

# **Day 9: Classification Algorithms**

# Why Classification?

To date, we have focused on *regression* algorithms. While useful, there is a critical feature of regression tools worth noting:

- Do not understand different "groups" of data when presented as a dependent variable, just one sliding scale in  $\mathbb{R}$

# When Classification Instead of Regression?

When we have **discrete** dependent variables

- Binary variables
- Categorical Data
- When there is no clear dependent variable, or when we don't exactly know what we are looking for

# Regression vs Classification

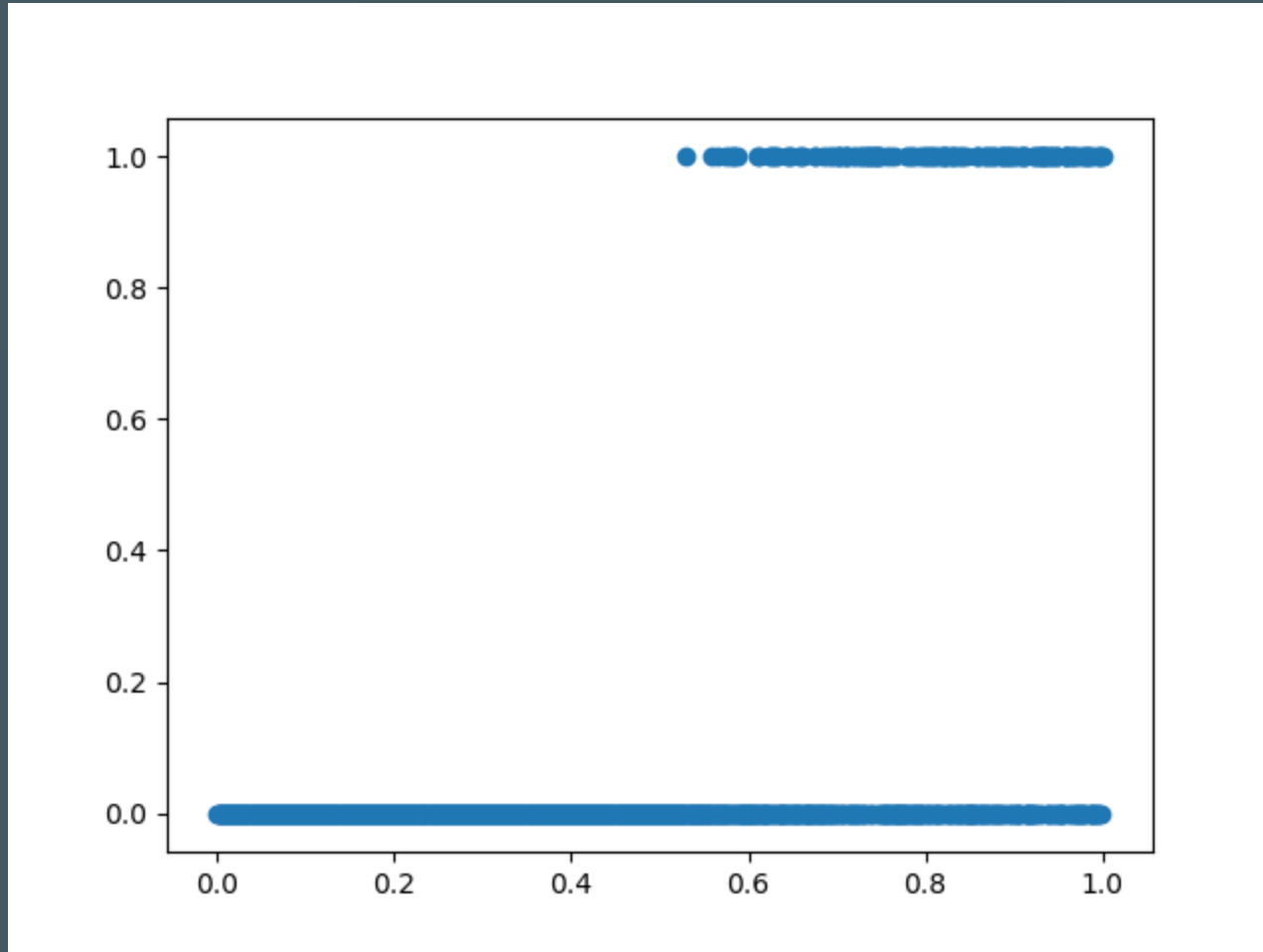
Regression asks:

- What is the predicted price of commodity  $x$  in the next period?

Classification asks

- Does the price of commodity  $x$  rise or fall in the next period?

# Classification - Logistic Regression



# What about Linear Probability Models?

Good:

- Just use OLS to estimate likelihood of outcome
- Has the advantage of simplicity

Bad:

- Assumes continuity of outcomes (which is not true in a classification problem)

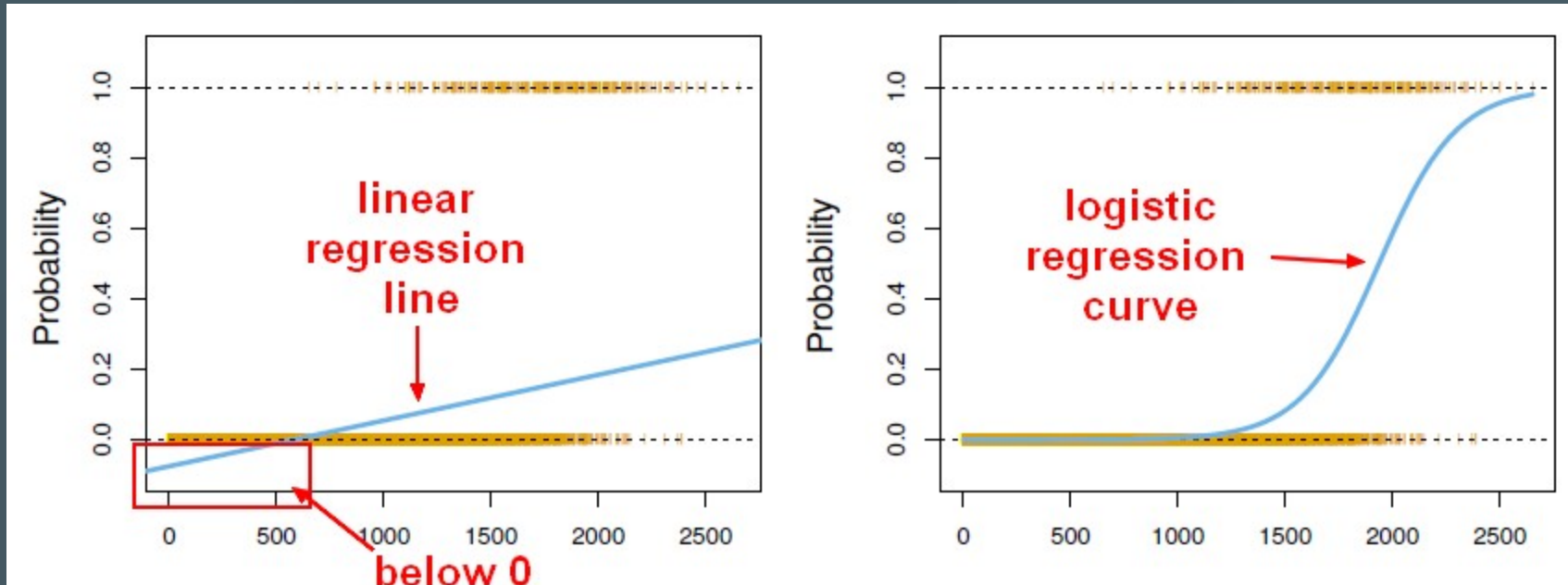
# What about Linear Probability Models?

Ugly:

- Is not restricted to the  $[0, 1]$  interval!
- Can have meaningless probabilities (greater than 1, and less than 0)

# Logistic Regression

What if we transform our regression model in a way that requires it to remain within the  $[0, 1]$  interval?





# Logistic Regression

- We no longer have a linear function (linear functions are not bounded to our unit interval)
- We no longer assume that treatments have constant effect
- **But** our output can now be interpreted as

$$p(y = 1)$$

# Logistic Transformation

The transformation that is required in order to coerce our output to remain between 0 and 1 is

$$p(y = 1|x) = \frac{\exp(x'\beta)}{1 + \exp(x'\beta)} = \Lambda(x'\beta)$$

and is called the **logistic transformation**.

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

OLS Likelihood function:

$$\ln(\theta|y, x) = -\frac{n}{2}\ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - x\beta)'(y - x\beta)$$

Logistic Likelihood function:

$$\ln(\beta|y, x) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \ln(\Lambda(x'_i\beta)) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \Lambda(x'_i\beta)))$$

# Marginal Effects in a Logit Model

In order to obtain a point estimate of the marginal effect of a given input on  $y$ , we must use the function

$$\frac{\partial E(y|x)}{\partial x} = \Lambda(x' \beta) \cdot (1 - \Lambda(x' \beta)) \cdot \beta$$

Thus, our marginal effects will depend on the values of our inputs.

**Note:** the Lambda ( $\Lambda$ ) function is defined on the previous slide

# Marginal Effects in Regressions

**OLS:**

$$\frac{\partial E(y|x)}{\partial x} = \beta$$

**Logit:**

$$\frac{\partial E(y|x)}{\partial x} = \Lambda(x'\beta) \cdot (1 - \Lambda(x'\beta)) \cdot \beta$$

# Implementing Logistic Regression

```
import numpy as np
import patsy as pt
from bokeh.plotting import figure, show
from statsmodels.discrete.discrete_model import Logit

data = pd.read_csv('passFailTrain.csv')

y, x = pt.dmatrices('G3 ~ G1 + age + goout', data = data)

model = Logit(y, x)

reg = model.fit()

print(reg.summary())
```

# Implementing Logistic Regression

```
import numpy as np
import patsy as pt
from bokeh.plotting import figure, show
from statsmodels.discrete.discrete_model import Logit
```

We need to import our libraries, and particularly, import the Logit function from the `statsmodels` library.

# Implementing Logistic Regression

```
data = pd.read_csv('passFailTrain.csv')  
  
y, x = pt.dmatrices('G3 ~ G1 + age + goout', data = data)
```

Recall that we generate our  $y$  and  $x$  matrices in order to use them in our model. Output goes on the left of the "~", inputs on the right, separated by "+"

**Note:** this is also the formula that R uses when performing regressions.



# Implementing Logistic Regression

```
model = Logit(y, x)

reg = model.fit()

print(reg.summary())
```

First, we create our Logit model, then we store the fitted model as `reg`. Afterward, we can print out our summary table.

# Implementing Logistic Regression

It should look something like this:

Logit Regression Results						
=====						
Dep. Variable:	G3	No. Observations:	296			
Model:	Logit	Df Residuals:	292			
Method:	MLE	Df Model:	3			
Date:	Thu, 23 Mar 2017	Pseudo R-squ.:	0.3567			
Time:	16:21:12	Log-Likelihood:	-119.01			
converged:	True	LL-Null:	-185.01			
		LLR p-value:	2.010e-28			
=====						
	coef	std err	z	P> z	[95.0% Conf. Int.]	
-----						
Intercept	6.9131	2.282	3.030	0.002	2.441	11.386
G1	3.1671	0.344	9.218	0.000	2.494	3.840
age	-0.4124	0.136	-3.043	0.002	-0.678	-0.147
goout	-0.3163	0.147	-2.150	0.032	-0.605	-0.028
=====						

# Predictions from Logit Model

Now, we may want to use our logit model to make predictions about new observations.

All we need are new values:

New Observation: [Term 1 Grade: Pass, Age: 16,  
Frequency of Going Out: 4]

# Predictions from Logit Model

```
reg.predict((1, 1, 16, 4))  
# OR  
xpred = pt.dmatrix('~ G1 + age + goout', data = testdata)
```

Note that we have to include values for all necessary variables, as well as a \$1\$ for the intercept term.

# Marginal Effects from Logit Model

```
reg = model.fit() # We need to start with a fitted model

mEff = reg.get_margeff(
    at='overall', # Where the ME is estimated
    method='eydx', # Calculates d(ln y)/dx, or % effect
    dummy=True, # Calculates effects on dummies as 0 to 1
    count=True) # Calculates effects on count as value + 1

mEff.summary()
```

Using the `get_mareff` method, we can easily estimate the marginal effects of our regressors on the dependent variable. (No ugly home-made functions needed!)

# Notes on $R^2$

While  $R^2$  values are not always helpful in a regression setting, they are very valuable when forecasting using regressions.

- Tell us how much of the variance our model is capable of explaining
- If our  $R^2$  is 0.3567 (like it was for the regression earlier), then the model explains 35.67% of the variation in pass/fail outcomes among students in our sample.

# Notes on $R^2$

Even **more** useful in a forecasting setting is the out-of-sample  $R^2$

- Tell us how much of the variance our model is capable of explaining with respect to **new** observations
- Basically, it tells us if we are doing a good job creating accurate forecasts

# Generating a Tjur $R^2$

Since we cannot use the standard  $R^2$  measure for Logit models, we need to calculate a pseudo- $R^2$ , and `statsmodels` does not calculate out-of-sample  $R^2$  automatically.



# Generating a Tjur $R^2$

Tjur (2009) suggested an  $R^2$  measure for Logit models calculated as the difference between the mean value of predictions for "failures" and "successes" in a binary model.

$$Tjur\ R^2 = \bar{\hat{y}}_{successes} - \bar{\hat{y}}_{failures}$$

$$Tjur\ R^2 = \text{Mean prediction for successes} \\ - \text{Mean prediction for failure}$$

# Generating a Tjur $R^2$

Tjur (2009) suggested an  $R^2$  measure for Logit models calculated as the difference between the mean value of predictions for "failures" and "successes" in a binary model.

$$Tjur\ R^2 = \bar{\hat{y}}_{successes} - \bar{\hat{y}}_{failures}$$

The measure is bounded by 1 and 0, and gives us a measure of how well we separate our two outcomes

# Lab for Today

1. Fit a Logit model predicting whether or not a marketing campaign initiated by a bank results in successful sales of a financial product (CD's in this case)
2. Create a function that will take a fitted logit model, and y and x matrices, and return the Tjur  $R^2$  value for that sample
3. Do your best to find a model with the **highest** Tjur  $R^2$  value given the data that was provided to you (always feel free to compare code and models with others!)