

# Linear classification methods

## Lecture 2a

## Overview

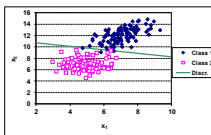
- Elements of decision theory
- Logistic regression
- Discriminant Analysis models

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## Classification

- Given data  $D = ((X_i, Y_i), i = 1 \dots N)$ 
  - $Y_i = Y(X_i) = C_j \in C$
  - Class set  $C = (C_1, \dots, C_K)$
- **Classification problem:**
- Decide  $\hat{Y}(x)$  that maps **any**  $x$  into some class  $C_K$ 
  - Decision boundary



## Classifiers

- **Deterministic:** decide a rule that directly maps  $X$  into  $\hat{Y}$
- **Probabilistic:** define a model for  $P(Y = C_i | X), i = 1 \dots K$

### Disadvantages of deterministic classifiers:

- Sometimes simple mapping is not enough (risk of cancer)
- Difficult to embed loss-> rerun of optimizer is often needed
- Combining several classifiers into one is more problematic
  - Algorithm A classifies as spam, Algorithm B classifies as not spam → ???
  - $P(\text{Spam} | A) = 0.99, P(\text{Spam} | B) = 0.45 \rightarrow$  better decision can be made

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## Bayesian decision theory

- Machine learning models estimate  $p(y|x)$  or  $p(y|x, \hat{w})$
- Transform probability into action  $\rightarrow$  which value to predict?  $\rightarrow$  decision step
  - $p(Y = \text{Spam}|x) = 0.83 \rightarrow$  do we move the mail to Junk?
  - What is more dangerous: deleting 1 non-spam mail or letting 1 spam mail enter Inbox?
- $\rightarrow$  **Loss function** or **Loss matrix**

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## Loss matrix

- Costs of classifying  $Y = C_k$  to  $C_j$ :
  - Rows: true, columns: predicted
$$L = \|L_{ij}\|, i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, n$$

- Example 1:** 0/1-loss

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Example 2:** Spam

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 100 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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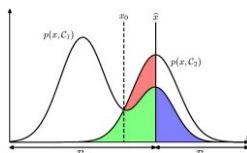
## Loss and decision

- Expected loss minimization
  - $R_j$ : classify to  $C_j$

$$EL = \sum_k \sum_j \int_{R_j} L_{kj} p(x, C_k) dx$$

- Choose such  $R_j$  that  $EL$  is minimized**
- Two classes

$$EL = \int_{R_1} L_{21} p(x, C_2) dx + \int_{R_2} L_{12} p(x, C_1) dx$$



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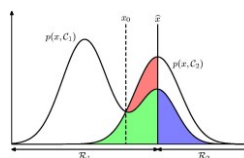
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## Loss and decision

- Loss minimization

$$\min_j EL(y, \hat{f}) = \min_j \int L(y, \hat{f}) p(y, x|w) dx dy$$



When loss is  
 $\begin{cases} 1, \text{wrongly classified} \\ 0, \text{correctly classified} \end{cases}$

Classify  $Y$  as  
 $\hat{Y} = \arg \max_c p(Y = c|X)$

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## Loss and decision

- How to minimize *EL with two classes*?
- Rule:
  - $L_{12}p(x, C_1) > L_{21}p(x, C_2) \rightarrow \text{predict } y \text{ as } C_1$
- 0/1 Loss: **classify to the class which is more probable!**

$$\frac{p(C_1|x)}{p(C_2|x)} > \frac{L_{21}}{L_{12}} \rightarrow \text{predict } y \text{ as } C_1$$

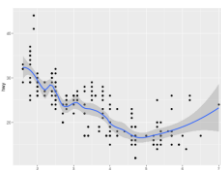
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## Loss and decision

- Continuous targets: squared loss
  - Given a model  $p(x, y)$ , minimize
  - $EL = \int L(y, \hat{Y}(x)) p(x, y) dx dy$
- Using **square loss**, the optimal is posterior mean
 
$$\hat{Y}(x) = \int y p(y|x) dy$$



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## ROC curves

- Binary classification
- The choice of the threshold  $\hat{x} = \frac{L_{21}}{L_{12}}$  affects prediction  $\rightarrow$  what if we don't know the loss? Which classifier is better?
- Confusion matrix**

	PREDICTED			
	1	0	Total	
T R U E	1	TP	FN	$N_+$
	0	FP	TN	$N_-$

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## ROC curves

- True Positive Rates (TPR) = sensitivity = recall**
  - Probability of detection of positives: TPR=1 positives are correctly detected
- False Positive Rates (FPR)**
  - Probability of false alarm: system alarms (1) when nothing happens (true=0)

$$TPR = TP/N_+$$

$$FPR = FP/N_-$$

- Specificity**
- Precision**

$$\text{Specificity} = 1 - FPR$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

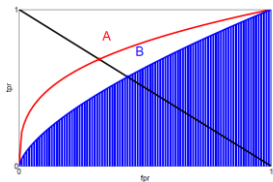
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## ROC curves

- **ROC**=Receiver operating characteristics
- Use various thresholds, measure TPR and FPR
- Same FPR, higher TPR  $\rightarrow$  better classifier
- Best classifier = greatest Area Under Curve (**AUC**)



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## Types of supervised models

- **Generative models**: model  $p(X|Y, w)$  and  $p(Y|w)$

– **Example**: k-NN classification

$$p(X = x|Y = C_i, K) = \frac{K_i}{N_i V}, p(C_i|K) = \frac{N_i}{N}$$

From Bayes Theorem,

$$p(Y = C_i|x, K) = \frac{K_i}{K}$$

- **Discriminative models**: model  $p(Y|X, w)$ ,  $X$  constant

– **Example**: logistic regression

$$p(Y = 1|w, x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w^T x}}$$

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## Generative vs Discriminative

- Generative can be used to generate new data
- Generative normally easier to fit (check Logistic vs K-NN)
- Generative: each class estimated separately  $\rightarrow$  do not need to retrain when a new class added
- Discriminative models: can replace  $X$  with  $\phi(X)$  (preprocessing), method will still work
  - Not generative, distribution will change
- Generative: often make too strong assumptions about  $p(X|Y, w) \rightarrow$  bad performance

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## Logistic regression

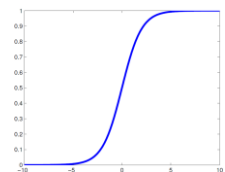
- Discriminative model
- Model for binary output
  - $C = \{C_1 = 1, C_2 = 0\}$
  - $p(Y = C_1|X) = \text{sigm}(w^T x)$

$$\text{sigm}(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$$

- Alternatively  
 $Y \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\text{sigm}(a)), a = w^T x$ 

$$\text{sigm}(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$$

What is  $P(Y = C_2|X)$ ?



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## Logistic regression

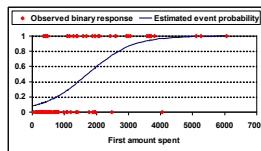
- Logistic model- yet another form

$$\ln \frac{p(Y=1|X=x)}{p(Y=0|X=x)} = \ln \frac{p(Y=1|X=x)}{1-p(Y=1|X=x)} = \text{logit}(p(Y=1|X=x)) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

The log of the odds  
is linear in  $\mathbf{x}$

- Here  $\text{logit}(t) = \ln\left(\frac{t}{1-t}\right)$
- Note  $p(Y|X)$  is connected to  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$  via logit link

Example: Probability to buy  
more than once as function of  
First Amount Spent



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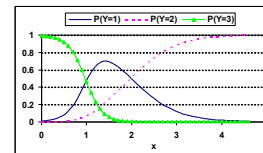
## Logistic regression

- When  $Y$  is categorical,

$$p(Y = C_i | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{e^{\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}}}{\sum_{j=1}^K e^{\mathbf{w}_j^T \mathbf{x}}} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x})$$

- Alternatively

$$Y \sim \text{Multinoulli}(\text{softmax}(\mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{x}), \dots, \text{softmax}(\mathbf{w}_K^T \mathbf{x}))$$



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## Logistic regression

### Fitting logistic regression

- In binary case,

$$\log P(D|\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \log(\text{sigm}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \text{sigm}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i))$$

- Can not be maximized analytically, but unique maximizer exists
- To maximize loglikelihood, optimization used
  - Newton's method traditionally used (Iterative Reweighted Least Squares)
  - Steepest descent, Quasi-newton methods...

### Estimation:

For new  $\mathbf{x}$ , estimate  $p(y) = [p_1, \dots, p_C]$  and classify as  $\arg \max_i p_i$

Decision boundaries of logistic regression are linear

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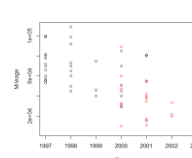
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## Logistic regression

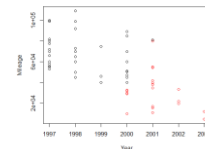
- In R, use `glm()` with family="binomial"
  - Predicted probabilities: `predict(fit, newdata, type="response")`

Example Equipment=(Year, mileage)

Original data



Classified data



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## Quadratic discriminant analysis

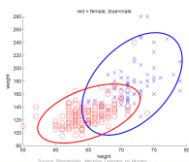
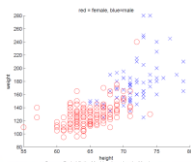
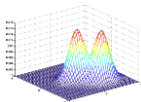
- Generative classifier

- Main assumptions:

- $x$  is now **random** as well as  $y$

$$p(x|y = C_i, \theta) = N(x|\mu_i, \Sigma_i)$$

Unknown parameters  $\theta = \{\mu_i, \Sigma_i\}$

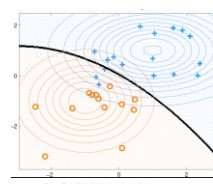


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## Quadratic discriminant analysis

- If parameters are estimated, classify:

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \max_c p(y = c|x, \theta)$$



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## Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)

- Assumption  $\Sigma_i = \Sigma, i = 1, \dots, K$

- Then  $p(y = c_i|x) = \text{softmax}(w_i^T x + w_{0i}) \rightarrow$  exactly the same form as the logistic regression

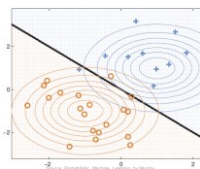
$$-w_{0i} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_i^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_i + \log \pi_i$$

$$-w_i = \Sigma^{-1} \mu_i$$

- Decision boundaries are linear

- **Discriminant function:**

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



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## Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)

- Difference LDA vs logistic regression??

- Coefficients will be estimated differently! (models are different)

- How to estimate coefficients

- find MLE.

$$\hat{\mu}_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{i: y_i = c} \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \hat{\Sigma}_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_{i: y_i = c} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu}_c)(\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu}_c)^T$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{c=1}^K N_c \hat{\Sigma}_c$$

- Sample mean and sample covariance are MLE!

- If class priors are parameters (**proportional priors**),

$$\hat{\pi}_c = \frac{N_c}{N}$$

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## LDA and QDA: code

- Syntax in R, library **MASS**

```
lda(formula, data, ..., subset, na.action)
```

- Prior – class probabilities
- Subset – indices, if training data should be used

```
qda(formula, data, ..., subset, na.action)
```

```
predict(..)
```

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## LDA: output

```
resLDA=lda(Equipment~Mileage+Year, data=mydata)
print(resLDA)
```

```
> print(resLDA)
Call:
lda(Equipment ~ Mileage + Year, data = mydata)

Prior probabilities of groups:
      0      1 
0.6440678 0.3559322 

Group means:
      Mileage      Year 
0 63539.21 1998.447 
1 36857.62 2000.762 

Coefficients of linear discriminants:
              LD1 
Mileage -1.500069e-05 
Year    5.745893e-01
```

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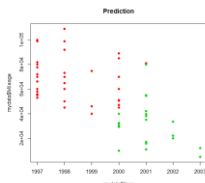
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## LDA: output

- Misclassified items

```
> table(Pred$class, mydata$Equipment)
      0      1 
0 31  6 
1  7 15
```

```
plot(mydata$Year, mydata$Mileage,
     col=as.numeric(Pred$class)+1, pch=21,
     bg=as.numeric(Pred$class)+1,
     main="Prediction")
```



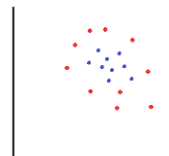
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## LDA versus Logistic regression

- Generative classifiers are easier to fit, discriminative involve numeric optimization
- LDA and Logistic have same model form but are fit differently
- LDA has stronger assumptions than Logistic, some other generative classifiers lead also to logistic expression
- New class in the data?
  - Logistic: fit model again
  - LDA: estimate new parameters from the new data
- Logistic and LDA: complex data fits badly unless interactions are included



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## LDA versus Logistic regression

- LDA (and other generative classifiers) handle missing data easier
- Standardization and generated inputs:
  - Not a problem for Logistic
  - May affect the performance of the LDA in a complex way
- Outliers affect  $\Sigma \rightarrow$  LDA is not robust to gross outliers
- LDA is often a good classification method even if the assumption of normality and common covariance matrix are not satisfied.

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