Classification (Cont.)

Big Data y Machine Learning para Economía Aplicada

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- 1 Recap
- 2 Other Models for Classification
 - Regularization for Logit
 - KNN
 - Discriminant Analysis
 - Naive Bayes
- 3 Extra: Kappa statistic

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Recap

- ▶ We observe (y_i, X_i) i = 1, ..., n
- ► Estimate Probabilities
 - Logit

$$p_i = \frac{e^{X_i \beta}}{1 + e^{X_i \beta}} \tag{1}$$

- ightharpoonup get β
- Prediction
 Logit, with the $\hat{\beta}$

$$\hat{p}_i = \frac{e^{X_i \beta}}{1 + e^{X_i \hat{\beta}}}$$

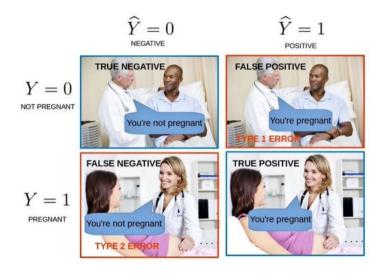
► Classification

$$\hat{Y}_i = 1[\hat{p}_i > c]$$



(2)

Performance



Performance

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 & \hat{y}_i \\
 & 0 & 1 \\
 & 0 & \text{TN} & \text{FP} \\
y_i & 1 & \text{FN} & \text{TP}
\end{array}$$

▶ We have two types of error associated with this that we can use as a measure of performance

$$False \ Positive \ Rate = \frac{False \ Positives}{Negatives}$$

$$True \ Positive \ Rate = \frac{True \ Positives}{Positives}$$

$$(4)$$

- ► Another names they receive:
 - ► False positive rate: Type I error, 1-Specificity
 - ► True positive rate: 1- Type II error, power, sensitivity.

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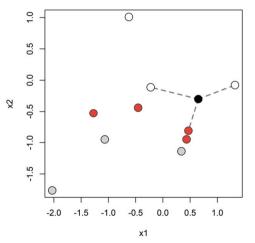
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Regularization for Logit

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► K nearest neighbor (K-NN) algorithm predicts class \hat{y} for x by asking What is the most common class for observations around x?



- ► K nearest neighbor (K-NN) algorithm predicts class \hat{y} for x by asking What is the most common class for observations around x?
- ightharpoonup Algorithm: given an input vector x_f where you would like to predict the class label
 - ▶ Find the K nearest neighbors in the dataset of labeled observations, $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, the most common distance is the Euclidean distance:

$$d(x_i, x_f) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_{ij} - x_{fj})^2}$$
 (5)

► This yields a set of the *K* nearest observations with labels:

$$[x_{i1}, y_{i1}], \dots, [x_{iK}, y_{iK}]$$
 (6)

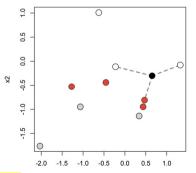
ightharpoonup The predicted class of x_f is the most common class in this set

$$\hat{y}_f = mode\{y_{i1}, \dots, y_{iK}\} \tag{7}$$

- ▶ In this case
 - ► 1-Knn manages 70% accuracy
 - ► 5-Knn manages 70% accuracy
 - ► H.W. try for different seed, (Taddy's is 80% and 70%)
- ▶ There are some major problems with practical implications
 - ► Knn predictions are unstable as a function of *K*

$$K = 1 \implies \hat{p}(white) = 0$$

 $K = 2 \implies \hat{p}(white) = 1/2$
 $K = 3 \implies \hat{p}(white) = 2/3$
 $K = 4 \implies \hat{p}(white) = 1/2$



- ▶ There are some major problems with practical implications
 - ► Knn predictions are unstable as a function of *K*
 - ► This instability of prediction makes it hard to choose the optimal K and cross validation doesn't work well for KNN
 - ▶ Since prediction for each new *x* requires a computationally intensive counting, KNN is too expensive to be useful in most big data settings.
 - ► KNN is a good idea, but too crude to be useful in practice

Example: Default



 $photo\ from\ \texttt{https://www.dailydot.com/parsec/batman-1966-labels-tumblr-twitter-vine/allowers.}$

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Reverend Bayes to the rescue: Bayes Theorem

$$Pr(Y = 1|X) = \frac{f(X|Y = 1)\pi(Y = 1)}{m(X)}$$
(8)

with m(X) is the marginal distribution of X, i.e.

$$m(X) = \int_{\mathcal{Y}} f(X|Y=y)\pi(Y=y)dy \tag{9}$$

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Reverend Bayes to the rescue: Bayes Theorem

Recall that there are two states of nature $y \rightarrow i \in \{0, 1\}$

$$m(X) = f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1) + f(X|Y=0)\pi(Y=0)$$
(10)

$$m(X) = f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1) + f(X|Y=0)(1-\pi(Y=1))$$
(11)

- ► This is basically an empirical Bayes approach
- We need to estimate f(X|Y=1), f(X|Y=0) and $\pi(Y=1)$
 - Let's start by estimating $\pi(Y = 1)$. We've done this before

$$\pi(Y=1) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} 1[Y_i = 1]}{N}$$
 (12)

- Next f(X|Y=j) with j=0,1.
 - if we assume one predictor and $X|Y \sim N(\mu_j, \sigma_j)$, the problem boils down to estimating μ_j, σ_j
 - ▶ LDA makes it simpler, assumes $\sigma_j = \sigma \ \forall j$
 - ▶ then partition the sample in two Y = 0 and Y = 1, estimate the moments and get $\hat{f}(X|Y = j)$
- ▶ Plug everything into the Bayes Rule and you're done

Extensions

- ▶ If we have *k* predictors?
- ▶ then $X|Y \sim NM(\mu, \Sigma)$

$$f(X|Y=j) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_j)'\Sigma_j(x-\mu_j)$$
 (13)

- \blacktriangleright μ_j is the vector of the sample means in each partition j=0,1
- \triangleright Σ_j is the matrix of variance and covariances of each partition j=0,1

- ► Why is it call linear?
- ► Note

$$p > \frac{1}{2} \iff ln(\frac{p}{(1-p)}) \tag{14}$$

► Logit with one predictor

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 X \tag{15}$$

- ► Classification: in the probability of space
- ▶ Discrimination: in the space of X
- \triangleright $\beta_1 + \beta_2 X$ is the discrimination function for logit (it is lineal)

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- ► LDA?
- ▶ One predictor with $\sigma_0 = \sigma_1$ (equal variance)

$$Pr(Y=1|X) = \frac{f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1)}{f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1) + f(X|Y=0)(1-\pi(Y=1))}$$
(16)

Then under the equal variance assumption

$$\frac{Pr(Y=1|X)}{1 - Pr(Y=1|X)} = \frac{f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1)}{f(X|Y=0)(1 - \pi(Y=1))}$$
(17)

$$= \frac{\pi(Y=1)exp((x-\mu_1)^2)}{(1-\pi(Y=1))exp((x-\mu_0)^2)}$$
(18)



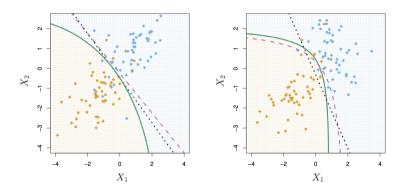
Taking logs

$$log\left(\frac{Pr(Y=1|X)}{1-Pr(Y=1|X)}\right) = log\left(\frac{\pi(Y=1)}{(1-\pi(Y=1))} + (x-\mu_1)^2 - (x-\mu_0)^2\right)$$
(19)
$$= log\left(\frac{\pi(Y=1)}{(1-\pi(Y=1))} + \mu_1^2 - \mu_0^2 - 2(\mu_1 - \mu_0)x\right)$$
(20)
$$= \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 X$$
(21)

- under the assumption of equal variance the discrimination function is lineal
- ▶ Note: logit estimates γ_1 and γ_2

Quadratic Discriminant Analysis

▶ QDA assumes diferent variances for the components



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Naive Bayes

$$Pr(Y=1|X) = \frac{f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1)}{f(X|Y=1)\pi(Y=1) + f(X|Y=0)(1-\pi(Y=1))}$$
(22)

- \blacktriangleright $\pi(Y=1)$
- ightharpoonup f(X|Y=1)

Naive Bayes

► NB assumes independence

$$f(X|Y=1) = f(x_1|Y=1) \times \dot{x}f(x_k|Y=1)$$
(23)

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Kappa statistic

- Also known as Cohen's Kappa
- ▶ I was originally designed to assess the agreement between two raters (Cohen 1960).
- ► Kappa takes into account the accuracy that would be generated simply by chance.

$$Kappa = \frac{O - E}{1 - E} \tag{24}$$

- ► Take on values between -1 and 1;
- ▶ 0 means no agreement between the observed and predicted classes,
- ▶ 1 indicates perfect concordance of the model prediction and the observed classes.
- ▶ Negative values indicate that the prediction is in the opposite direction of the truth