LECTURE 07:

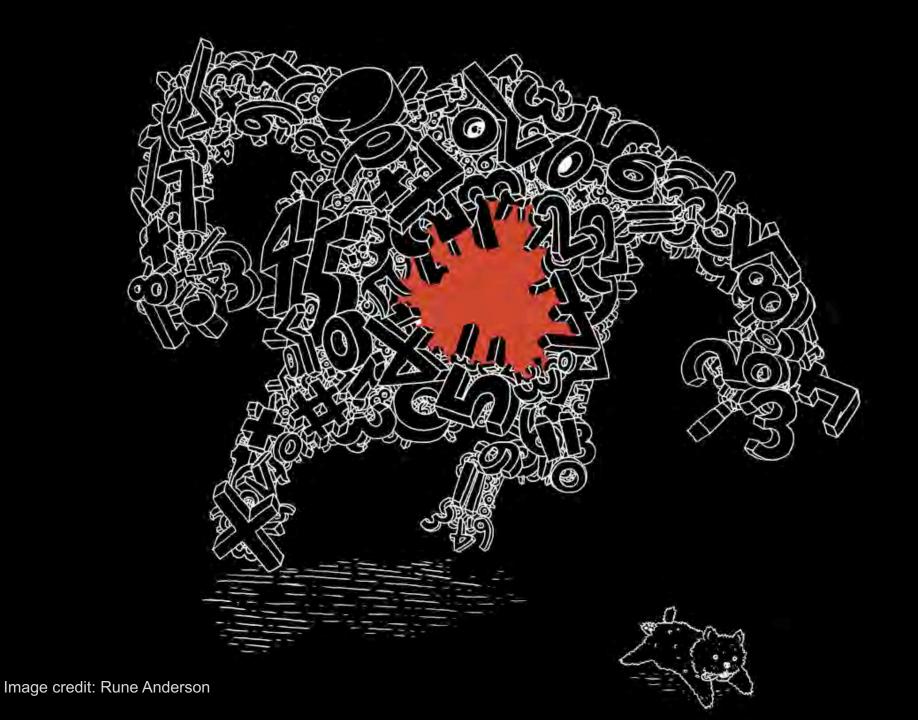
CLASSIFICATION PT. 3

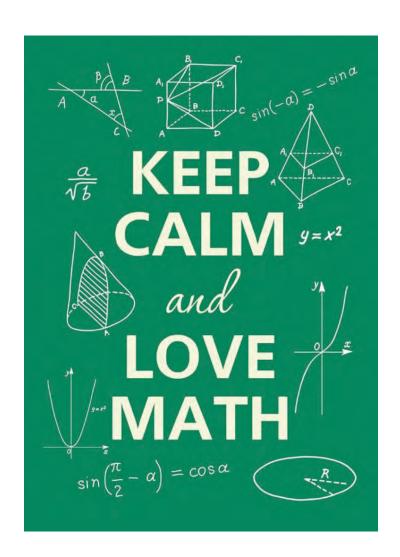
October 02, 2017

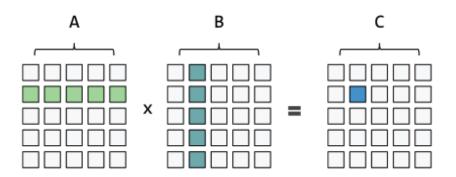
SDS 293: Machine Learning

Outline

- ✓ Motivation
- √ Bayes classifier
- √K-nearest neighbors
- ✓ Logistic regression
 - √ Logistic model
 - Estimating coefficients with maximum likelihood
 - ✓ Multivariate logistic regression
 - ✓ Multiclass logistic regression
 - ✓ Limitations
- Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)
 - Bayes' theorem
 - LDA on one predictor
 - LDA on multiple predictors
- Comparing Classification Methods

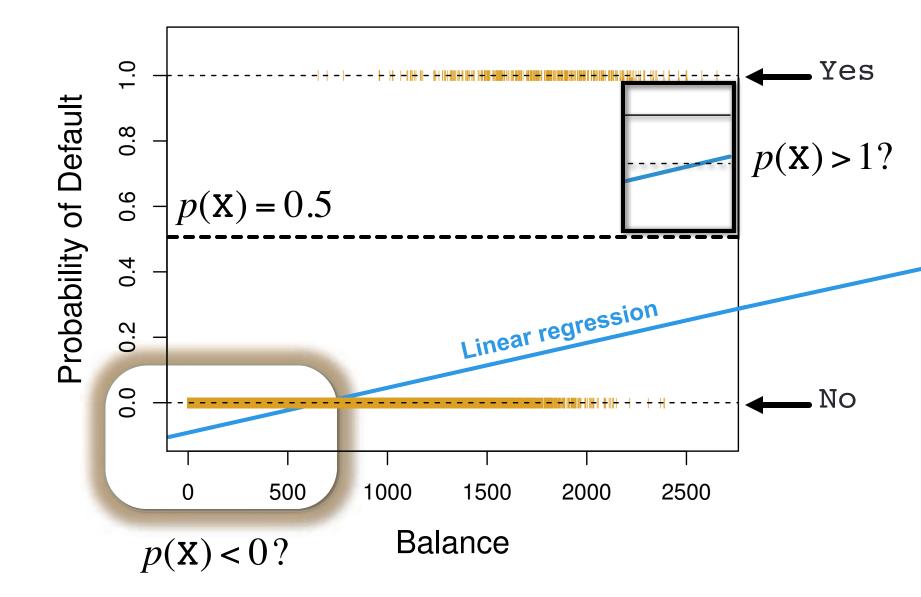




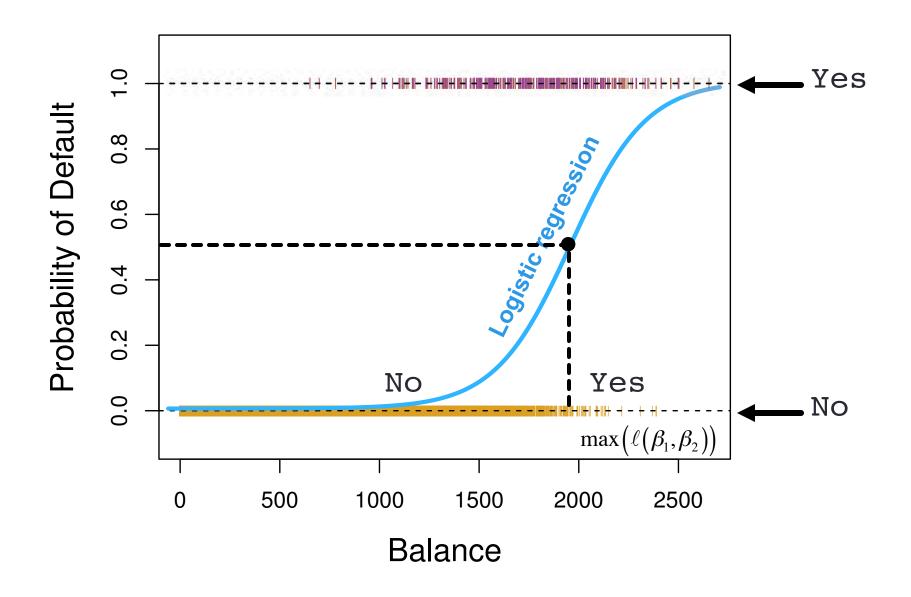


$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{det(A)} adj(A)$$

Recap: linear regression



Recap: logistic regression



Recap: logistic regression

Question: what were we tying to do using the logistic function?

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}}}$$

Answer: estimate the *conditional distribution* of the response, given the predictors

Discussion

What could go wrong?



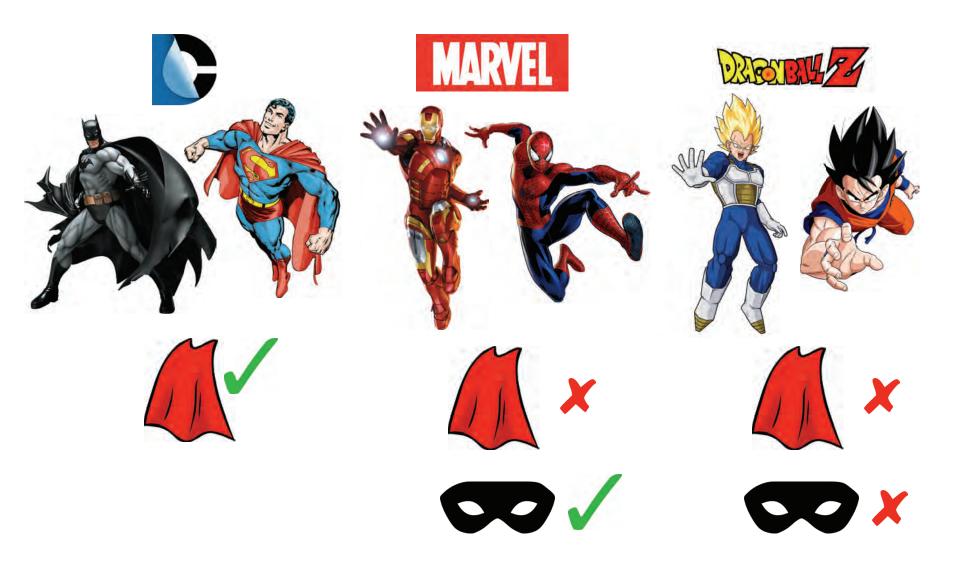
Flashback: superheroes



According to this sample, we can perfectly predict the 3 classes using only:



Flashback: superheroes



Perfect separation

 If a predictor happens to perfectly align with the response, we call this perfect separation

 When this happens, logistic regression will grossly inflate the coefficients of that predictor (why?)

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{X}}} \qquad \prod_{i:y_i = 1} p(\mathbf{x}_i) \times \prod_{j:y_i = 1} (1 - p(\mathbf{x}_j))$$

Warning message:

glm.fit: fitted probabilities numerically 0 or 1 occurred

Another approach

 We could try modeling the distribution of the predictors in each class separately:

$$f_k(X) \equiv \Pr(X = x \mid Y = k)$$

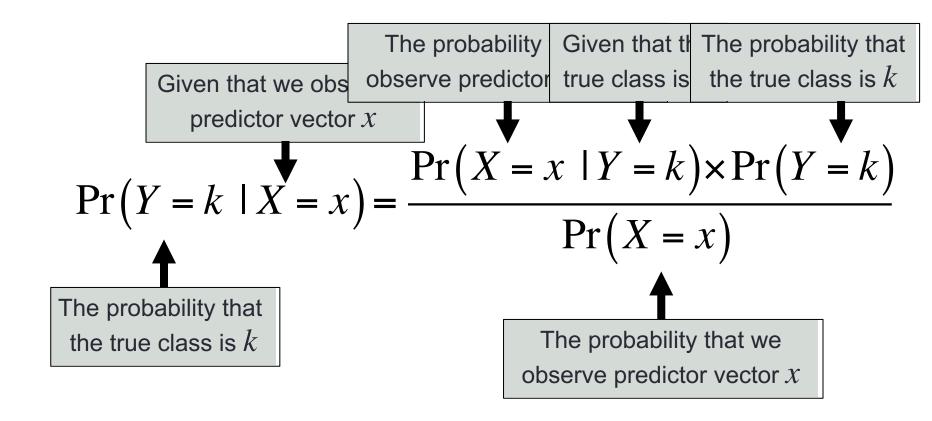
"density function of X"

How would this help?

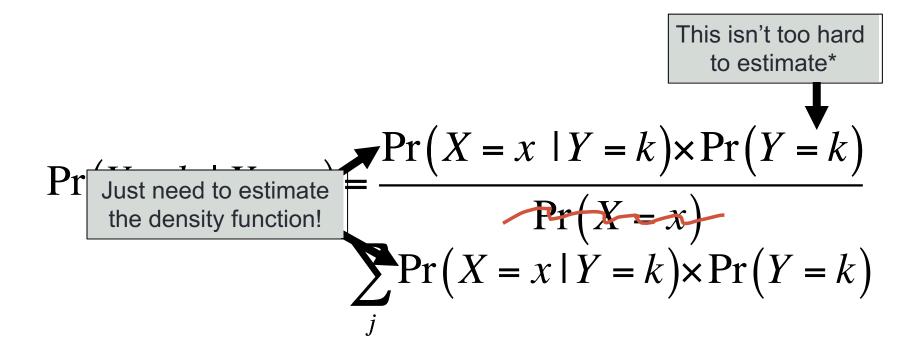
Refresher: Bayes' rule

$$\Pr(A \mid B) = \frac{\Pr(B \mid A) \times \Pr(A)}{\Pr(B)}$$

Refresher: Bayes' rule

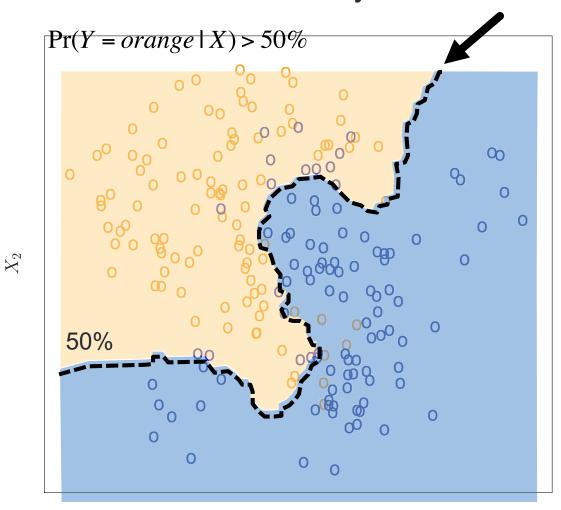


Refresher: Bayes' rule



Flashback: toy example

Bayes' Decision Boundary



$$X_1$$
 Pr($Y = blue | X) > 50\%$

Using Bayes' rule for classification

Let's start by assuming we have just a single predictor

• In order to estimate $f_k(X)$, we'll need to make some assumptions about its form

Assumption 1: $f_i(X)$ is normally distributed

 If the density is normal (a.k.a. Gaussian), then we can calculate the function as:

$$f_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} * \sigma_k} \times e^{\left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma_k^2} \times (x - \mu_k)^2\right)}$$

where μ_k and σ_k^2 are the mean & variance of the k^{th} class

Assumption 2: classes have equal variance

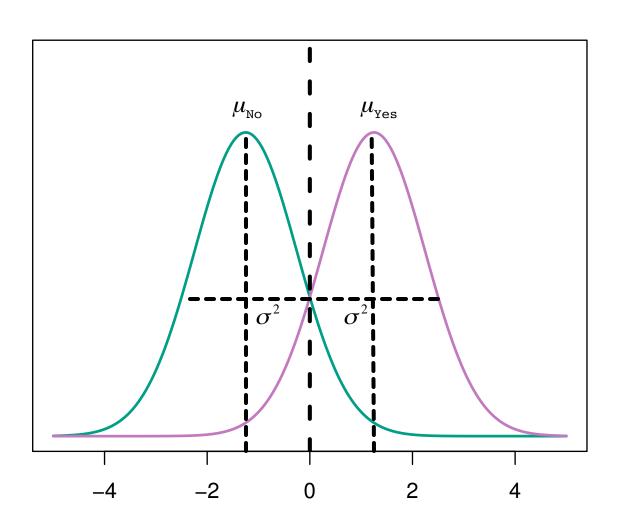
For simplicity, we'll also assume that:

$$\sigma_1^2 = \cdots = \sigma_K^2$$

• That gives us a single variance term, which we'll denote

$$\sigma^2$$

Graphically



Plugging in...

$$Pr(Y = k) * \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k}} \times e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} * (x - \mu_k)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sum_{i \in K} Pr(Y = i) * \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i}} \times e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_i^2} * (x - \mu_i)^2}}$$

For our purposes, this is a constant!

More algebra!

So really, we just need to maximize:

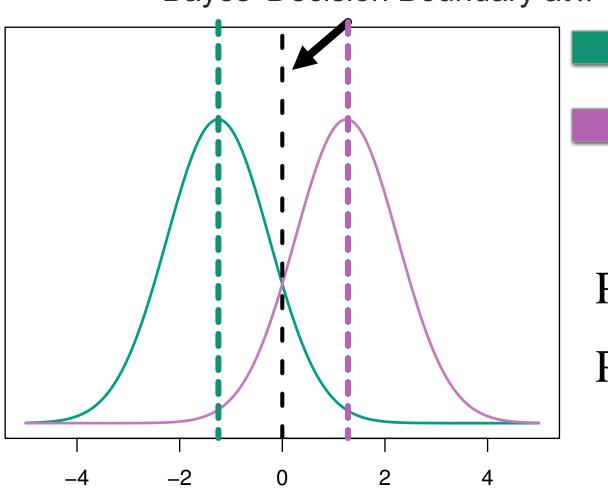
$$\Pr(Y = k) * \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k}} \times e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} * (x - \mu_k)^2}$$

$$\delta_k(x) = x * \frac{\mu_k}{\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu_k^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log(\Pr(Y = k))$$

This is called a discriminant function of x

Okay, we need an example

Bayes' Decision Boundary at x=0



$$\mu_1 = -1.25$$

$$\mu_2 = 1.25$$

$$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = 1$$

$$\Pr(Y=1) = 0.5$$

$$Pr(Y = 2) = 0.5$$

LDA: estimating the mean

 As usual, in practice we don't know the actual values for the parameters and so we have to estimate them

The linear discriminant analysis method uses the following:

$$\hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i: y_i = k} x_i$$

(the average of all the training examples from class *k*)

LDA: estimating the variance

Then we'll use that estimate to get:

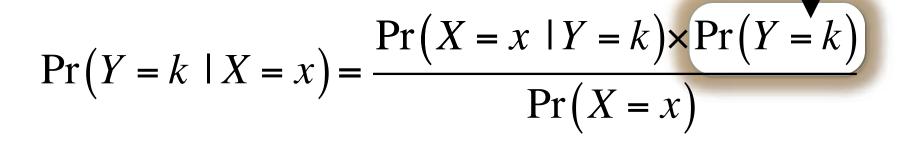
$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{1}{n - K} \sum_{K} \sum_{i: y_i = k} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)^2$$

(weighted average of the sample variances of each class)

Flashback

Remember that time I said:

This isn't too hard to estimate*



 If we don't have additional knowledge about the class membership distribution:

$$\hat{\pi}_k = \frac{n_k}{n}$$

LDA classifier

 The LDA classifier plugs in all these estimates, and assign the observation to the class for which

$$\delta_k(x) = x * \frac{\hat{\mu}_k}{\hat{\sigma}^2} - \frac{\hat{\mu}_k^2}{2\hat{\sigma}^2} + \log(\hat{\pi}_k)$$

is the largest

 The *linear* in LDA comes from the fact that this equation is linear in x

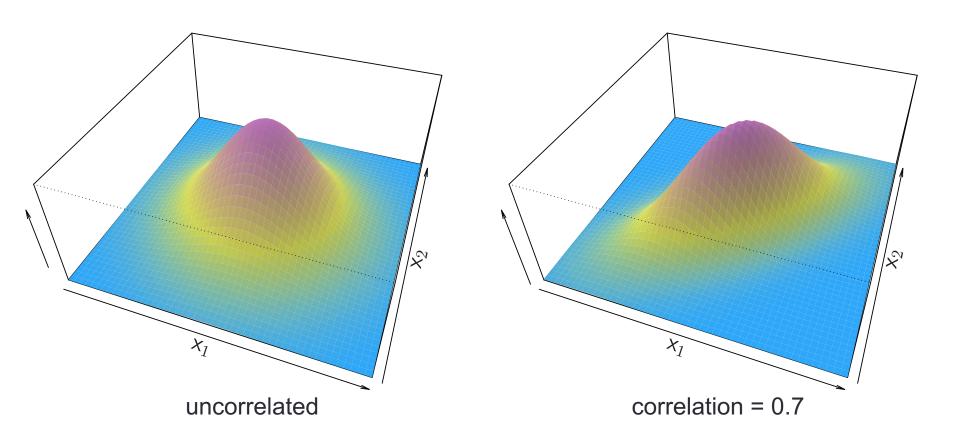
Quick recap: LDA

- LDA on 1 predictor makes 2 assumptions: what are they?
 - 1. Observations within class are normally distributed
 - 2. All classes have common variance
- So what would we need to change to make this work with multiple predictors?



LDA on multiple predictors

 Nothing! We just assume the density functions are multivariate normal:



LDA on multiple predictors

Well okay, not nothing...

What happens to the mean?

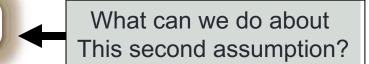
$$\mu_k$$
: scalar \rightarrow vector

What happens to the variance?

$$\sigma^2$$
: $scalar \rightarrow Cov(X)$: $matrix$

Quick recap: LDA

- LDA on 1 predictor makes 2 assumptions: what are they?
 - 1. Each class is normally distributed
 - 2. All classes have common variance



Quadratic discriminant analysis

 What if we relax the assumption that the classes have uniform variance?

$$Cov(X) \rightarrow Cov_k(X)$$
 for each k

• If we plug this into Bayes', we get:

$$\delta_{k}(\vec{x}) = -\frac{1}{2} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}_{k})^{T} Cov_{k} (\mathbf{X})^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}_{k}) + \log(\pi_{k})$$
Multiplying two *x* terms together, hence "quadratic"

Discussion: QDA vs. LDA

 Question: why does it matter whether or not we assume that the classes have common variance?

- Answer: bias/variance trade off
 - One covariance matrix on p predictors $\rightarrow p(p+1)/2$ parameters
 - The more parameters we have to estimate, the higher variance in the model (but the lower the bias)



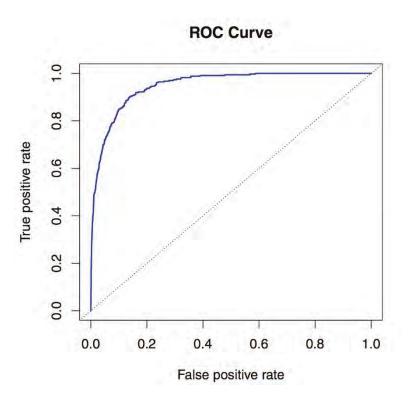
A diversion: Detection theory

- Detection theory is more traditionally considered in electrical engineering contexts
 - Radar, communications, biosurveillance sensors
- But the problem is the same as we consider here: discriminate signal from noise
 - Think of "signal" and "noise" as two classes
- The typical context, however, is different
 - Usually the classes are highly imbalanced

Class imbalance

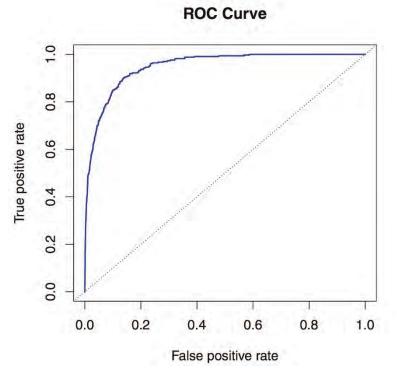
- Overall error rate is one metric for performance
- It doesn't consider potential tradeoffs
- In a "detection" setting, only one class is interesting
 - Labeling something "noise" is saying, in effect, "I don't care about this observation"
- In this scenario, when noise is misclassified as signal, it's called a "false alarm" or "false positive"
 - Example: determining someone will default on their loan when they won't

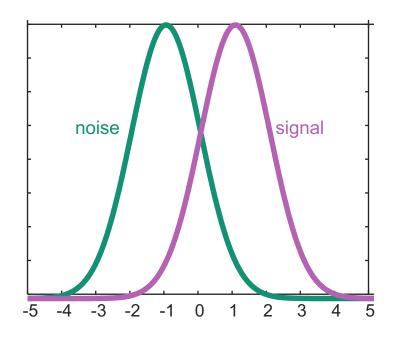
Receiver operating characteristic (ROC)



- ROC curves demonstrate the tradeoff between false positives and false negatives
- Perfect detection is achievable when the curves touches (1,1)
- Random assignment tracks the diagonal dotted line

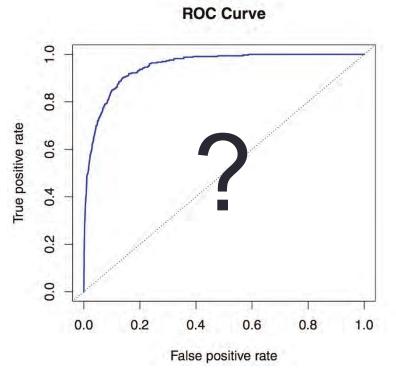
Class balance

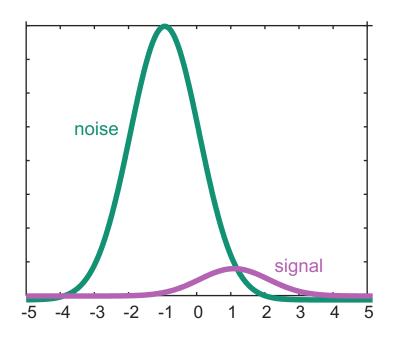




- Let's visually weight the pdfs by class size
- Suppose we have the ROC curve above for two balanced classes

Class balance

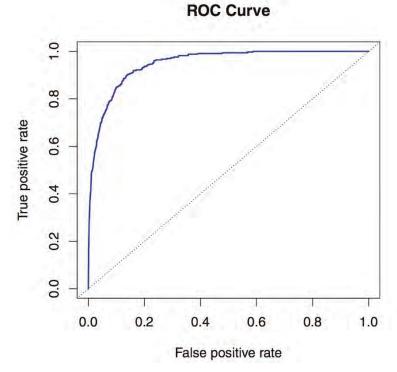




- Let's visually weight the pdfs by class size
- Suppose we have the ROC curve above for two balanced classes
- How will it change if the class balance changes?

ROC curves don't change with class balance!

TPR = Pr(classify as pos. | is pos.)FPR = Pr(classify as pos. | is neg.)



- Probability of true positive and false positive are conditioned on the true state
- The conditional distributions don't change based on class balance
- (Aside: this is not the case for precision and recall, which you can read about in the book if you're interested)

Constant false alarm rate

- False alarms can be expensive
 - May require staff time to investigate a benign incident
- In a resource-constrained environment, a common practice is to set the *number* of false alarms that can be tolerated
- So what should we do?



Constrained optimization for detection

- Datapoint x: how many measurements to you get per unit time?
 - E.g., credit applications per day, radar returns per second
- Datapoint y: how many false alarms can you tolerate per unit time?
- Worst case scenario: there's nothing to detect; any detections are false alarms
- Set false positive rate to y/x
- Now you have your false alarm rate, so maximize your detection rate

Maximizing the probability of detection

- There is a certain region of the measurement space where we will declare a detection
 - Everywhere else we won't

$$-TPR = \int_{x \in R} p_1(x) \, dx$$

$$-FPR = \int_{x \in R} p_2(x) \, dx$$

- Want to maximize $TPR + \lambda (FPR \alpha)$, where α is the desired false alarm rate
 - □(Trust me for now, but if you're curious as to why, come ask after the lecture)

Maximizing the probability of detection

It turns out we don't even have to do any calculus!

•
$$TPR + \lambda(FPR - \alpha)$$

$$= \left(\int_{x \in R} p_1(x) dx\right) + \lambda \left(\int_{x \in R} p_2(x) dx - \alpha\right)$$

$$= \int_{x \in R} (p_1(x) + \lambda p_2(x)) dx - \lambda \alpha$$

- No restrictions exist on the region
- To maximize this quantity set R to everywhere the integrand is positive!

•
$$p_1(x) + \lambda p_2(x) > 0 \implies p_1(x)/p_2(x) > -\lambda$$

• (Then set λ to achieve the desired FPR)

Q: Why am I talking about this here?

- A1: just to provide a different perspective
- A2: Because the same mathematical principles are at work as with LDA and QDA
- What's the optimal detector for two Gaussians?

$$\frac{p_{1}(x)}{p_{2}(x)} > c \Rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_{1}^{2}}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_{1})^{2}}{(2\sigma_{1}^{2})}}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_{2}^{2}}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_{2})^{2}}{(2\sigma_{2}^{2})}}} > c \Rightarrow \frac{\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{1}}e^{\frac{(x-\mu_{2})^{2}}{(2\sigma_{2}^{2})}} > c$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln \sigma_{2} - \ln \sigma_{1} + \frac{(x-\mu_{2})^{2}}{(2\sigma_{2}^{2})} - \frac{(x-\mu_{1})^{2}}{(2\sigma_{1}^{2})} > \ln c$$

Q: Why am I talking about this here?

What happens if the variances are the same?

$$\ln \sigma_2 - \ln \sigma_1 + \frac{(x - \mu_2)^2}{(2\sigma_2^2)} - \frac{(x - \mu_1)^2}{(2\sigma_1^2)} > \ln c$$

$$\Rightarrow 2(\mu_1 - \mu_2)x + (\mu_2^2 - \mu_1^2 - 2\sigma^2 \ln c) > 0$$

- A line optimally discriminates between signal and noise!
- And if they're different?

$$\ln \sigma_2 - \ln \sigma_1 + \frac{(x - \mu_2)^2}{(2\sigma_2^2)} - \frac{(x - \mu_1)^2}{(2\sigma_1^2)} > \ln c \Longrightarrow$$

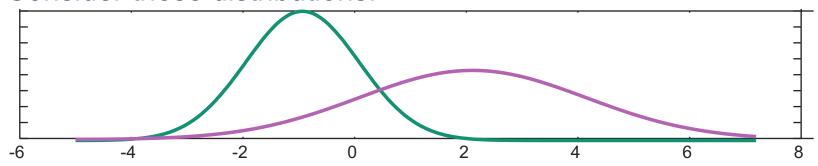
$$(\sigma_1^2 - \sigma_2^2) x^2 + 2(\sigma_2^2 \mu_1 - \sigma_1^2 \mu_1) x$$

$$+ \left(\sigma_1^2 \mu_2^2 - \sigma_2^2 \mu_1^2 + 2\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2 \ln \frac{\sigma_2}{c\sigma_1}\right) > 0$$

- Use a quadratic!
- This generalizes to higher dimensions

This can be a little counterintuitive

- If the variance is different for signal and noise, a threshold is not the best you can do
- Consider these distributions:



- The variance of the signal is greater than the variance of the noise
 - So there are actually values that are so small they should be classified as signal!
 - □ If the signal variance were smaller, there would be values so *large* they should be classified as noise
 - (These are often so far in the tails that they're extremely unlikely)

Lab: LDA and QDA

- To do today's lab in R: nothing new
- To do today's lab in python: nothing new
- Instructions and code:

[course website]/labs/lab5-r.html

[course website]/labs/lab5-py.html

- You'll notice that the labs are beginning to get a bit more open-ended – this may cause some discomfort!
 - Goal: to help you become more fluent in using these methods
 - Ask questions early and often: of me, of each other, of whatever resource helps you learn!
- Full version can be found beginning on p. 161 of ISLR

Coming up

- Wednesday

 last day of classification: comparing methods
- Solutions for A1 have been posted to the course website and Moodle
- A2 due on Wednesday Oct. 4th by 11:59pm