Classification with linear models

Preparing

- Copy the Default data (about credit card default) into your bootcamp workspace folder
- Install scikit-learn

Classification

- In a regression problem, the outputs are continuous numerical variables
- In a classification problem, the outputs are discrete classes
- How might we use a linear model to do classification?
- One approach is to use **Fisher's linear discriminant analysis (LDA)** and its variants, which are described in section 4.4 of the ISL book, and which I won't go into here
- The other is to do a **logistic regression**, or its generalization as a **sigmoid regression**, so named for reasons we will see below
- While LDA is still popular, and handles some situations that logistic regression is bad at, it also makes a few assumptions about the distribution of the X's that logistic regression enables us to drop; usually people go for logistic regression first
- Logistic regression also has a closer relationship with typical neural networks
- Let's start with a bad idea of how to build a linear classifier: let's just assign each class a number and then fit a linear regression
- Why is this a bad idea? First, let's make reference to the following example from the book, diagnosing a patient on the basis of their symptoms (whatever they may be: they would be the X's):

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if stroke;} \\ 2 & \text{if drug overdose;} \\ 3 & \text{if epileptic seizure.} \end{cases} Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if epileptic seizure;} \\ 2 & \text{if stroke;} \\ 3 & \text{if drug overdose.} \end{cases}$$

Figure 1: image

- With the help of some pictures you can convince yourself that it **doesn't** make sense to assert there is an ordering when there isn't
- For this reason we almost always prefer to break down multiple classes into multiple binary variables in some way, so that we can construct multiple separate (though not necessarily independent) classifiers
- For example, for the example we could construct these variables as follows:

$$Y_1 = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & \mbox{if epileptic seizure} \\ 0 & \mbox{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \quad Y_2 = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & \mbox{if stroke} \\ 0 & \mbox{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

- We could even throw in the third for good measure, even though it isn't strictly speaking necessary This is an improvement, but there is still a reason not to do this To understand this, consider what the regression is going to do: it will want to bring the line down toward zero whenever (i.e., for whatever values of X) there are **fewer** examples of whichever class is coded as $\mathbf{1}$; vice versa when there are proportionally **more** It can be easily shown that the line will try and fit to the **probabilities** of the two classes But probabilities are bounded: they can't be below 0 or above 1; the linear regression doesn't know this It will do okay as long as the probabilities don't get too extreme; but as they approach 1 (conversely, 0, for the other class), it will be less and less accurate Consider the following:
 - This behaviour is pathological: the classifier will always predict the first (0) class, but it seems obvious that there are at least some cases where it should predict the second (1) class
 - The reason is that the high concentration of examples of the first class on the left drags the line very, very far down - but there should be a limit to how far the predictions can go down: zero!
 - The traditional solution to this is simple: rather than building a linear model to predict probabilities directly, use a linear regression model to predict a number that, at a fuzzy level, "indicates how close to zero or to one the probability is"
 - That is, we could think of some function that maps real numbers to numbers between zero and one, and get its **output** to match the probabilities

$$\hat{p} = f(\hat{z})
\hat{z} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

- The fact that a linear regression model (i.e., a line) has no upper or lower bound, indicates therefore that this function will necessarily never actually **reach** zero or one (because what would it do afterward?)
- If the function is symmetrical and monotonic (i.e., always keeps going in the same direction), then it will necessarily look something like an s, or, if you prefer Greek, a sigma, thus be **sigmoid**, because at some point it has to asymptotically approach zero and one on either end
- The choice doesn't matter much for simple regression problems (it does in more complicated models like neural nets), but the usual choice is the

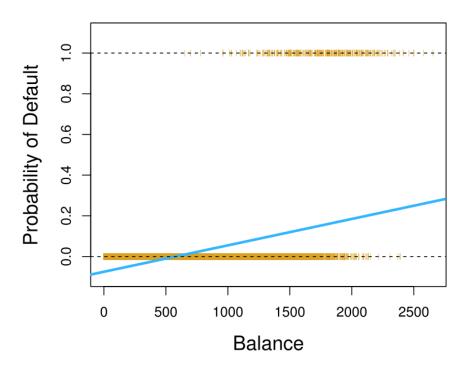


Figure 2: image

inverse logit or logistic function:

$$f(z) = \frac{e^z}{1 + e^z}$$

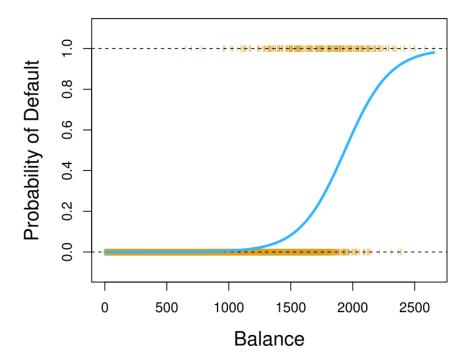


Figure 3: image

• Why this? Well, it is motivated by the notion of **odds**: if something has probability of 0.75, we say that it has **odds** of 3:1 - because that's the ratio of the two probabilities

$$\frac{p}{1-p}$$

• With a bit of algebra, we determine that

$$z = \log\left(\frac{e^z}{1 + e^z}\right)$$

- What this means is, as z increases (decreases), the **log odds** of the category coded as 1 will increase (decreases)
- And what do we get if z = 0? (Think)

- And what do we expect the model to do if this prediction **isn't** true (i.e., how is that situation modelled)? (Think)
- The typical loss function is a little different than the least-squares loss but you can look this up as it's not important for now
- It is perhaps worth it to know that, regardless of the loss function, there is no analytic solution

An example

- Load the Default data in an interactive Python session as **default** and examine the data frame
- Here is a wonky 3D plot:

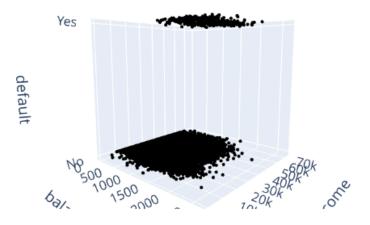


Figure 4: image

- We are going to fit a sigmoid regression using scikit-learn; I haven't told you how it's going to be fitted yet, but you might have guessed that the class variable (default) is going to need be converted into a 0-1 indicator
- You don't actually need to do this explicitly for what we are about to do (scikit-learn will pick a mapping for you), but sometimes you will need to, so for completeness, here is how I would do it if I had to:

default['default_code'] = [{'Yes': 1, 'No': 0}[x] for x in default['default']]

• Here is how we fit the model using scikit-learn and examine the coefficients

import sklearn.linear_model as slm
m = slm.LogisticRegression(penalty=None).fit(default[["balance", "income"]], default["default["default["balance", "income"]]]

```
print(m.coef_)
```

• Let's have a look at what it predicts:

predictions = m.predict_proba(default[["balance", "income"]])
print(predictions)

• Here is another wonky 3D graph:

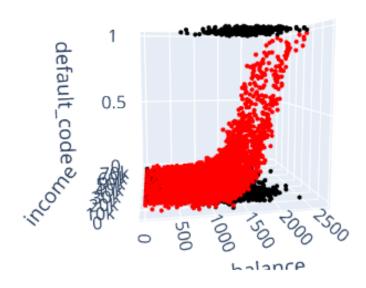


Figure 5: image

Discriminant functions

- We introduced the notion of linear classification **by rounding** we predicted, in logistic regression, a **p** between 0 and 1, and rounded either up or down accordingly to get the predicted class
- We also saw that for logistic regression that this is equivalent to determining whether z is positive or negative (above or below zero)
- We call z, which is a linear function of the inputs, the discriminant function
- What I told you, but didn't show you visually, is that this means that, in the space of the input variables, there is a line or a plane which separates the two classes

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 0 & = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 \\ \Leftrightarrow & -\beta_2 x_2 & = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \Leftrightarrow & x_2 & = & -\frac{\beta_0}{\beta_2} - \frac{\beta_1}{\beta_2} x_1 \end{array}$$

• I wasn't successfully able to get plotly to display or to save plots on the cluster (and I didn't have time to get to the bottom of the issue); this is the sort of thing I would not usually do remotely anyway, so feel free to install plotly locally and do the following, which is what I used to generate the plot below:

```
import plotly.express as px
import plotly.graph_objects as go

b02 = m.intercept_/m.coef_[0,1]
b12 = m.coef_[0,0]/m.coef_[0,1]
fig = px.scatter(default, x='balance', y='income', color="default")
fig.add_trace(go.Scatter(x=default['balance'], y=(-b02 - b12*default['balance']), name="slog fig.update_yaxes(range=[0, 80000])
fig.show()
```

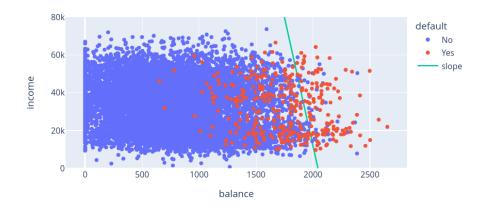


Figure 6: image