, Kaggle.
  - Local Workstations: CUDA-enabled NVIDIA GPUs.

## Some Good References

- Bishop, C. M. (2007). Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning.
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- Géron, A. (2022). Hands-On Machine Learning with Scikit-Learn, Keras, and TensorFlow (3rd ed.). O'Reilly. [GitHub companion code]
- Goodfellow, I., Bengio, Y., & Courville, A. (2016). Deep Learning.
  MIT Press. [Free online]
- Chollet, F. (2021). *Deep Learning with Python* (2nd ed.). Manning.
- Nielsen, M. A. (2015). Neural Networks and Deep Learning. [Free online book]
- Online learning platforms:
  - Coursera Deep Learning Specialization
  - fast.ai Practical Deep Learning for Coders
  - DeepLearning.AI

# **Supervised Learning**

# **Supervised Learning**

- Definition: Learn a mapping from inputs x to outputs y using labeled data.
  - Data:  $(x_i, y_i)$  pairs.
  - Goal: minimize prediction error on unseen data.
- Examples:
  - Image classification cat vs. dog.
  - Speech recognition audio → text.
  - Medical diagnosis MRI → disease label.
- Why important?
  - Powers most current deep learning applications.
  - Used in computer vision, NLP, speech, healthcare, finance.
  - 70–80% of deep learning success comes from supervised learning.
- Limitations: requires large labeled datasets, costly to annotate.

# Common Terminology in Supervised Learning

- Target (label, output, response):
  - The variable we aim to predict.
  - Also called: dependent variable (in statistics), output variable, ground truth.
  - Can be:
    - **Continuous** → regression (e.g., price, temperature)
    - Categorical → classification (e.g., spam vs. not, disease yes/no)
- Features (inputs, attributes, predictors):
  - The variables used to predict the target.
  - Also called: independent variables, explanatory variables, covariates (in statistics).
  - Represent measurable characteristics or properties of the data.
- Example Predicting Diabetes Diagnosis (Classification):
  - Target: Diabetic (Yes = 1, No = 0)
  - Features: Age, BMI, glucose level, blood pressure
- **Notation:**  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p]$ :  $n \times p$  feature matrix of p variables, and  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_p)^{\top}$ : Target vector

# **Agenda**

- 2. Supervised Learning
- 2.1 Supervised Learning for Predictive Tasks
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# Supervised Learning in Predictive Modeling

**Predictive Modeling:** Use available data to build models that can predict outcomes for new, unseen cases.

- Supervised Learning = backbone of predictive modeling.
  - Input: data with features (X) and labels (Y).
  - Task: learn mapping  $f: X \to Y$ .
  - Output: predictions for unseen inputs.
- Prediction may mean:
  - Future value (e.g., next week's rainfall).
  - Class assignment (e.g., cat vs. dog image).
  - Probability score (e.g., disease risk).
- **Note:** Other paradigms can also involve prediction:
  - Unsupervised learning: predict cluster membership, latent features.
  - Reinforcement learning: predict rewards for actions.

## Two main types of Supervised Learning tasks:

- Regression
- Classification

# Regression vs. Classification

## • Regression:

- Predicts a continuous numeric response variable.
- Example: Predicting a person's blood pressure based on age and weight.

### Classification:

- Predicts a categorical or binary class label.
- Example: Predicting whether a tumor is benign or malignant based on imaging features.

### Shared foundation:

- Both use observed variables (predictors or features) to model outcomes.
- Both aim to learn a function f to map inputs to outputs.

Exercise: Given a target variable of interest (e.g., house price, disease type, rainfall amount, spam email detection), decide whether it is a Regression or Classification.

- House price ⇒ Regression
- Disease type ⇒ Classification
- Rainfall amount ⇒ Regression
- Spam email detection ⇒ Classification

## **General Formulation**

• We aim to learn the relationship between p predictors  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^{\top}$  and a response Y through a function f:

$$Y = f(x) + \varepsilon$$

- For regression:
  - $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ : continuous output
  - E.g., house price, blood pressure
- For classification:
  - $Y \in \{0,1\}$  or more general classes
  - E.g., fraud detection, disease status
- *f*(*x*) may be:
  - Linear (e.g., linear regression, logistic regression)
  - Non-linear (e.g., decision trees, neural networks)
- Error  $\varepsilon$  accounts for uncertainty.

# Example 1: Regression Task — Housing Prices

- **Goal:** Predict house prices using features of the property.
- Target Y: Sale price (continuous)
- Predictors x:
  - Square footage
  - Number of bedrooms
  - Location
  - House age
- Key Questions:
  - How does location affect price?
  - What is the price increase per added bedroom?

# Example 2: Classification Task — Medical Study

- Goal: Predict patient outcome (e.g., disease presence).
- Target Y: Treatment success (Yes/No)
- Predictors x:
  - Age
  - Sex
  - Treatment type
  - Comorbidities
- Key Questions:
  - Which features are most predictive of outcome?
  - Can we flag high-risk patients before treatment?

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# Linear Regression (1)

- Linear Regression is a statistical method for modeling the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables.
- The relationship is modeled using a linear predictor function whose unknown parameters are estimated from the data.
- In its simplest form, with one dependent variable y and one independent variable x, the linear regression model, so-called Simple Linear Regression (SLR) is:

$$y = w_0 + w_1 x + \varepsilon = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, \quad \mathbf{x} = (1, x)^{\top}, \quad \mathbf{w} = (w_0, w_1)^{\top},$$

### where:

- y is the output variable.
- x is the input variable.
- w<sub>0</sub> is the intercept parameter which represents the expected value of y when x = 0.
- $w_1$  is the slope, represents change in y for a one-unit change in x.
- $\epsilon$  is the error term, which accounts for the variability in y that cannot be explained by the linear relationship with x. Also,  $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon) = 0$ .

# Linear Regression (2)

- In a classical regression setting, the parameters w<sub>0</sub> and w<sub>1</sub> are
  estimated from the data using methods such as Ordinary Least
  Squares (OLS), which minimizes the sum of the squared differences
  between the observed values and the predicted values.
- The **OLS** estimate of the parameters can be obtained by solving the following normal equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{w}_0 \\ \hat{w}_1 \end{pmatrix} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{y},$$

where:

- $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{x})$ : design matrix of feature varibles, including a column of ones,  $\mathbf{1} = (1, \dots, 1)^{\top}$ , for the intercept and a column of the predictor variable values,  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$ .
- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^{\top}$ : vector of observed values of dependent variable.
- SLR can be extended to include multiple independent (features) variables, resulting in **Multiple Linear Regression (MLR)**:

$$y = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \cdots + w_p x_p + \epsilon.$$

## Interpretation of Regression Model Parameters

• Estimated (Predicted) Regression Line:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{w}_0 + \hat{w}_1 x$$

- Interpretation of  $\hat{w}_1$  (Slope):
  - Represents the estimated change in y for a one-unit increase in X.
  - Example: If  $\hat{w}_1 = 2$ , then for each additional unit of X, Y is expected to increase by 2 units.
- Interpretation of  $\hat{w}_0$  (Intercept):
  - Represents the estimated value of Y when X = 0.
  - Note: The intercept may not always have a meaningful interpretation, especially if X = 0 is outside the range of observed data.

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## What is Classification?

- Classification is a supervised learning task where the goal is to predict a categorical target variable (label).
- The output is a class label rather than a continuous number.
- Binary classification: Two classes (e.g., spam vs. not spam, disease vs. no disease)
- Multiclass classification: More than two classes (e.g., handwritten digit recognition: 0 to 9)
- Given input features *x*, the goal is to learn a function that predicts class membership:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \in \{0,1\}$$
 (or more generally,  $\{1,2,\ldots,K\}$ )

 Example: Predicting if a patient has diabetes based on age, BMI, and glucose levels.

# Logistic Regression (1)

- Logistic Regression is a classical statistical model used for binary classification.
- The model estimates the probability that a given input belongs to the positive class (e.g., Y = 1).
- The relationship between the predictors x and the probability  $P(Y = 1 \mid x)$  is modeled as:

$$P(Y = 1 \mid x) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}}}$$

- Here,  $\sigma(\cdot)$  is the logistic (sigmoid) function.
- Extension to multiple classes: when there are K > 2 categories, the probability of input x belonging to class k is modeled using the softmax function:

$$P(Y = k \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{w}_k^{\top} \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(\mathbf{w}_j^{\top} \mathbf{x})}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, K$$

- Outputs are interpreted as class probabilities.
  - In the binary case: threshold (e.g., 0.5) is used to make class predictions.
  - In the multiclass case: the predicted class is the one with the highest probability.

# No Closed-Form Solution for Logistic Regression

 The estimated paremeters w of logistic regression are obtained by minimizing log-loss (or cross-entropy loss), given by:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ y_i \log \hat{p}_i + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{p}_i) \right]$$

where  $\hat{p}_i = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_i)$  and n is the number of data points.

- Unlike linear regression, logistic regression does not have a closed-form solution for estimating parameters w.
- Therefore, classically we opt for optimization approach such as Newton-Raphson, Fisher scoring, and Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares (IRLS) to find the parameter estimates W.
- Since this is a convex optimization problem, we use iterative algorithms such as gradient descent to find the optimal w.

# Newton-Raphson / IRLS vs. Gradient Descent

 What is Newton-Raphson? An iterative optimization method using both the gradient and the Hessian:

$$\theta^{(t+1)} = \theta^{(t)} - \left[\nabla^2 \ell(\theta^{(t)})\right]^{-1} \nabla \ell(\theta^{(t)})$$

- For logistic regression, a variant of it known as Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares (IRLS) is used.
- Newton-Raphson / IRLS (Classical choice)
  - Good:
    - Quadratic convergence near optimum → fast for small/medium datasets. Standard in classical statistics software (R, SAS, Stata).
    - Well-suited for convex problems like logistic regression.
  - Bad:
    - Requires computing and inverting the Hessian (O(p³)) → costly for high-dimensional data.
    - Memory heavy for very large n or p.
- Why Gradient Descent took over (Modern ML era)
  - Scales easily to massive datasets (n, p very large).
  - ullet Works with **stochastic/mini-batch updates** o efficient for streaming data.
  - Integrates naturally with neural networks and non-convex models.
  - Slower per-iteration convergence than Newton-Raphson, but cheaper steps.

# Regression vs. Classification Summary

Aspect	Regression	Classification
Output type	Continuous	Categorical
Model example	Linear / Polynomial Regression	Logistic Regression
Loss function	$\mathcal{L}_{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$	$\mathcal{L}_{\log} = -\frac{1}{n} \sum [y_i \log \hat{y}_i + (1-y_i) \log(1-\hat{y}_i)]$
Closed-form solution	Yes (e.g., OLS)	No
Estimation method	Matrix inversion or GD	Gradient descent
Goal	Predict a number	Predict a class or probability