## <span id="page-0-0"></span>**MUNT**  $F C O N$

## **Artificial Intelligence in Finance**

#### Supervised learning - discrete outcomes part A

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**[Introduction](#page-1-0)**

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## **Introduction**

Instead of predicting a specific value (on an interval) for a **continuous target** variable, we might want to predict a **qualitative variable** (e.g. color, social status, ....). More broadly, we are interested in **classification problems**:

- The patient is: i) healthy, ii) has a common cold, iii) flue, iv) COVID-19 or v) something else?
- The respondent is willing to vote for candidate: i) A, ii) B, ...
- If is it likely that the company will have financial distress  $(1 \text{yes})$  $0 - no$ ?
- If Is the customer going to buy the product  $(1 \text{yes}, 0 \text{no})$ ?
- Is the borrower going to repay the loan  $(1 \text{yes}, 0 \text{no})$ ?
- If Is the price going up  $(1 \text{ves}, 0 \text{no})$ ?

#### **[Introduction](#page-1-0)**

## **Introduction**

A specific case of a classification problem is related to a **binary decision** (1 - Yes, 0 - No).

Classification **is distinct** from continuous outcome prediction. We have **different models** and a different concepts of **what constitutes a good prediction**. Some methods:

- **Logistic regression.**
- **Penalized logistic regressions:** 
	- $\blacksquare$  LASSO.
	- **RIDGE**
	- **Elastic net.**
- **Tree based methods**
- Support Vector Machines.
- K-Means clustering (sort of).
- Neural networks and other methods...

**[Logistic regression](#page-4-0)**

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## <span id="page-5-0"></span>**Probability linear model**

Let *Y<sup>i</sup>* , *i* = 1, 2, ...., *n* denote a bi-variate outcome 1 − *survived*, 0 − *not survived* sinking of the Titanic and  $X_i$  the age of the person. The following model is the **probability linear model** and is estimated via OLS:

$$
Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i \tag{1}
$$

with following estimates:

$$
Y_i = 0.46 - 0.001894X_i + \hat{\epsilon}_i
$$
 (2)

## **Probability linear model**

The estimated regression line shows you why such a model **might not be the best idea**:



#### Issues:

- $\blacksquare$  The model is **heteroscedastic almost by design.**
- Predicted values might **fall below 0** and **exceed 1**.

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<span id="page-7-0"></span>Ideally you might want to model the probability directly. Let  $h(\pmb{X}_i;\pmb{\beta})$ be a **link-function** that includes *k* features in vector *X* and corresponding *k* parameters in vector  $\beta$ . The probability that event happens  $Y_i = 1$ is:

$$
P(Y_i = 1 | \mathbf{X}_i; \beta) = h(\mathbf{X}_i; \beta) \in [0, 1]
$$
\n(3)

For probability that event will **not** happen we have:

$$
P(Y_i = 0 | X_i; \beta) = 1 - P(Y_i = 1 | X_i; \beta) = 1 - h(X_i; \beta)
$$
 (4)

We can combine both equations into:

$$
P(Y_i|\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta})=h(\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta})^{Y_i}(1-h(\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta}))^{(1-Y_i)}
$$
(5)

This is a Bernoulli trial.

The Bernoulli trial:

$$
P(Y_i|\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta})=h(\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta})^{Y_i}(1-h(\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta}))^{(1-Y_i)}
$$
(6)

assuming **independence** between outcomes, leads to a **Binomial process** and we can combine multiple observations of the outcome into a **likelihood function**:

$$
L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = P(Y|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^n h(\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta})^{Y_i}(1-h(\boldsymbol{X}_i;\boldsymbol{\beta}))^{(1-Y_i)}
$$
(7)

The goal is to find such parameters of  $\beta$  that lead to the highest possible value of the *L*(β). Why?

The maximization process is over parameters  $\beta$ :

$$
\max_{\beta} \rightarrow L(\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} h(\mathbf{X}_i; \beta)^{Y_i} (1 - h(\mathbf{X}_i; \beta))^{(1 - Y_i)}
$$
(8)

Instead of working with the product a more convenient method is to use **log-likelihood**:

$$
\max_{\beta} \rightarrow LL(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i log[h(X_i; \beta)] + (1 - Y_i)log[(1 - h(X_i; \beta))]
$$
(9)

We have to figure out, how should the *h*(.) function look like. A popular option is a form of a **sigmoid function**.

Specifically, a popular option is the **logistic function**; hence the **logistic regression**. Let denote  $\sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j X_{i,j}$  simply as *x*. The logistic function has a form:

$$
P_{i} = P(Y_{i} = 1 | \mathbf{X}_{i}; \beta) = h(.) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} = \frac{e^{x}}{1 + e^{x}}
$$
(10)  

$$
\sum_{\substack{\beta = 0 \text{even } \beta \text{ odd}}}^{\beta = 0 \text{even } \beta \text{ even}} \sum_{\substack{\beta = 0 \text{even } \beta \text{ odd}}}^{\beta = 0 \text{even } \beta \text{ even even}} \frac{1}{1 + e^{x}} = \frac{e^{x}}{1 + e^{x}}
$$
(11)  

$$
\sum_{\beta = 1}^{n} Y_{i} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_{j} X_{i,j} \right) - \log \left( 1 + e^{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_{j} X_{i,j}} \right)
$$
(11)

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β

**Recall**: In machine learning applications we do not care so much about parameter estimates. Still if you want to interpret coefficients, remember that from *h*(.) you can express *P<sup>i</sup>* . A popular approach is to look at **odds**:

$$
O_i = \frac{P_i}{1 - P_i} = e^x \tag{12}
$$

This looks better, now taking the (natural) log leads to the **logit**:

$$
log\left(\frac{P_i}{1-P_i}\right) = log\left(e^x\right) = x \tag{13}
$$

and it looks similar to a linear regression.

**[Evaluation of binary outcomes](#page-12-0)**

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## <span id="page-13-0"></span>**Prediction model**

Turning back to the survivors of the sinking of the titanic (yR0lWICH3rY). We use a training sample and consider the following specification (with estimates):

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k} \hat{\beta}_{j}X_{j} = -1.27 + 2.19 \text{Top}_{i} + 1.01 \text{Mid}_{i} + 2.68 \text{Female}_{i} -0.04 \text{Age}_{i} + 0.94 \text{Parent}_{i}
$$

 $\blacksquare$  How would you estimate the effect of Age on the probability of surviving?

- Use logistic function.
- The effect is **non-linear** and depends on other variables!

## **Prediction model**

Assuming that the person has following characteristics,  $Top = 1$ ,  $Mid =$ 0, Female = 1, Age =  $30$ , Parent = 0, the probability tu survive is given by:



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<span id="page-15-0"></span>Consider  $Y_i = 1$  to be a positive and  $Y_i = 0$  a negative outcome. Let's the prediction of the probability be  $\hat{p}_i$  and assume to have a given threshold  $p_{\mathcal{T}}\in (0,1)$  such, that if  $\hat{p}_i>p_{\mathcal{T}}\rightarrow \hat{Y}_i=1.$  Given a sample of observations in the testing sample,  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$  we can construct the following **confusion matrix**, predictions from  $plm$  and  $p<sub>T</sub> = 0.5$ :



- **True positives?**  $TP = 12$ .
- **T** True negatives?  $TN = 118$ .
- **F** False positives?  $FP = 4$ .
- False negatives?  $FN = 76$ .



\n- **Accuracy** = 
$$
\frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN} = \frac{118+12}{118+12+4+76} = 0.62
$$
\n- **Sensitivity** = Recall = TPR =  $\frac{TP}{TP+FN} = \frac{12}{12+76} = 0.14$
\n- **Specificity** = TNR =  $\frac{TN}{TN+FP} = 0.97$
\n- **Precision** =  $\frac{TP}{TP+FP} = \frac{12}{12+4} = 0.75$
\n- **Balanced accuracy** =  $\frac{\text{Sensitivity}}{2} = \frac{0.14+0.97}{2} = 0.55$
\n- **F1** = 2 ×  $\frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Sensitivity}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Sensitivity}} = 2 \times \frac{0.75 \times 0.14}{0.75+0.14} = 0.24$
\n

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Compare the confusion matrix from the *plm* model:



To the confusion matrix from the logistic regression:



Which model leads to **better** predictions?

Which model leads to **better** predictions? It depends right? Still the differences appear to be substantial:



Note, that the threshold  $p<sub>T</sub> = 0.5$  was set arbitrarily. In fact, it might be considered to be a **hyperparameter** that you need to tune using **cross-validation**.

## <span id="page-19-0"></span>**Changing threshold**

Let's change the threshold to  $p_T = 0.45$ .



Not an improvement for LR! The model is the same, only the threshold changed.

## **ROC**

The Receiver Operating Characteristic curve displays two types of errors for all possible thresholds (James et al. 2018, [\[3\]](#page-27-0)).



The overall performance of a classifier across all possible thresholds is the **area under the ROC**, denoted as **AUC**. In cases above  $AUC_{\text{plm}} = 0.51$ and  $AUC_{lr} = 0.84$ .

### <span id="page-21-0"></span>**Brier score**

There are several popular alternatives to evaluate classification forecasts that can be used in the model confidence set framework as well. The **Brier** (1950, [\[1\]](#page-27-1)) **score** for two class problems is given by:

$$
S_B = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{p}_i - Y_i)^2
$$
 (15)

, which is the mean squared error between the predicted probability  $(\hat{p}_i)$  and the observed outcome (Y<sub>*i*</sub>).

In our examples above we have  $S_{B,\text{plm}} = 0.24$  and  $S_{B,\text{lr}} = 0.16$  and only the logistic regression model is in the set of superior models.

### **Cross entropy**

The **Cross-entropy** is a quite popular measure for classification purposes. For two class problems it is given by (the lower the value the more accurate the model):

$$
S_E = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n -[log(\hat{p}_i)Y_i + log(1-\hat{p}_i)(1-Y_i)] \qquad (16)
$$

The two terms are switched on/off depending on whether the observed event happened or not. **You get penalized if you are confident and wrong**.

In our examples above we have  $S_{E,plm} = 0.68$  and  $S_{E,lr} = 0.48$  and only the logistic regression model is in the set of superior models.

## **Finance related cost functions**

A threshold and loss functions should be driven by the **domain knowledge**. The mapping  $D$  :  $\hat{p}_i \rightarrow \hat{Y}_i, \hat{Y}_i \in \{0,1\}$  should not be driven by purely statistical measures.

Consider a loan market with three participants, lender, borrower and investor. Lender and investor are designing credit-scoring models.

- What should be the criterion for the lender?
- $\blacksquare$  What should be the criterion for the investor?

**[Data imbalance](#page-24-0)**

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## **Intuition**

In the titanic dataset, 40.82% survived. This is **not overly imbalanced**. However, using the Zopa dataset ('zsnew.csv'), we have only 8.155% of defaulted loans. This is a severaly imbalanced dataset, where the majority class (good loans) has significant representation in the data.

Imbalanced data might lead to **accuracy paradox**. Say you predict a stock to default in the next year. You have 99.5% of firms that have not defaulted (**majority** class) and only 0.05% that have (**minority** class):

- $\blacksquare$  How accurate is a prediction that will unconditionally always predict a non-default (i.e. 0)?
- Your model will have a tendency to learn from mostly successful companies that are over-represented in the sample.
- $\blacksquare$  The accuracy of the model is likely to reflect the underlying distribution imbalance.

## **Intuition**

Possible solutions:

- **Under-sampling** the majority class.
- **Over-sampling** the minority class.
- **Under**-sampling the majority **and Over**-sampling the minority class.
- **E** Use **cost weighted learning** more weight given to the minority class.
- Use synthetic minority over-sampling technique (SMOTE) of Chawla et al., (2002, [\[2\]](#page-27-2)).
- **E** Appropriate **adjustment** of the decision threshold  $p<sub>T</sub>$  (use cross-validation).
- Instance hardness threshold of Smith et al.,  $(2014, 51)$ .
- **Balance cascade of Liu et al., (2009, [\[4\]](#page-27-4)).**

#### **[Data imbalance](#page-24-0)**

- <span id="page-27-1"></span>[1] Glenn W Brier et al. "Verification of forecasts expressed in terms of probability". In: *Monthly weather review* 78.1 (1950), pp. 1–3.
- <span id="page-27-2"></span>[2] Nitesh V Chawla et al. "SMOTE: synthetic minority over-sampling technique". In: *Journal of artificial intelligence research* 16 (2002), pp. 321–357.
- <span id="page-27-0"></span>[3] Gareth James et al. *An introduction to statistical learning*. Springer, 2013.
- <span id="page-27-4"></span>[4] Xu-Ying Liu, Jianxin Wu, and Zhi-Hua Zhou. "Exploratory undersampling for class-imbalance learning". In: *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, Part B (Cybernetics)* 39.2 (2008), pp. 539–550.
- <span id="page-27-3"></span>[5] Michael R Smith, Tony Martinez, and Christophe Giraud-Carrier. "An instance level analysis of data complexity". In: *Machine learning* 95.2 (2014), pp. 225–256.

**[Data imbalance](#page-24-0)**

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