

# Statistical Machine Learning

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Slide credits and other course material can be found at:

[http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~palamara/SML\\_BDI.html](http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~palamara/SML_BDI.html)

# Plug-in Classification

- Consider the 0-1 loss and the risk:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ L(Y, f(X)) | X = x \right] = \sum_{k=1}^K L(k, f(x)) \mathbb{P}(Y = k | X = x)$$

The Bayes classifier provides a solution that minimizes the risk:

$$f_{\text{Bayes}}(x) = \arg \max_{k=1, \dots, K} \pi_k g_k(x).$$

- We know neither the conditional density  $g_k$  nor the class probability  $\pi_k$ !
- The **plug-in classifier** chooses the class

$$f(x) = \arg \max_{k=1, \dots, K} \hat{\pi}_k \hat{g}_k(x),$$

- where we plugged in
  - estimates  $\hat{\pi}_k$  of  $\pi_k$  and  $k = 1, \dots, K$  and
  - estimates  $\hat{g}_k(x)$  of conditional densities,
- Linear Discriminant Analysis** is an example of plug-in classification.

# Summary: Linear Discriminant Analysis

- **LDA**: a plug-in classifier assuming multivariate normal conditional density  $g_k(x) = g_k(x|\mu_k, \Sigma)$  for each class  $k$  sharing the **same covariance**  $\Sigma$ :

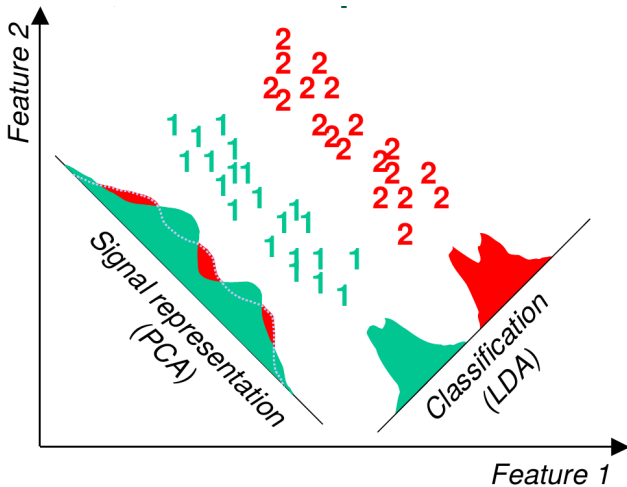
$$X|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma),$$

$$g_k(x|\mu_k, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu_k)\right).$$

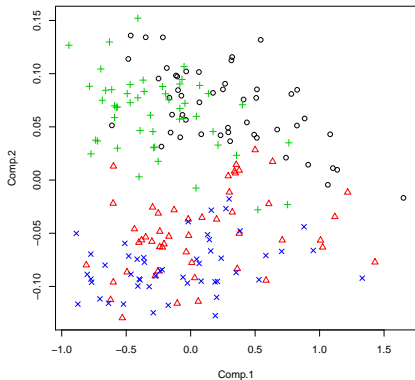
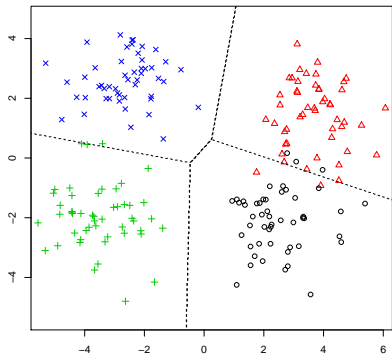
- LDA minimizes the squared **Mahalanobis distance** between  $x$  and  $\hat{\mu}_k$ , offset by a term depending on the estimated class proportion  $\hat{\pi}_k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\text{LDA}}(x) &= \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \log \hat{\pi}_k g_k(x|\hat{\mu}_k, \hat{\Sigma}) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \underbrace{\left( \log \hat{\pi}_k - \frac{1}{2} \hat{\mu}_k^\top \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \hat{\mu}_k \right)}_{\text{terms depending on } k \text{ linear in } x} + \left( \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \hat{\mu}_k \right)^\top x \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} (x - \hat{\mu}_k)^\top \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x - \hat{\mu}_k)}_{\text{squared Mahalanobis distance}} - \log \hat{\pi}_k. \end{aligned}$$

# LDA projections

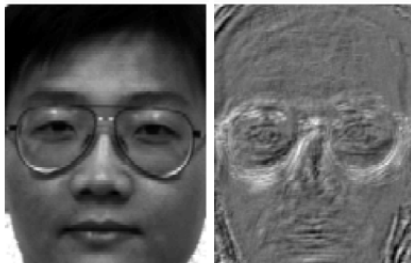


# LDA vs PCA projections



LDA separates the groups better.

# Fisherfaces



Eigenfaces vs. Fisherfaces, Belhumeur et al. 1997

## Conditional densities with different covariances

Given training data with  $K$  classes, assume a parametric form for conditional density  $g_k(x)$ , where for each class

$$X|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k),$$

i.e., instead of assuming that every class has a different mean  $\mu_k$  with the **same** covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  (LDA), we now allow each class to have its own covariance matrix.

Considering  $\log \pi_k g_k(x)$  as before,

$$\begin{aligned} \log \pi_k g_k(x) &= \text{const} + \log(\pi_k) - \frac{1}{2} \left( \log |\Sigma_k| + (x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x - \mu_k) \right) \\ &= \text{const} + \log(\pi_k) - \frac{1}{2} \left( \log |\Sigma_k| + \mu_k^T \Sigma_k^{-1} \mu_k \right) \\ &\quad + \mu_k^T \Sigma_k^{-1} x - \frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma_k^{-1} x \\ &= a_k + b_k^T x + x^T c_k x. \end{aligned}$$

A **quadratic** discriminant function instead of linear.

# Quadratic decision boundaries

Again, by considering that we choose class  $k$  over  $k'$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} a_k + b_k^T x + x^T c_k x - (a_{k'} + b_{k'}^T x + x^T c_{k'} x) \\ = a_{\star} + b_{\star}^T x + x^T c_{\star} x > 0 \end{aligned}$$

we see that the decision boundaries of the Bayes Classifier are quadratic surfaces.

- The plug-in Bayes Classifier under these assumptions is known as the **Quadratic Discriminant Analysis** (QDA) Classifier.



# QDA

LDA classifier:

$$f_{\text{LDA}}(x) = \arg \min_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \left\{ (x - \hat{\mu}_k)^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x - \hat{\mu}_k) - 2 \log(\hat{\pi}_k) \right\}$$

QDA classifier:

$$f_{\text{QDA}}(x) = \arg \min_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \left\{ (x - \hat{\mu}_k)^T \hat{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (x - \hat{\mu}_k) - 2 \log(\hat{\pi}_k) + \log(|\hat{\Sigma}_k|) \right\}$$

for each point  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  where the plug-in estimate  $\hat{\mu}_k$  is as before and  $\hat{\Sigma}_k$  is (in contrast to LDA) estimated for each class  $k = 1, \dots, K$  separately:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{j: y_j = k} (x_j - \hat{\mu}_k)(x_j - \hat{\mu}_k)^T.$$

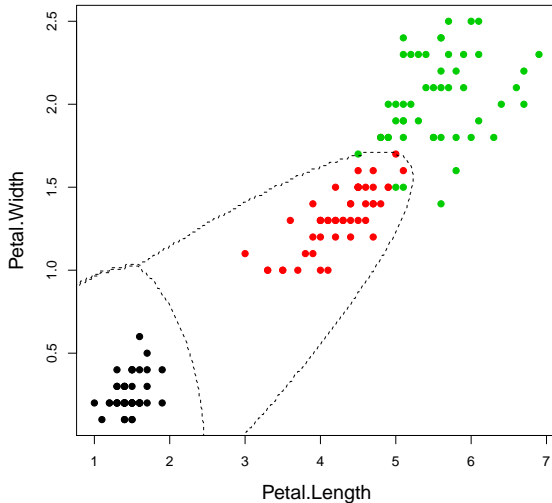
## Computing and plotting the QDA boundaries.

```
##fit QDA
iris.qda <- qda(x=iris.data,grouping=ct)

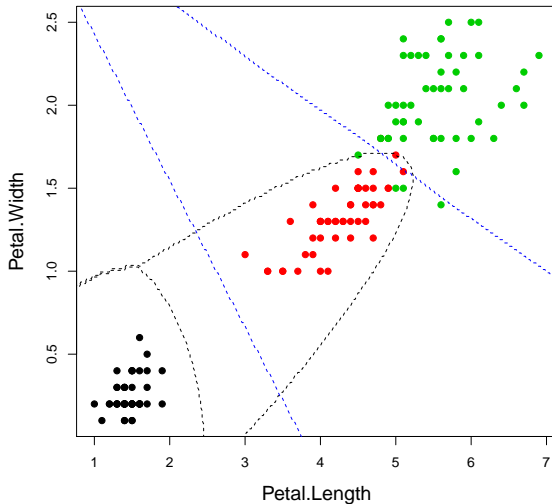
##create a grid for our plotting surface
x <- seq(-6,6,0.02)
y <- seq(-4,4,0.02)
z <- as.matrix(expand.grid(x,y),0)
m <- length(x)
n <- length(y)

iris.qdp <- predict(iris.qda,z)$class
contour(x,y,matrix(iris.qdp,m,n),
        levels=c(1.5,2.5), add=TRUE, d=FALSE, lty=2)
```

# Iris example: QDA boundaries



# Iris example: QDA boundaries



# LDA or QDA?

- Having seen both LDA and QDA in action, it is natural to ask which is the “better” classifier.
- If the covariances of different classes are very distinct, QDA will probably have an advantage over LDA.
- Parametric models are only ever approximations to the real world, allowing **more flexible decision boundaries** (QDA) may seem like a good idea. However, there is a price to pay in terms of increased variance and potential **overfitting**.

# Regularized Discriminant Analysis

In the case where data is scarce, to fit

- LDA, need to estimate  $K \times p + p \times p$  parameters
- QDA, need to estimate  $K \times p + K \times p \times p$  parameters.

Using LDA allows us to better estimate the covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ . Though QDA allows more flexible decision boundaries, the estimates of the  $K$  covariance matrices  $\Sigma_k$  are more variable.

RDA combines the strengths of both classifiers by regularizing each covariance matrix  $\Sigma_k$  in QDA to the single one  $\Sigma$  in LDA

$$\Sigma_k(\alpha) = \alpha \Sigma_k + (1 - \alpha) \Sigma \quad \text{for some } \alpha \in [0, 1].$$

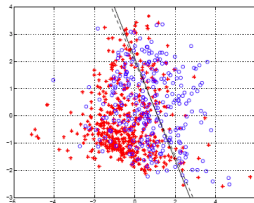
This introduces a new parameter  $\alpha$  and allows for a continuum of models between LDA and QDA to be used. Can be selected by Cross-Validation for example.

# Logistic regression

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# Review

- In LDA and QDA, we estimate  $p(x|y)$ , but for classification we are mainly interested in  $p(y|x)$
- Why not estimate that directly? Logistic regression<sup>1</sup> is a popular way of doing this.



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<sup>1</sup>Despite the name “regression”, we are using it for classification!



# Logistic regression

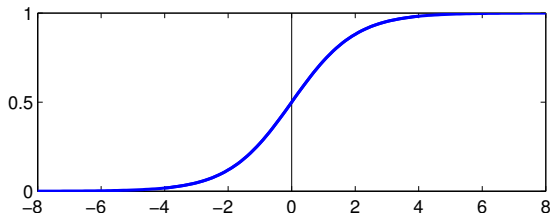
- One of the most popular methods for classification
- Linear model on the probabilities
- Dates back to work on population growth curves by Verhulst [1838, 1845, 1847]
- Statistical use for classification dates to Cox [1960s]
- Independently discovered as the perceptron in machine learning [Rosenblatt 1957]
- Main example of “discriminative” as opposed to “generative” learning
- Naïve approach to classification: we could do linear regression assigning specific values to each class. Logistic regression refines this idea and provides a more suitable model.

# Logistic regression

- Statistical perspective: consider  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ . Generalised linear model with Bernoulli likelihood and logit link:

$$Y|X = x, a, b \sim \text{Bernoulli}(s(a + b^\top x))$$

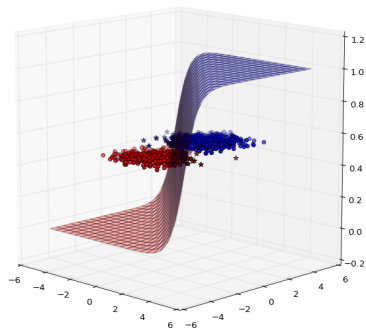
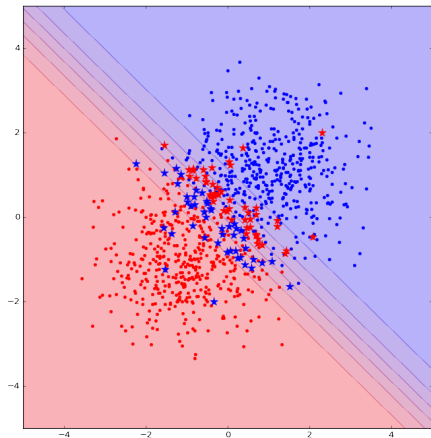
$$s(a + b^\top x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(a + b^\top x))}.$$



- ML perspective: a **discriminative classifier**. Consider binary classification with  $\mathcal{Y} = \{+1, -1\}$ . Logistic regression uses a parametric model on the conditional  $Y|X$ , not the joint distribution of  $(X, Y)$ :

$$p(Y = y|X = x; a, b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y(a + b^\top x))}.$$

# Prediction Using Logistic Regression



## Hard vs Soft classification rules

- Consider using LDA for binary classification with  $\mathcal{Y} = \{+1, -1\}$ . Predictions are based on linear decision boundary:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}_{\text{LDA}}(x) &= \text{sign} \left\{ \log \hat{\pi}_{+1} g_{+1}(x | \hat{\mu}_{+1}, \hat{\Sigma}) - \log \hat{\pi}_{-1} g_{-1}(x | \hat{\mu}_{-1}, \hat{\Sigma}) \right\} \\ &= \text{sign} \{ a + b^{\top} x \}\end{aligned}$$

for  $a$  and  $b$  depending on fitted parameters  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\pi}_{+1}, \hat{\pi}_{-1}, \hat{\mu}_{+1}, \hat{\mu}_{-1}, \Sigma)$ .

- Quantity  $a + b^{\top} x$  can be viewed as a soft classification rule. Indeed, it is modelling the difference between the log-discriminant functions, or equivalently, the **log-odds ratio**:

$$a + b^{\top} x = \log \frac{p(Y = +1 | X = x; \hat{\theta})}{p(Y = -1 | X = x; \hat{\theta})}.$$

- $f(x) = a + b^{\top} x$  corresponds to the “confidence of predictions” and loss can be measured as a function of this confidence:
  - exponential loss:  $L(y, f(x)) = e^{-yf(x)}$ ,
  - log-loss:  $L(y, f(x)) = \log(1 + e^{-yf(x)})$ ,
  - hinge loss:  $L(y, f(x)) = \max\{1 - yf(x), 0\}$ .

# Linearity of log-odds and logistic function

- $a + b^\top x$  models the **log-odds ratio**:

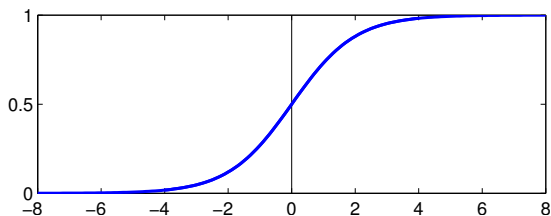
$$\log \frac{p(Y = +1|X = x; a, b)}{p(Y = -1|X = x; a, b)} = a + b^\top x.$$

- Solve explicitly for conditional class probabilities (using  $p(Y = +1|X = x; a, b) + p(Y = -1|X = x; a, b) = 1$ ):

$$p(Y = +1|X = x; a, b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(a + b^\top x))} =: s(a + b^\top x)$$

$$p(Y = -1|X = x; a, b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(+ (a + b^\top x))} = s(-a - b^\top x)$$

where  $s(z) = 1/(1 + \exp(-z))$  is the **logistic function**.



# Fitting the parameters of the hyperplane

How to learn  $a$  and  $b$  given a training data set  $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ ?

- Consider maximizing the **conditional log likelihood** for  $\mathcal{Y} = \{+1, -1\}$ :

$$p(Y = y_i | X = x_i; a, b) = p(y_i | x_i) = \begin{cases} s(a + b^\top x_i) & \text{if } Y = +1 \\ 1 - s(a + b^\top x_i) & \text{if } Y = -1 \end{cases}$$

- Noting that  $1 - s(z) = s(-z)$ , we can write the log-likelihood using the compact expression:

$$\log p(y_i | x_i) = \log s(y_i(a + b^\top x_i)).$$

- And the log-likelihood over the whole i.i.d. data set is:

$$\ell(a, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(y_i | x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log s(y_i(a + b^\top x_i)).$$

# Fitting the parameters of the hyperplane

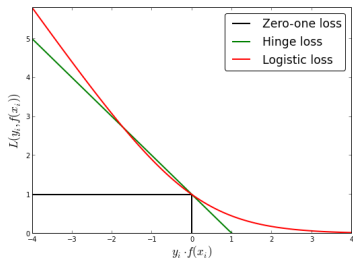
How to learn  $a$  and  $b$  given a training data set  $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ ?

- Consider maximizing the **conditional log likelihood**:

$$\ell(a, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(y_i | x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log s(y_i(a + b^\top x_i)).$$

- Equivalent to minimizing the empirical risk associated with the **log loss**:

$$\widehat{R}_{\log}(f_{a,b}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -\log s(y_i(a + b^\top x_i)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-y_i(a + b^\top x_i)))$$



# Could we use the 0-1 loss?

- With the 0-1 loss, the risk becomes:

$$\widehat{R}(f_{a,b}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{step}(-y_i(a + b^\top x_i))$$

- But what is the gradient? ...





# Logistic Regression

- Log-loss is differentiable, but it is not possible to find optimal  $a, b$  analytically.
- For simplicity, absorb  $a$  as an entry in  $b$  by appending '1' into  $x$  vector, as we did before.
- Objective function:

$$\hat{R}_{\log} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -\log s(y_i x_i^\top b)$$

- Differentiate wrt  $b$ :

$$\nabla_b \hat{R}_{\log} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -s(-y_i x_i^\top b) y_i x_i$$

$$\nabla_b^2 \hat{R}_{\log} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n s(y_i x_i^\top b) s(-y_i x_i^\top b) x_i x_i^\top \succeq 0.$$

- We cannot set  $\nabla_b \hat{R}_{\log} = 0$  and solve: no closed form solution. We'll use numerical methods.

## Logistic Function

$$s(-z) = 1 - s(z)$$

$$\nabla_z s(z) = s(z)s(-z)$$

$$\nabla_z \log s(z) = s(-z)$$

$$\nabla_z^2 \log s(z) = -s(z)s(-z)$$

# Gradient Descent

Start at a random point

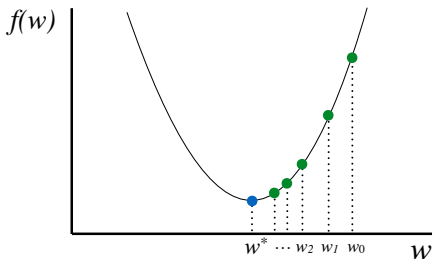
## Repeat

Determine a descent direction

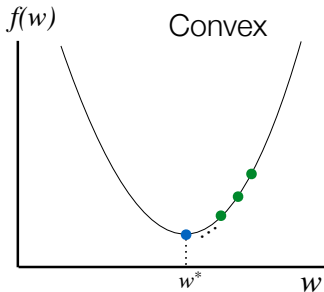
Choose a step size

Update

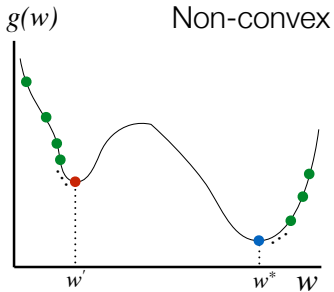
**Until** stopping criterion is satisfied



# Where Will We Converge?



Any local minimum is a global minimum



Multiple local minima may exist

**Least Squares, Ridge Regression and  
Logistic Regression are all convex!**

# Convexity

**How to determine convexity?**  $f(x)$  is convex if

$$f''(x) \geq 0$$

Examples:

$$f(x) = x^2, f''(x) = 2 > 0$$

**How to determine convexity in this case?**

Matrix of second-order derivatives (**Hessian**)

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_D} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_D} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_D} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2 \partial x_D} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_D^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

**How to determine convexity in the multivariate case?**

If the Hessian is positive semi-definite  $\mathbf{H} \succeq 0$ , then  $f$  is convex.

A matrix  $\mathbf{H}$  is positive semi-definite if and only if,  $\forall \mathbf{z}$ ,

$$\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{z} = \sum_{j,k} H_{j,k} z_j z_k \geq 0$$

# Logistic Regression

- Hessian is positive-definite: objective function is **convex** and there is a **single unique global minimum**.
- Many different algorithms can find optimal  $b$ , e.g.:
  - Gradient descent:

$$b^{\text{new}} = b + \epsilon \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n s(-y_i x_i^\top b) y_i x_i$$

- Stochastic gradient descent:

$$b^{\text{new}} = b + \epsilon_t \frac{1}{|I(t)|} \sum_{i \in I(t)} s(-y_i x_i^\top b) y_i x_i$$

where  $I(t)$  is a subset of the data at iteration  $t$ , and  $\epsilon_t \rightarrow 0$  slowly ( $\sum_t \epsilon_t = \infty, \sum_t \epsilon_t^2 < \infty$ ).

- Conjugate gradient, LBFGS and other methods from numerical analysis.
- Newton-Raphson:

$$b^{\text{new}} = b - (\nabla_b^2 \hat{R}_{\log})^{-1} \nabla_b \hat{R}_{\log}$$

This is also called **iterative reweighted least squares**.

# Iterative reweighted least squares (IRLS)

- We can write gradient and Hessian in a more compact form. Define  $\mu_i = s(x_i^\top b)$ , and the diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{S}$  with  $\mu_i(1 - \mu_i)$  on its diagonal. Also define the vector  $\mathbf{c}$  where  $c_i = \mathbb{1}(y_i = +1)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_b \widehat{R}_{\log} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -s(-y_i x_i^\top b) y_i x_i \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (\mu_i - c_i) \\ &= \mathbf{X}^\top (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \mathbf{c}) \\ \nabla_b^2 \widehat{R}_{\log} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n s(y_i x_i^\top b) s(-y_i x_i^\top b) x_i x_i^\top \\ &= \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{X}\end{aligned}$$

# Iterative reweighted least squares (IRLS)

Let  $\mathbf{b}_t$  be the parameters after  $t$  “Newton steps”.

The gradient and Hessian at step  $t$  are given by:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{g}_t &= \mathbf{X}^\top (\boldsymbol{\mu}_t - \mathbf{c}) = -\mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{c} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_t) \\ \mathbf{H}_t &= \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S}_t \mathbf{X}\end{aligned}$$

The Newton Update Rule is:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{b}_{t+1} &= \mathbf{b}_t - \mathbf{H}_t^{-1} \mathbf{g}_t \\ &= \mathbf{b}_t + (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S}_t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{c} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_t) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S}_t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S}_t (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{b}_t + \mathbf{S}_t^{-1} (\mathbf{c} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_t)) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S}_t \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{S}_t \mathbf{z}_t\end{aligned}$$

Where  $\mathbf{z}_t = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b}_t + \mathbf{S}_t^{-1} (\mathbf{c} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_t)$ . Then  $\mathbf{b}_{t+1}$  is a solution of the “weighted least squares” problem:

$$\text{minimise } \sum_{i=1}^N S_{t,ii} (z_{t,i} - \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

## Linearly separable data

Assume that the data is linearly separable, i.e. there is a scalar  $\alpha$  and a vector  $\beta$  such that  $y_i(\alpha + \beta^\top x_i) > 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Let  $c > 0$ . The empirical risk for  $a = c\alpha$ ,  $b = c\beta$  is

$$\widehat{R}_{\log}(f_{a,b}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-cy_i(\alpha + \beta^\top x_i)))$$

which can be made arbitrarily close to zero as  $c \rightarrow \infty$ , i.e. soft classification rule becomes  $\pm\infty$  (overconfidence)  $\rightarrow$  overfitting.

**Regularization** provides a solution to this problem.



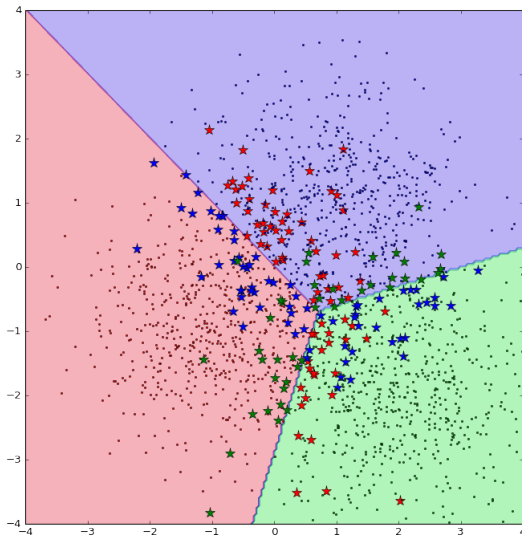
# Multi-class logistic regression

The **multi-class/multinomial** logistic regression uses the **softmax** function to model the conditional class probabilities  $p(Y = k|X = x; \theta)$ , for  $K$  classes  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , i.e.,

$$p(Y = k|X = x; \theta) = \frac{\exp(w_k^\top x + b_k)}{\sum_{\ell=1}^K \exp(w_\ell^\top x + b_\ell)}.$$

Parameters are  $\theta = (b, W)$  where  $W = (w_{kj})$  is a  $K \times p$  matrix of weights and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^K$  is a vector of bias terms.

# Multi-class logistic regression



# Crab Dataset

```
library(MASS)
## load crabs data
data(crabs)
ct <- as.numeric(crabs[,1])-1+2*(as.numeric(crabs[,2])-1)
## project into first two LD
cb.lda <- lda(log(crabs[,4:8]),ct)
cb.ldp <- predict(cb.lda)
x <- cb.ldp$x[,1:2]
y <- as.numeric(ct==0)
eqsplot(x,pch=2*y+1,col=y+1)
```

# Crab Dataset

```
## visualize decision boundary
gx1 <- seq(-6,6,.02)
gx2 <- seq(-4,4,.02)
gx <- as.matrix(expand.grid(gx1,gx2))
gm <- length(gx1)
gn <- length(gx2)
gdf <- data.frame(LD1=gx[,1],LD2=gx[,2])

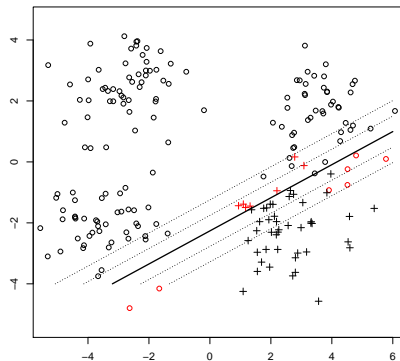
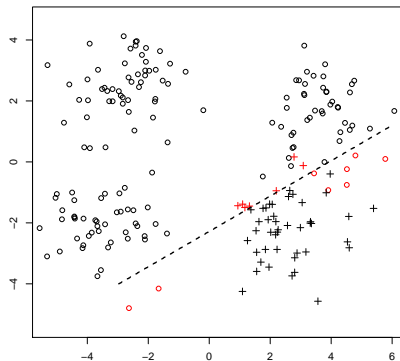
lda <- lda(x,y)
y.lda <- predict(lda,x)$class
eqsplot(x,pch=2*y+1,col=2-as.numeric(y==y.lda))
y.lda.grid <- predict(lda,gdf)$class
contour(gx1,gx2,matrix(y.lda.grid,gm,gn),
        levels=c(0.5), add=TRUE,d=FALSE,lty=2,lwd=2)
```

# Crab Dataset

```
## logistic regression
xdf <- data.frame(x)
logreg <- glm(y ~ LD1 + LD2, data=xdf, family=binomial)
y.lr <- predict(logreg,type="response")
eqsplot(x,pch=2*y+1,col=2-as.numeric(y==(y.lr>.5)))
y.lr.grid <- predict(logreg,newdata=gdf,type="response")
contour(gx1,gx2,matrix(y.lr.grid,gm,gn),
        levels=c(.1,.25,.75,.9), add=TRUE,d=FALSE,lty=3,lwd=1)
contour(gx1,gx2,matrix(y.lr.grid,gm,gn),
        levels=c(.5), add=TRUE,d=FALSE,lty=1,lwd=2)

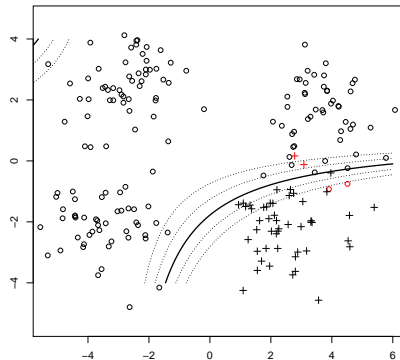
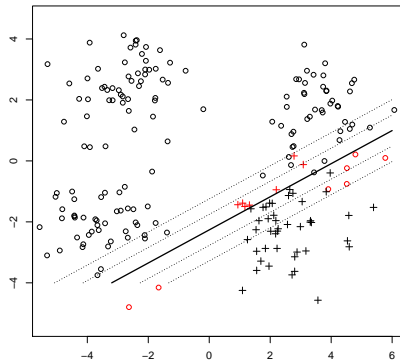
## logistic regression with quadratic interactions
logreg <- glm(y ~ (LD1 + LD2)^2, data=xdf, family=binomial)
y.lr <- predict(logreg,type="response")
eqsplot(x,pch=2*y+1,col=2-as.numeric(y==(y.lr>.5)))
y.lr.grid <- predict(logreg,newdata=gdf,type="response")
contour(gx1,gx2,matrix(y.lr.grid,gm,gn),
        levels=c(.1,.25,.75,.9), add=TRUE,d=FALSE,lty=3,lwd=1)
contour(gx1,gx2,matrix(y.lr.grid,gm,gn),
        levels=c(.5), add=TRUE,d=FALSE,lty=1,lwd=2)
```

# Crab Dataset : Blue Female vs. rest



Comparing LDA and logistic regression.

# Crab Dataset



Comparing logistic regression with and without quadratic interactions.

# Logistic regression Python demo

**Single-class:** <https://github.com/vkanade/mlmt2017/blob/master/lecture11/Logistic%20Regression.ipynb>

**Multi-class:** <https://github.com/vkanade/mlmt2017/blob/master/lecture11/Multiclass%20Logistic%20Regression.ipynb>