03. Classification for Qualitative Outcomes

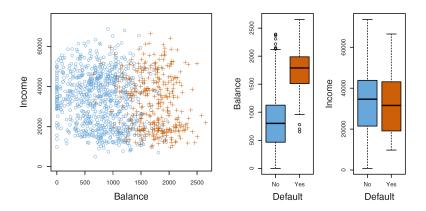
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Classification

- Here the response variable Y is qualitative or categorical.
 - eye color: {brown, blue, green}email: {spam, ham(not-spam)}
 - digit calss: {0, 1, ..., 9}
- Given a feature vector X and a qualitative response Y taking values in the set \mathcal{C} , the classification task is to build a function C(X) that takes as input the feature vector X and predicts its value for Y, i.e., $C(X) \in \mathcal{C}$.
- Often we are more interested in estimating the probabilities that X belongs to each category in \mathcal{C} .
 - For example, it is more valuable to have an estimate of the probability that an insurance claim is fraudulent, than a classification fraudulent or not.

Example: Credit Card Default Data



- Left: The annual incomes and monthly credit card balances of a number of individuals. Default (orange) and Not-default (blue)
- Right: Boxplots of either balance or income as a function of default status

```
library(ISLR)
data(Default)
summary(Default)
attach(Default)
plot(income ~ balance, xlab="Balance", ylab="Income",
     pch=c(1,3)[unclass(default)],
     col=c("lightblue", "red") [unclass(default)])
set.seed(1234)
ss <- sample(which(default=="No"), sum(default=="Yes"))</pre>
ss <- c(ss, which(default=="Yes"))
us <- unclass(default[ss])</pre>
plot(income[ss] ~ balance[ss], xlab="Balance", pch=c(1,3)[us],
     col=c("lightblue", "red") [us], ylab="Income")
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
boxplot(balance~default, col=c("lightblue", "red"), boxwex=0.5,
        xlab="Default", ylab="Balance")
boxplot(income~default, col=c("lightblue", "red"), boxwex=0.5,
        xlab="Default", ylab="Income")
```

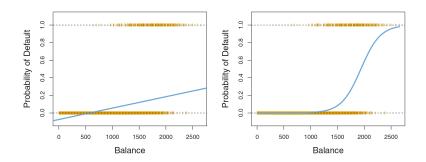
Linear Regression

Suppose for the Default classification task that we code

$$Y = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if No} \\ 1, & \text{if Yes} \end{cases}$$

- Can we simply perform a linear regression of Y on X and classify as Yes if $\hat{Y} > 0.5$?
 - In this case of a binary outcome, linear regression does a good job as a classifier, and is equivalent to linear discriminant analysis which we discuss later.
 - Since in the population E(Y|X=x) = Pr(Y=1|X=x), we might think that regression is perfect for this task.
 - However, linear regression might produce probabilities less than zero or bigger than one. Logistic regression is more appropriate.

Linear versus Logistic Regression



- The orange marks indicate the response *Y*, either 0 or 1.
- Linear regression does not estimate Pr(Y=1|X) well in the left while logistic regression seems well suited to the task in the right.

```
ndef <- rep(0, length(default))</pre>
ndef[default=="Yes"] <- 1</pre>
g1 <- glm(ndef ~ balance)</pre>
g2 <- glm(default ~ balance, family="binomial")</pre>
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(balance, ndef, pch="|", col="orange", xlab="Balance",
     ylab="Probability of Default",ylim=c(-0.1,1.1))
abline(h=c(0,1), lty=2)
lines(balance, g1$fit, col="lightblue", lwd=2)
plot(balance, as.numeric(default)-1, pch="|", col="orange",
     xlab="Balance", ylab="Probability of Default",
     ylim=c(-0.1,1.1))
abline(h=c(0,1), lty=2)
u <- order(balance)
lines(balance[u], g2$fit[u], col="lightblue", lwd=3)
```

Logistic Regression

Let's write p(X) = Pr(Y = 1|X) for short and consider using balance to predict default. Logistic regression uses the form

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

- It is easy to see that no matter what values β_0 , β_1 or X take, p(X) will have values between 0 and 1.
- A bit of rearrangement gives

$$\log\left(\frac{p(X)}{1-p(X)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X.$$

- This monotone transformation is called the \log odds or \log transformation of p(X).
- Logistic regression ensures that our estimate for p(X) lies between 0 and 1.

Maximum Likelihood

We use maximum likelihood to estimate the parameters.

$$l(\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i:y_i=1} p(x_i) \prod_{i:y_i=0} (1 - p(x_i))$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{e^{\beta_0 + x_i^{\mathrm{T}} \beta_1}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + x_i^{\mathrm{T}} \beta_1}} \right)^{y_i} \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + x_i^{\mathrm{T}} \beta_1}} \right)^{1-y_i}$$

- This likelihood gives the probability of the observed zeros and ones in the data. We pick β_0 and β_1 to maximize the likelihood of the observed data.
- Most statistical packages can fit linear logistic regression models by maximum likelihood. In R we use the glm function.

```
g2 <- glm(default ~ balance, family="binomial")
summary(g2)$coef</pre>
## Fitted values
```

g2\$fit

```
## inverse logistic function
ilogit <- function(x, coef) {
    exp(cbind(1, x) %*% coef) / (1 + exp(cbind(1, x) %*% coef))
}
cbind(g2$fit, ilogit(balance, g2$coef))[1:100,]
ilogit(1000, g2$coef)</pre>
```

```
g3 <- glm(default ~ student, family="binomial")
summary(g3)$coef
```

```
## Student "Yes"
ilogit(1, g3$coef)
## Student "No"
ilogit(0, g3$coef)
```

Logistic Regression with Several Variables

■ When we have *p* predictors,

$$\log\left(\frac{p(X)}{1-p(X)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p,$$

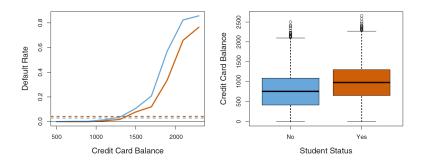
where

$$p(X) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p}}$$

```
g4 <- glm(default~ balance + income + student, family="binomial") round(summary(g4)$coef, 4)
```

Why is coefficient for student negative, while it was positive before?

Confounding



- Students tend to have higher balances than non-students, so their marginal default rate is higher than for non-students.
- But for each level of balance, students default less than non-students.
- Multiple logistic regression can tease this out.

```
yst <- g4$fit[student=="Yes"]</pre>
nst <- g4$fit[student=="No"]</pre>
plot(balance, g2$fit, col="white", xlab="Credit Card Balance",
     ylab="Default Rate")
abline(h=0)
abline(h=mean(yst), lty=2, col="orange")
abline(h=mean(nst), lty=2, col="lightblue")
u1 <- order(balance[student=="Yes"])</pre>
u2 <- order(balance[student=="No"])</pre>
lines(balance[student=="Yes"][u1], yst[u1], col="orange", lwd=2)
lines(balance[student=="No"][u2], nst[u2], col="lightblue", lwd=2)
boxplot(balance ~ student, col=c("lightblue","orange"),
```

```
set.seed(1111)
n <- nrow(Default)
train <- sample(1:n, n*0.7)
test <- setdiff(1:n, train)</pre>
```

```
miss <- NULL
for (k in 1:4) {
    g <- get(paste("g", k, sep=""))
    pred <- predict(g, Default, type="response")[test]
    yhat <- rep(0, length(test))
    yhat[pred > 0.5] <- 1
    miss[k] <- mean(yhat!=as.numeric(default[test])-1)
}
miss</pre>
```

Logistic Regression with More Than Two Classes

- So far we have discussed logistic regression with two classes, but it is easily generalized to more than two classes.
- When $Y \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$,

$$Pr(Y = k|X) = \frac{e^{\beta_{0k} + \beta_{1k}X_1 + \dots + \beta_{pk}X_p}}{\sum_{l=1}^{K} e^{\beta_{0l} + \beta_{1l}X_1 + \dots + \beta_{pl}X_p}}$$

- There is a linear function for each class. Note that some cancellation is possible, and only K-1 linear functions are needed as in K-class logistic regression.
- Multiclass logistic regression is also referred to as multinomial regression.

```
library(remotes)
install_github("cran/rattle.data")
```

```
library(rattle.data)
library(nnet)
data(wine)
str(wine)
```

```
str(wine)
summary(wine)
plot(wine[, -1], col=as.numeric(wine$Type) + 1)
plot(wine[, 2:7], col=as.numeric(wine$Type) + 1)
plot(wine[, 8:14], col=as.numeric(wine$Type) + 1)
```

```
fit <- multinom(Type ~ ., data=wine, trace=FALSE)
summary(fit)</pre>
```

```
z <- coef(summary(fit))/summary(fit)$standard.errors
pnorm(abs(z), lower.tail=FALSE)*2</pre>
```

```
set.seed(1)
u <- sort(sample(1:nrow(wine), 10))
fitted(fit)[u,]
predict(fit, wine, type="prob")[u,]</pre>
```

```
prob0 <- predict(fit, wine, type="prob")</pre>
pred0 <- apply(prob0, 1, which.max)</pre>
table(pred0, wine$Type)
pred0a <- predict(fit, wine, type="class")</pre>
table(pred0a, wine$Type)
set.seed(1111)
n <- nrow(wine)
train <- sample(1:n, round(n*0.7))</pre>
test <- setdiff(1:n, train)</pre>
fit1 <- multinom(Type ~ Alcohol + Color, data=wine,
```

```
pred1 <- predict(fit1, wine, type="class")
tab1 <- table(pred1[test], wine$Type[test])
1-sum(diag(tab1))/sum(tab1)</pre>
```

subset=train)

summary(fit1)

```
fit2 <- multinom(Type ~ ., data=wine, subset=train)
summary(fit2)

pred2 <- predict(fit2, wine, type="class")</pre>
```

```
pred2 <- predict(fit2, wine, type="class")
tab2 <- table(pred2[test], wine$Type[test])
1-sum(diag(tab2))/sum(tab2)</pre>
```

```
set.seed(12345)
miss <- NULL.
for (k in 1:100) {
    train <- sample(1:n, round(n*0.7))</pre>
    test <- setdiff(1:n, train)</pre>
    g <- multinom(Type ~ ., data=wine, subset=train, trace=FALSE)</pre>
    pred <- predict(g, wine, type="class")</pre>
    tab <- table(pred[test], wine$Type[test])</pre>
    miss[k] <- 1-sum(diag(tab))/sum(tab)</pre>
summary(miss)
dev.off()
hist(miss, main="Classification Error Rate", col="orange")
```

Bayes Theorem in Classification

• Here the approach is to model the distribution of X in each of the classes separately, and then use Bayes theorem to flip things around and obtain Pr(Y|X).

$$Pr(Y = k|X = x) = \frac{Pr(X = x|Y = k) \cdot Pr(Y = k)}{Pr(X = x)}$$
$$= \frac{Pr(X = x|Y = k) \cdot Pr(Y = k)}{\sum_{k} Pr(X = x|Y = k) \cdot Pr(Y = k)}$$

- When we use normal (Gaussian) distributions for each class, this leads to linear or quadratic discriminant analysis.
- However, this approach is quite general, and other distributions can be used as well. We will focus on normal distributions.

Discriminant Analysis

 One writes Bayes theorem slightly differently for discriminant analysis:

$$Pr(Y = k | X = x) = \frac{\pi_k f_k(x)}{\sum_{l=1}^{K} \pi_l f_l(x)}$$

• $f_k(x) = Pr(X = x | Y = k)$ is the density for X in class k. We use normal densities for these, separately in each class.

$$f_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_k} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}} \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, \dots, K$$

• $\pi_k = Pr(Y = k)$ is the marginal or prior probability for class k. It can be easily estimated from the sample proportion of class k among n observations.

Why Discriminant Analysis?

- When the classes are well-separated, the parameter estimates for the logistic regression model are surprisingly unstable.
 Linear discriminant analysis does not suffer from this problem.
- If n is small and the distribution of the predictors X is approximately normal in each of the classes, the linear discriminant model is again more stable than the logistic regression model.
- Linear discriminant analysis is popular when we have more than two response classes, because it also provides low-dimensional views of the data.

Linear Discriminant Analysis when p=1

The Gaussian density has the form

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

where μ_k is the mean, and σ_k^2 the variance (in class k).

- We assume that the $\sigma = \sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \ldots = \sigma_K$ are the same.
- Plugging this into Bayes formula, we get a rather complex expression for $p_k(x) = Pr(Y = k|X = x)$:

$$p_k(x) = \frac{\pi_k \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu_k}{\sigma}\right)^2}}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu_l}{\sigma}\right)^2}}$$

Fortunately, there are simplifications and cancellations.

Discriminant Functions

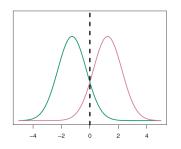
■ To classify at the value X=x, we need to see which of the $p_k(x)$ is largest. Taking logs, and discarding terms that do not depend on k, we see that this is equivalent to assigning x to the class with the largest discriminant score:

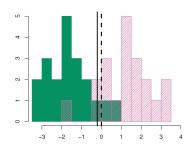
$$\delta_k(x) = x \cdot \frac{\mu_k}{\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu_k^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log(\pi_k)$$

- Note that $\delta_k(x)$ is a linear function of x.
- If there are K=2 classes and $\pi_1=\pi_2=0.5$, then one can see that the decision boundary is at

$$x = \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2}$$

Decision Boundary





- Example with $\mu_1 = -1.5$, $\mu_2 = 1.5$, $\pi_1 = \pi_2 = 0.5$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$.
- Typically we don't know these parameters; we just have the training data. In that case we simply estimate the parameters and plug them into the rule.

Decision Boundary

Estimating The Parameters

Parameters are estimated using the following formula

$$\hat{\pi}_{k} = \frac{n_{k}}{n}, \qquad \hat{\mu}_{k} = \frac{1}{n_{k}} \sum_{i:y_{i}=k} x_{i}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^{2} = \frac{1}{n-K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i:y_{i}=k} (x_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{k})^{2}$$

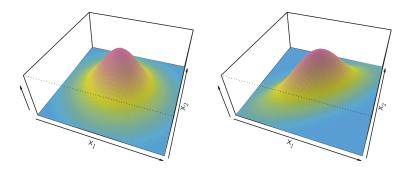
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{n_{k} - 1}{n - K} \hat{\sigma}_{k}^{2}$$

where

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

is the the usual formula for the estimated variance in the $k{\rm th}$ class.

Linear Discriminant Analysis when p > 1



■ Density: a multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)}$$

• Observations in the kth class are drawn from a multivariate Gaussian distribution $N(\mu_k, \Sigma)$, where μ_k is a class-specific mean vector, and Σ is a covariance matrix that is common to all K classes.

Linear Discriminant Analysis when p > 1

Discriminant function

$$\delta_k(x) = x^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2} \mu_k^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k + \log \pi_k$$

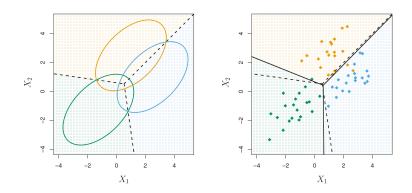
Despite its complex form, the discriminant function

$$\delta_k(x) = c_{k0} + c_{k1}x_1 + c_{k2}x_2 + \ldots + c_{kp}x_p$$

is a linear function.

- LDA decision rule depends on x only through a linear combination of its elements.
- We need to estimate the unknown paramters μ_1, \ldots, μ_K , π_1, \ldots, π_K and Σ .

Example: p = 2 and K = 3



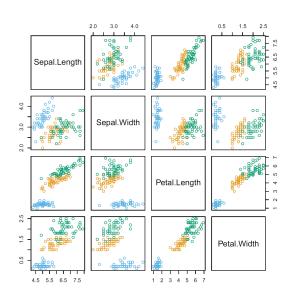
- In this example, $\pi_1 = \pi_2 = \pi_3 = 1/3$.
- The dashed lines are known as the Bayes decision boundaries. If they were known, they would yield the fewest misclassification errors, among all possible classifiers.

Fisher's Iris Data

4 variables3 species50 samples/class

- Setosa
- Versicolor
- Virginica

LDA classifies all but 3 of the 150 training samples correctly.



LDA: Fisher's Iris Data

```
## Open the iris dataset
data(iris)
?iris
str(iris)
summary(iris)
plot(iris[, -5], col=as.numeric(iris$Species) + 1)
```

```
## Apply LDA for iris data
library(MASS)
g <- lda(Species ~., data=iris)
plot(g)
plot(g, dimen=1)</pre>
```

```
## Compute misclassification error for training sets
pred <- predict(g)
table(pred$class, iris$Species)
mean(pred$class!=iris$Species)</pre>
```

```
## Randomly separate training sets and test sets
set.seed(1234)
tran <- sample(nrow(iris), size=floor(nrow(iris)*2/3))
g <- lda(Species ~., data=iris, subset=tran)</pre>
```

```
## Compute misclassification error for test sets
pred <- predict(g, iris)$class[-tran]
test <- iris$Species[-tran]
table(pred, test)
mean(pred!=test)</pre>
```

```
## Posterior probability
post <- predict(g, iris)$posterior[-tran,]
post[1:10,]
apply(post, 1, which.max)
as.numeric(pred)</pre>
```

LDA vs. Multinomial Regression

```
library(nnet)
```

```
set.seed(1234)
K <- 100
RES \leftarrow array(0, c(K, 2))
for (i in 1:K) {
    tran.num <- sample(nrow(iris), size=floor(nrow(iris)*2/3))</pre>
    tran <- as.logical(rep(0, nrow(iris)))</pre>
    tran[tran.num] <- TRUE
    g1 <- lda(Species ~., data=iris, subset=tran)</pre>
    g2 <- multinom(Species ~., data=iris, subset=tran, trace=FALSE
    pred1 <- predict(g1, iris[!tran,])$class</pre>
    pred2 <- predict(g2, iris[!tran,])</pre>
    RES[i, 1] <- mean(pred1!=iris$Species[!tran])</pre>
    RES[i, 2] <- mean(pred2!=iris$Species[!tran])</pre>
```

```
apply(RES, 2, mean)
```

```
library(rattle.data)
data(wine)
```

```
set.seed(1111)
RES2 <- array(0, c(K, 2))
for (i in 1:K) {
    tran.num <- sample(nrow(wine), size=floor(nrow(wine)*2/3))</pre>
    tran <- as.logical(rep(0, nrow(wine)))</pre>
    tran[tran.num] <- TRUE</pre>
    g1 <- lda(Type ~., data=wine, subset=tran)</pre>
    g2 <- multinom(Type ~., data=wine, subset=tran, trace=FALSE)</pre>
    pred1 <- predict(g1, wine[!tran,])$class</pre>
    pred2 <- predict(g2, wine[!tran,])</pre>
    RES2[i, 1] <- mean(pred1!=wine$Type[!tran])</pre>
    RES2[i, 2] <- mean(pred2!=wine$Type[!tran])</pre>
```

```
apply(RES2, 2, mean)
```

Posterior Probabilities

• Once we have estimates $\hat{\delta}_k(x)$, we can turn these into estimates for class probabilities:

$$\hat{P}r(Y = k|X = x) = \frac{e^{\hat{\delta}_k(x)}}{\sum_{l=1}^K e^{\hat{\delta}_k(x)}}.$$

- So classifying to the largest $\hat{\delta}_k(x)$ amounts to classifying to the class for which $\hat{Pr}(Y=k|X=x)$ is largest.
- When K=2, we classify to class 2 if

$$\hat{Pr}(Y=2|X=x) \ge 0.5,$$

else to class 1.

LDA on Default Data

```
library(ISLR)
data(Default)
attach(Default)
```

```
library(MASS)
g <- lda(default~., data=Default)
pred <- predict(g, default)
table(pred$class, default)
mean(pred$class!=default)</pre>
```

		True Default Status		
		No	Yes	Total
Predicted	No	9645	254	9899
Default Status	Yes	22	79	101
		9667	333	10000

LDA on Default Data

- The misclassification error is only 2.76%! However, this is training error, and we may be overfitting. Not a big concern here since n = 10000 and p = 4!
- If we classified to the prior always to class "No". In this case, we would make 333/10000 errors, which is only 3.33%.
- The trivial null classifier achieve an error rate that null is only a bit higher than the LDA training set error rate.
- Two types of errors
 - Of the true No's, we make 22/9667 = 0.22% errors
 - Of the true Yes's, we make 254/333 = 76.2% errors

Two Types of Classification Errors

- False positive rate: The fraction of negative examples that are classified as positive. (0.22% in the example)
- False negative rate: The fraction of positive examples that are classified as negative. (76.2% in the example)
- We produced this table by classifying to class 'Yes' if

$$\hat{Pr}(\mathsf{Default} = \mathsf{"Yes"} | \mathsf{Balance}, \mathsf{Student}) \geq 0.5$$

• We can change the two error rates by changing the threshold from 0.5 to some other value in [0, 1]:

$$\hat{Pr}(\mathsf{Default} = \mathsf{"Yes"} | \mathsf{Balance}, \mathsf{Student}) \ge \alpha,$$

where $\alpha \in [0,1]$ is a threshold.

Changes in Errors along with Different Thresholds

```
thre <- seq(0,1,0.01)
res <- matrix(NA, length(thre), 3)
## Compute overall error, false positives, false negatives
for (i in 1:length(thre)) {
    decision <- rep("No", length(default))</pre>
    decision[pred$posterior[,2] >= thre[i]] <- "Yes"</pre>
    res[i, 1] <- mean(decision != default)</pre>
    res[i, 2] <- mean(decision[default=="No"]=="Yes")</pre>
    res[i, 3] <- mean(decision[default=="Yes"]=="No")</pre>
```

Confusion Matrix

		Predicted class		
		– or Null	+ or Non-null	Total
True	– or Null	True Neg. (TN)	False Pos. (FP)	N
class	+ or Non-null	False Neg. (FN)	True Pos. (TP)	Р
	Total	N^*	P*	

Name	Definition	Synonyms
False Pos. rate	FP/N	Type I error, 1—Specificity
True Pos. rate	TP/P	1—Type II error, power, sensitivity, recall
Pos. Pred. value	TP/P^*	Precision, 1—false discovery proportion
Neg. Pred. value	TN/N*	

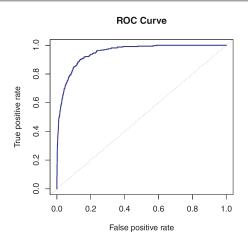
Variable selection in high-dimensional data

- H_0 : Null \approx Negative $(-) \approx$ Not significant
- H_1 : Non-null \approx Positive (+) \approx Significant

Assessment of the Performance of Classifiers

- Class-specific performance is important in medicine and biology, where the terms sensitivity (true positive rate) and specificity (true negative rate) characterize the performance of a classifier or screening test.
- The ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristics) curve is a popular graphic for simultaneously displaying the two types of errors for all possible thresholds.
- The overall performance of a classifier, summarized over all possible thresholds, is given by the area under the (ROC) curve (AUC).
 - An ideal ROC curve will hug the top left corner, so the larger the AUC the better the classifier.
 - We expect a classifier that performs no better than chance to have an AUC of 0.5.

ROC curve



■ The ROC plot displays both true positive rate and false positive rate simultaneously.

```
thre <- seq(0,1,0.001)
Sen <- Spe <- NULL
RES <- matrix(NA, length(thre), 4)
colnames(RES) <- c("TP", "TN", "FP", "FN")</pre>
```

```
for (i in 1:length(thre)) {
    decision <- rep("No", length(default))
    decision[pred$posterior[,2] >= thre[i]] <- "Yes"
    Sen[i] <- mean(decision[default=="Yes"] == "Yes")
    Spe[i] <- mean(decision[default=="No"] == "No")
    RES[i,1] <- sum(decision[default=="Yes"] == "Yes")
    RES[i,2] <- sum(decision[default=="No"] == "No")
    RES[i,3] <- sum(decision=="Yes") - RES[i,1]
    RES[i,4] <- sum(default=="Yes") - RES[i,1]
}</pre>
```

```
TPR <- RES[,1] / (RES[,1] + RES[,4])
TNR <- RES[,2] / (RES[,2] + RES[,3])
```

```
PPV <- RES[,1] / (RES[,1] + RES[,3])
NPV <- RES[,2] / (RES[,2] + RES[,4])
```

```
library(ROCR)
```

```
slotNames(perf)
k <- 1:100
list(perf@x.name, perf@x.values[[1]][k])
list(perf@y.name, perf@y.values[[1]][k])
list(perf@alpha.name, perf@alpha.values[[1]][k])</pre>
```

```
## Compute AUC
performance(preds, "auc")@y.values
```

Quadratic Discriminant Analysis

- QDA assumes that each class has its own covariance matrix, i.e., $X \sim N(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$.
- Under this assumption, the Bayes classifier assigns an observation X=x to the class for which

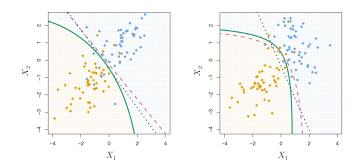
$$\delta_k(x) = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma_k^{-1}(x - \mu_k) + \log \pi_k$$

= $-\frac{1}{2}x^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma_k^{-1} x + x^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma_k^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2}\mu_k^{\mathrm{T}} \Sigma_k^{-1} \mu_k + \log \pi_k$

is largest.

- QDA estimates a separate covariance matrix for each class, for a total of Kp(p+1)/2 parameters.
- LDA is a much less flexible classifier than QDA, and so has substantially lower variance.

LDA vs. QDA



- The Bayes (purple dashed), LDA (black dotted), and QDA (green solid) decision boundaries for a two-class problem.
- In the left: $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$ and in the right: $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$

LDA vs. QDA: Default Data

library(MASS)

```
set.seed(1234)
n <- nrow(Default)
train <- sample(1:n, n*0.7)
test <- setdiff(1:n, train)</pre>
```

```
## Classification error rate of LDA
g1 <- lda(default~., data=Default, subset=train)
pred1 <- predict(g1, Default)
table(pred1$class[test], Default$default[test])
mean(pred1$class[test]!=Default$default[test])</pre>
```

```
## Classification error rate of QDA
g2 <- qda(default~., data=Default, subset=train)
pred2 <- predict(g2, Default)
table(pred2$class[test], Default$default[test])
mean(pred2$class[test]!=Default$default[test])</pre>
```

```
set.seed(123)
N <- 100
CER <- AUC <- matrix(NA, N, 2)
```

```
for (i in 1:N) {
   train <- sample(1:n, n*0.7)
   test <- setdiff(1:n, train)
   y.test <- Default$default[test]</pre>
```

```
g1 <- lda(default~., data=Default, subset=train)</pre>
    g2 <- qda(default~., data=Default, subset=train)</pre>
    pred1 <- predict(g1, Default)</pre>
    pred2 <- predict(g2, Default)</pre>
    CER[i,1] <- mean(pred1$class[test]!=y.test)</pre>
    CER[i,2] <- mean(pred2$class[test]!=y.test)</pre>
    label <- factor(default[test], levels=c("Yes","No"),</pre>
                      labels=c("TRUE","FALSE"))
    preds1 <- prediction(pred1$posterior[test,2], label)</pre>
    preds2 <- prediction(pred2$posterior[test,2], label)</pre>
    AUC[i,1] <- as.numeric(performance(preds1, "auc")@y.values)
    AUC[i,2] <- as.numeric(performance(preds2, "auc")@y.values)
apply(CER, 2, mean)
apply(AUC, 2, mean)
```

Naive Bayes Method

- Assumes that features are independent in each class.
- Useful when p is large, and so multivariate methods like QDA and even LDA break down.
- Gaussian naive Bayes assumes each Σ_k is diagonal:

$$\delta_k(x) \propto \log \left[\pi_k \prod_{j=1}^p f_{kj}(x_j) \right] = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^p \frac{(x_j - \mu_{kj})^2}{\sigma_{kj}^2} + \log \pi_k$$

- It can use for mixed features (qualitative and quantitative). If X_j is qualitative, replace $f_{kj}(x_j)$ with probability mass function over discrete categories.
- Despite strong assumptions, naive Bayes often produces good classification results.

```
data(iris)
library(e1071)
g1 <- naiveBayes(Species ~ ., data = iris)</pre>
g1 <- naiveBayes(iris[,-5], iris[,5])</pre>
pred <- predict(g1, iris[,-5])</pre>
table(pred, iris[,5])
mean(pred!=iris$Species)
## Randomly separate training sets and test sets
set.seed(1234)
tran <- sample(nrow(iris), size=floor(nrow(iris)*2/3))</pre>
## Compute misclassification error for test sets
g2 <- naiveBayes(Species ~ ., data=iris, subset=tran)</pre>
pred2 <- predict(g2, iris)[-tran]</pre>
test <- iris$Species[-tran]</pre>
table(pred2, test)
mean(pred2!=test)
```

```
set.seed(1234)
n <- nrow(Default)
train \leftarrow sample(1:n, n*0.7)
test <- setdiff(1:n, train)</pre>
g3 <- naiveBayes(default ~ ., data=Default, subset=train)
pred3 <- predict(g3, Default)[test]</pre>
table(pred3, Default$default[test])
mean(pred3!=Default$default[test])
## AUC of Naive Bayes
library(ROCR)
label <- factor(default[test], levels=c("Yes","No").</pre>
                 labels=c("TRUE", "FALSE"))
```

pred4 <- predict(g3, Default, type="raw")
preds <- prediction(pred4[test, 2], label)</pre>

performance(preds, "auc")@y.values

data(Default)

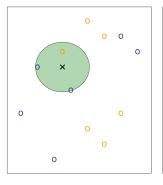
K-Nearest Neighbors

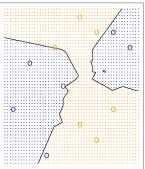
- In theory, to predict qualitative responses using the Bayes classifier is the best.
- For real data, the conditional distribution of *Y* given *X* is unknown, so computing the Bayes classifier is impossible.
- ullet KNN (K-nearest neighbors) classifier estimates the conditional distribution of Y given X

$$Pr(Y = j | X = x_0) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_0} I(y_i = j)$$

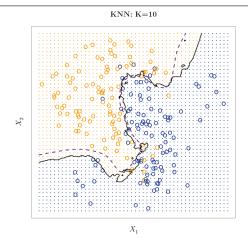
where x_0 a test observation and \mathcal{N}_0 is a set of K points in the training data that are closest to x_0 .

• KNN applies Bayes rule and classifies the test observation x_0 to the class with the largest probability.

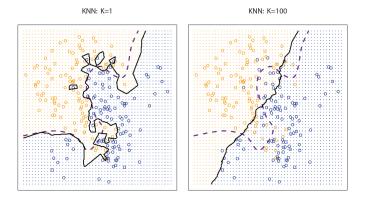




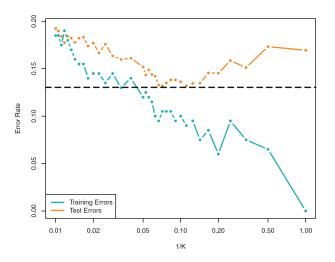
- The KNN approach, using K = 3.
- In the left: a test observation at which a predicted class label is desired is shown as a black cross.
- In the right: the KNN decision boundary for this example is shown in black.



- KNN decision boundary (black line) and The Bayes decision boundary (purple dashed line)
- The choice of K has a drastic effect on the KNN classifier obtained.



- When K=1, the decision boundary is overly flexible (low bias but high variance).
- When K=100, the decision boundary is close to linear so less flexible (low variance but high bias).



■ The KNN training error rate vs. test error rate

```
library(class)
data(iris)
set.seed(1234)
tran <- sample(nrow(iris), size=floor(nrow(iris)*2/3))</pre>
tran.x <- iris[tran, -5]</pre>
test.x <- iris[-tran, -5]
tran.y <- iris$Species[tran]</pre>
test.y <- iris$Species[-tran]</pre>
knn.pred <- knn(tran.x, test.x, tran.y, k=3)</pre>
table(knn.pred, test.y)
mean(test.y!=knn.pred)
knn.pred <- knn(tran.x, test.x, tran.y, k=13)</pre>
table(knn.pred, test.y)
```

mean(test.y!=knn.pred)

```
set.seed(1)
K <- 50
k < -1:50
mis <- matrix(0, K, length(k))
for (i in 1:K) {
    tran <- sample(nrow(iris), size=floor(nrow(iris)*2/3))</pre>
    tran.x <- iris[tran, -5]</pre>
    test.x <- iris[-tran, -5]
    tran.v <- iris$Species[tran]</pre>
    test.y <- iris$Species[-tran]</pre>
    for (j in 1:length(k)) {
        knn.pred <- knn(tran.x, test.x, tran.y, k=k[j])</pre>
        mis[i, j] <- mean(test.y!=knn.pred)</pre>
```

```
library(mnormt)
set.seed(1010)
```

```
sigma <- matrix(c(1, 0.5, 0.5, 1), 2, 2)
x.tran1 <- rmnorm(100, c(0, 0.8), sigma)
x.tran2 <- rmnorm(100, c(0.8, 0), sigma)
x.test1 <- rmnorm(3430, c(0, 0.8), sigma)
x.test2 <- rmnorm(3430, c(0.8, 0), sigma)</pre>
```

```
x.tran <- rbind(x.tran1, x.tran2)
x.test <- rbind(x.test1, x.test2)
y.tran <- factor(rep(0:1, each=100))</pre>
```

```
mn <- min(x.tran)
mx <- max(x.tran)
px1 <- seq(mn, mx, length.out=70)
px2 <- seq(mn, mx, length.out=98)
gd <- expand.grid(x=px1, y=px2)</pre>
```

```
g1 <- knn(x.tran, gd, y.tran, k = 1, prob=TRUE)
g2 <- knn(x.tran, gd, y.tran, k = 10, prob=TRUE)
g3 <- knn(x.tran, gd, y.tran, k = 100, prob=TRUE)
par(mfrow=c(1,3))
prob1 <- attr(g1, "prob")</pre>
prob1 <- ifelse(g1=="1", prob1, 1-prob1)</pre>
pp1 <- matrix(prob1, length(px1), length(px2))
contour(px1, px2, pp1, levels=0.5, labels="", xlab="", ylab="",
        main="KNN: K=1", axes=FALSE)
points(x.tran, col=ifelse(y.tran==1, "cornflowerblue", "coral"))
co1 <- ifelse(pp1>0.5, "cornflowerblue", "coral")
points(gd, pch=".", cex=1.2, col=co1)
box()
```

Lasso with Binary Outcome

A penalized likelihood with a lasso penalty is

$$Q_{\lambda}(\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = -l(\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1$$

- $l(\cdot)$ is a log-likelihood function and $\beta = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p\}$ is the p-dimensional vector of regression coefficients.
- $l(\cdot)$ is determined by a type of a response variable y_i , $i = 1, \ldots, n$.
- If $y_i \in \{0,1\}$ is binary, a logistic likelihood $l(\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta})$ is

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_i \log p_i(\beta_0, \beta) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p_i(\beta_0, \beta))],$$

where

$$p_i(\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + x_i^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + x_i^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta}}}.$$

Caravan Insurance Data

```
library(ISLR)
data(Caravan)
dim(Caravan)
?Caravan
summary(Caravan)
attach(Caravan)
```

```
# only 6% of people purchased caravan insurance.
mean(Purchase=="Yes")
```

```
set.seed(12)
sam.y <- which(Purchase=="Yes")
sam.n <- which(Purchase=="No")
s1 <- sample(sam.y, size=floor(length(sam.y)/2))
s2 <- sample(sam.n, size=floor(length(sam.n)/2))
tran <- c(s1, s2)
test <- setdiff(1:length(Purchase), tran)</pre>
```

```
pred <- predict(g0, Caravan, type="response")[test]</pre>
vhat <- rep("Yes", length(test))</pre>
yhat[pred <= 0.5] <- "No"</pre>
mean(vhat!=Purchase[test])
table(vhat, Purchase[test])
library(glmnet)
y <- Purchase
x0 <- as.matrix(Caravan[,-86])</pre>
fun <- function(t) sqrt(var(t)*(length(t)-1)/length(t))</pre>
sdx \leftarrow matrix(apply(x0, 2, fun), dim(x0)[2], dim(x0)[1])
x \leftarrow x0/t(sdx)
apply(x0[,1:5], 2, sd)
apply(x[,1:5], 2, sd)
```

g0 <- glm(Purchase~., Caravan, family="binomial", subset=tran)</pre>

```
g1 <- glmnet(x[tran,], y[tran], alpha=1, family="binomial")</pre>
dev.off()
plot(g1, "lambda")
set. seed (123)
gcv <- cv.glmnet(x[tran,], y[tran], family="binomial", alpha=1,</pre>
                  nfolds=10)
plot(gcv)
gcv$lambda.min
gcv$lambda.1se
coef1 <- coef(gcv, s="lambda.min")</pre>
coef2 <- coef(gcv, s="lambda.1se")</pre>
cbind(coef1, coef2)
```

```
pred1 <- predict(gcv, x[test,], s=gcv$lambda.min, type="response")
pred2 <- predict(gcv, x[test,], s=gcv$lambda.1se, type="response")</pre>
```

```
yhat1 <- yhat2 <- rep("Yes", length(test))
yhat1[pred1 <= 0.5] <- "No"
yhat2[pred2 <= 0.5] <- "No"
c(mean(yhat1!=Purchase[test]), mean(yhat2!=Purchase[test]))
table(yhat1, Purchase[test])
table(yhat2, Purchase[test])</pre>
```

```
Car1 <- Caravan[ ,which(coef1[-1]!=0)]
Car2 <- Caravan[ ,which(coef2[-1]!=0)]
gs1 <- glm(Purchase~., data=Car1, family="binomial", subset=tran)
gs2 <- glm(Purchase~., data=Car2, family="binomial", subset=tran)</pre>
```

```
pred3 <- predict(gs1, Caravan, type="response")[test]
pred4 <- predict(gs2, Caravan, type="response")[test]
yhat3 <- yhat4 <- rep("Yes", length(test))
yhat3[pred3 <= 0.5] <- "No"
yhat4[pred4 <= 0.5] <- "No"
c(mean(yhat3!=Purchase[test]), mean(yhat4!=Purchase[test]))
table(yhat4, Purchase[test])</pre>
```

Comparison of Classification Methods

- We compare classification error rate of 7 classification methods on 6 different scenarios.
- 7 classification methods
 - LDA and QDA
 - KNN(K=1), KNN(K=5), and KNN(K=20)
 - Logistic regression
 - Bayes Naive method
- 6 scenarios
 - 1 Gaussian model with a diagonal covariance
 - 2 Gaussian model with the same covariance
 - 3 t-distribution model
 - 4 Gaussian model with a different covariance
 - Multiplicative model
 - 6 Complicated non-parametric model

```
library(mnormt); library(MASS)
library(class); library(e1071)
```

```
MissClassRate <- function(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran) {</pre>
    nt <- nrow(x.tran)
    ldafit <- predict(lda(x.tran, y.tran), x.test)$class</pre>
    qdafit <- predict(qda(x.tran, y.tran), x.test)$class</pre>
    knn1 <- knn(x.tran, x.test, y.tran, k=1)
    knn5 <- knn(x.tran, x.test, y.tran, k=5)</pre>
    knn20 <- knn(x.tran, x.test, y.tran, k=20)
    data <- data.frame(x=rbind(x.tran,x.test),y=c(y.tran,y.test))</pre>
    g <- glm(y~., family="binomial", subset=1:nt, data)
    logit <- predict(g, data, type="response")[-c(1:nt)]</pre>
    logit[logit >= 0.5] <- 1
    logit[logit < 0.5] <- 0
    g2 <- naiveBayes(y~., subset=1:nt, data)</pre>
    NB <- predict(g2, data)[-c(1:nt)]</pre>
  c(mean(ldafit!=y.test), qda=mean(qdafit!=y.test),
    mean(knn1!=y.test), mean(knn5!=y.test), mean(knn20!=y.test),
    mean(logit!=y.test), mean(NB!=y.test))
```

```
set.seed(12345)
K <- 100
RES1 <- matrix(NA, K, 7)
for (i in 1:K) {
    x.A \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(0, 2), diag(2))
    x.B \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(1, 2), diag(2))
    x.tran \leftarrow rbind(x.A[1:50,], x.B[1:50,])
    x.test \leftarrow rbind(x.A[-c(1:50), ], x.B[-c(1:50), ])
    y.tran <- factor(rep(0:1, each=50))</pre>
    y.test <- factor(rep(0:1, each=100))</pre>
    RES1[i,] <- MissClassRate(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran)</pre>
```

```
RES2 <- matrix(NA, K, 7)
for (i in 1:K) {
    x.A \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(0, 2), matrix(c(1,-0.5,-0.5,1),2))
    x.B \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(1, 2), matrix(c(1,-0.5,-0.5,1),2))
    x.tran \leftarrow rbind(x.A[1:50, ], x.B[1:50, ])
    x.test \leftarrow rbind(x.A[-c(1:50), ], x.B[-c(1:50), ])
    y.tran <- factor(rep(0:1, each=50))</pre>
    y.test <- factor(rep(0:1, each=100))</pre>
    RES2[i,] <- MissClassRate(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran)</pre>
```

```
RES3 <- matrix(NA, K, 7)
for (i in 1:K) {
    x.A \leftarrow cbind(rt(150, df=5, ncp=0), rt(150, df=5, ncp=0))
    x.B \leftarrow cbind(rt(150, df=5, ncp=0.5), rt(150, df=5, ncp=0.5))
    x.tran \leftarrow rbind(x.A[1:50, ], x.B[1:50, ])
    x.test \leftarrow rbind(x.A[-c(1:50), ], x.B[-c(1:50), ])
    y.tran <- factor(rep(0:1, each=50))</pre>
    y.test <- factor(rep(0:1, each=100))</pre>
    RES3[i,] <- MissClassRate(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran)</pre>
```

```
RES4 <- matrix(NA, K, 7)
for (i in 1:K) {
    x.A \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(0, 2), matrix(c(1,0.5,0.5,1),2))
    x.B \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(1, 2), matrix(c(1,-0.5,-0.5,1),2))
    x.tran \leftarrow rbind(x.A[1:50, ], x.B[1:50, ])
    x.test \leftarrow rbind(x.A[-c(1:50), ], x.B[-c(1:50), ])
    y.tran <- factor(rep(0:1, each=50))</pre>
    y.test <- factor(rep(0:1, each=100))</pre>
    RES4[i,] <- MissClassRate(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran)</pre>
```

```
RES5 <- matrix(NA, K, 7)
for (i in 1:K) {
    x.A \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(0, 2), diag(2))
    x.B \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(1, 2), diag(2))
    x.tran \leftarrow rbind(x.A[1:50,], x.B[1:50,])
    x.test \leftarrow rbind(x.A[-c(1:50), ], x.B[-c(1:50), ])
    tr.int <- x.tran[,1]*x.tran[,2]</pre>
    te.int <- x.test[,1]*x.test[,2]
    xb.tr <- cbind(x.tran,tr.int)%*%c(-0.5,0.5,1)
    xb.te <- cbind(x.test,te.int)%*%c(-0.5,0.5,1)
    v.tran \leftarrow rep(0, 100); v.test \leftarrow rep(0, 200)
    y.tran[xb.tr > 0] <- 1; y.tran <- factor(y.tran)</pre>
    v.test[xb.te > 0] <- 1; v.test <- factor(v.test)</pre>
    RES5[i,] <- MissClassRate(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran)</pre>
```

```
RES6 <- matrix(NA, K, 7)
for (i in 1:K) {
    x.A \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(0, 2), diag(2))
    x.B \leftarrow rmnorm(150, rep(1, 2), diag(2))
    x.tran \leftarrow rbind(x.A[1:50,], x.B[1:50,])
    x.test \leftarrow rbind(x.A[-c(1:50), ], x.B[-c(1:50), ])
    tr.int \leftarrow exp(x.tran[,1])/log(abs(x.tran[,2]))
    te.int \leftarrow \exp(x.\text{test}[,1])/\log(\text{abs}(x.\text{test}[,2]))
    xb.tr \leftarrow cbind(x.tran,tr.int)%*%c(-0.5,0.5,1)
    xb.te <- cbind(x.test,te.int)%*%c(-0.5,0.5,1)
    v.tran \leftarrow rep(0, 100); v.test \leftarrow rep(0, 200)
    y.tran[xb.tr > 0] <- 1; y.tran <- factor(y.tran)</pre>
    v.test[xb.te > 0] <- 1; v.test <- factor(v.test)</pre>
    RES6[i,] <- MissClassRate(x.tran, x.test, y.test, y.tran)</pre>
```

```
par(mfrow=c(2,3))
boxplot(RES1, boxwex=0.5, col=2:8, vlim=c(0,0.6),
        names=c("LDA", "QDA", "KNN-1", "KNN-5",
                "KNN-20", "Logit", "NB"),
        main="Scenario 1", ylab="Test Error Rates")
boxplot(RES2, boxwex=0.5, col=2:8, ylim=c(0,0.6),
        names=c("LDA", "QDA", "KNN-1", "KNN-5",
                "KNN-20", "Logit", "NB"),
        main="Scenario 2", ylab="Test Error Rates")
boxplot(RES3, boxwex=0.5, col=2:8, vlim=c(0,0.6),
        names=c("LDA", "QDA", "KNN-1", "KNN-5",
                "KNN-20", "Logit", "NB"),
        main="Scenario 3", ylab="Test Error Rates")
```

- Smarket data set consists of percentage returns for the S&P 500 stock index over 1∼250 days, from the beginning of 2001 until the end of 2005.
- For each date, we have recorded the percentage returns for each of the five previous trading days.
 - Lag1, Lag2, Lag3, Lag4 and Lag5
- We have also recorded
 - volume: the number of shares traded on the previous day (in billions).
 - Today: the percentage return on the date in question.
 - direction: whether the market was Up or Down on this date.
- Our goal is to predict direction (a qualitative response) using the other features.

```
library(ISLR)
names(Smarket)
str(Smarket)
dim(Smarket)
summary(Smarket)
pairs(Smarket)
cor(Smarket[, -9])
attach(Smarket)
par(mfrow=c(2,4))
for (i in 1:8) {
    plot(Smarket[,i], pch=20, main=colnames(Smarket)[i],
         col=as.numeric(Smarket$Direction) + 1)
table(Year)
train <- (Year < 2005)
y.test <- Direction[!train]</pre>
Sdata <- Smarket[,-c(1,8)]</pre>
```

```
## LDA
library(MASS)
g2 <- lda(Direction~., data=Sdata, subset=train)
pred2 <- predict(g2, Sdata[!train,])$class
mean(pred2!=y.test)</pre>
```

```
## QDA
g3 <- qda(Direction~., data=Sdata, subset=train)
pred3 <- predict(g3, Sdata[!train,])$class
mean(pred3!=y.test)</pre>
```

```
## Naive Bayes
library(e1071)
g4 <- naiveBayes(Direction~., data=Sdata, subset=train)
pred4 <- predict(g4, Sdata[!train,])
mean(pred4!=y.test)</pre>
```

```
## KNN
library(class)
x.train <- Sdata[train, -7]
x.test <- Sdata[!train, -7]
y.train <- Sdata$Direction[train]</pre>
```

```
CER <- NULL
for (k in 1:200) {
    g5 <- knn(x.train, x.test, y.train, k=k)
        CER[k] <- mean(g5!=y.test)
}
summary(CER)
plot(1:200, CER, type="b", xlab="k", ylab="Error", col=2, pch=20)</pre>
```