

# Classification

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# Classification

- Supervised learning:  $n$  features, a categorical class variable  $Y$
- A classifier is a ML algorithm for classification. Training, learning,...
- Approaches:
  - Separation of the instances of each class in the feature space
  - Learning the distribution of the data

$X_1$	$X_2$	...	$X_{n-1}$	$X_n$	$Y$
3	6	...	5	9	1
5	1	...	5	6	0
4	6	...	5	5	0
7	89	...	23	85	1
3	435	...	3	1	1
...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...
8	1	...	77	321	0
9	8	...	6	8	1
4	77	...	3	132	0
8	9	...	1	8	0
9	8	...	4	8	?

# OvO - OvA

- Some classification algorithms can only distinguish between two classes, how can we use them in multi class problems?
- One vs One strategy: train  $k(k-1)/2$  binary classifiers. At prediction stage we will assign a new observation to the class that wins in more classifiers
- One vs All (or One vs Rest) strategy: one classifier per class. The outcome must be numerical, representing the confidence on it



# Outline

- K Nearest Neighbour, KNN
- Decision trees, bagging, random forests, boosting
- Logistic regression
- Discriminant analysis: LDA, QDA, GaussianNB
- Support Vector Machines, SVM



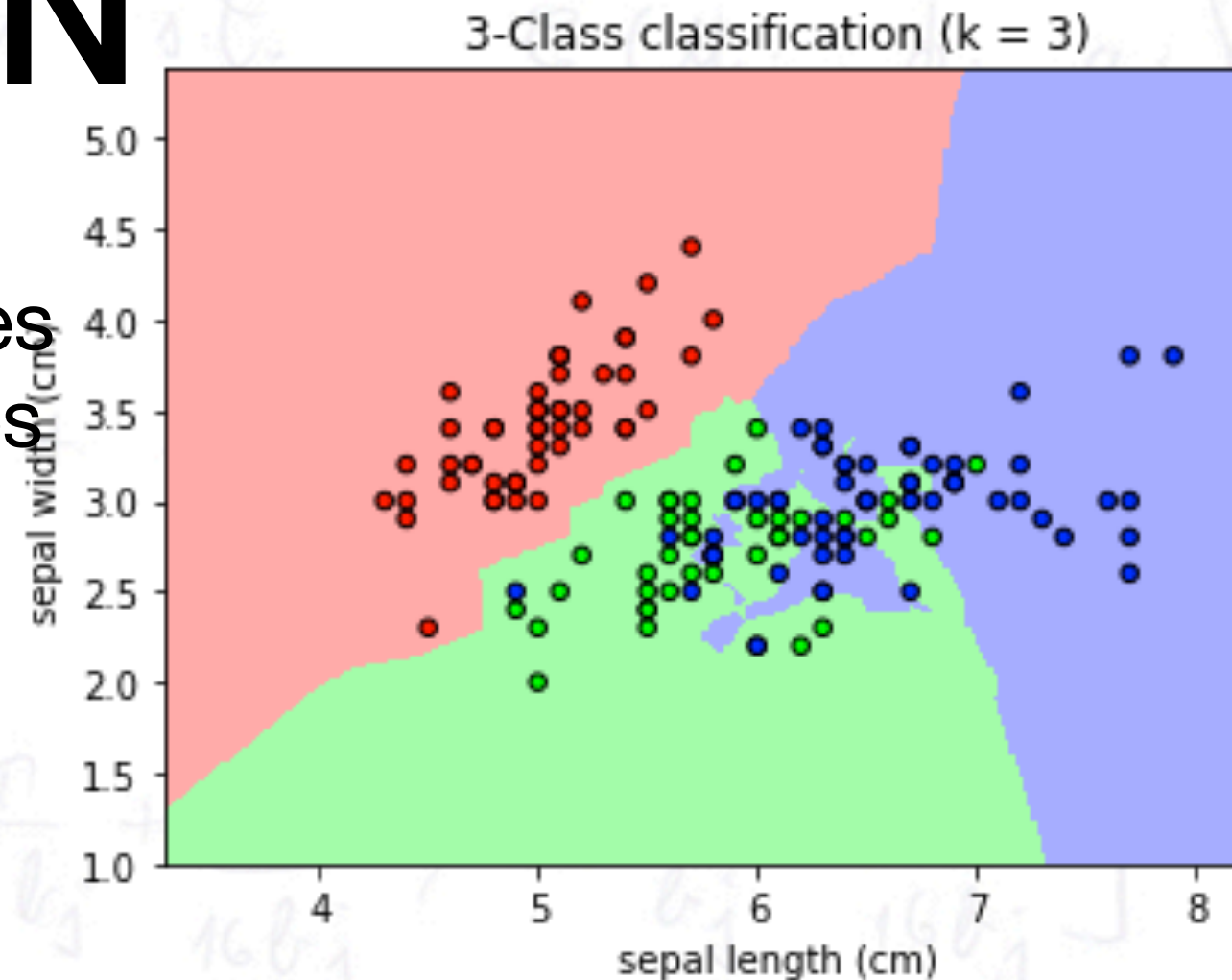
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# KNN

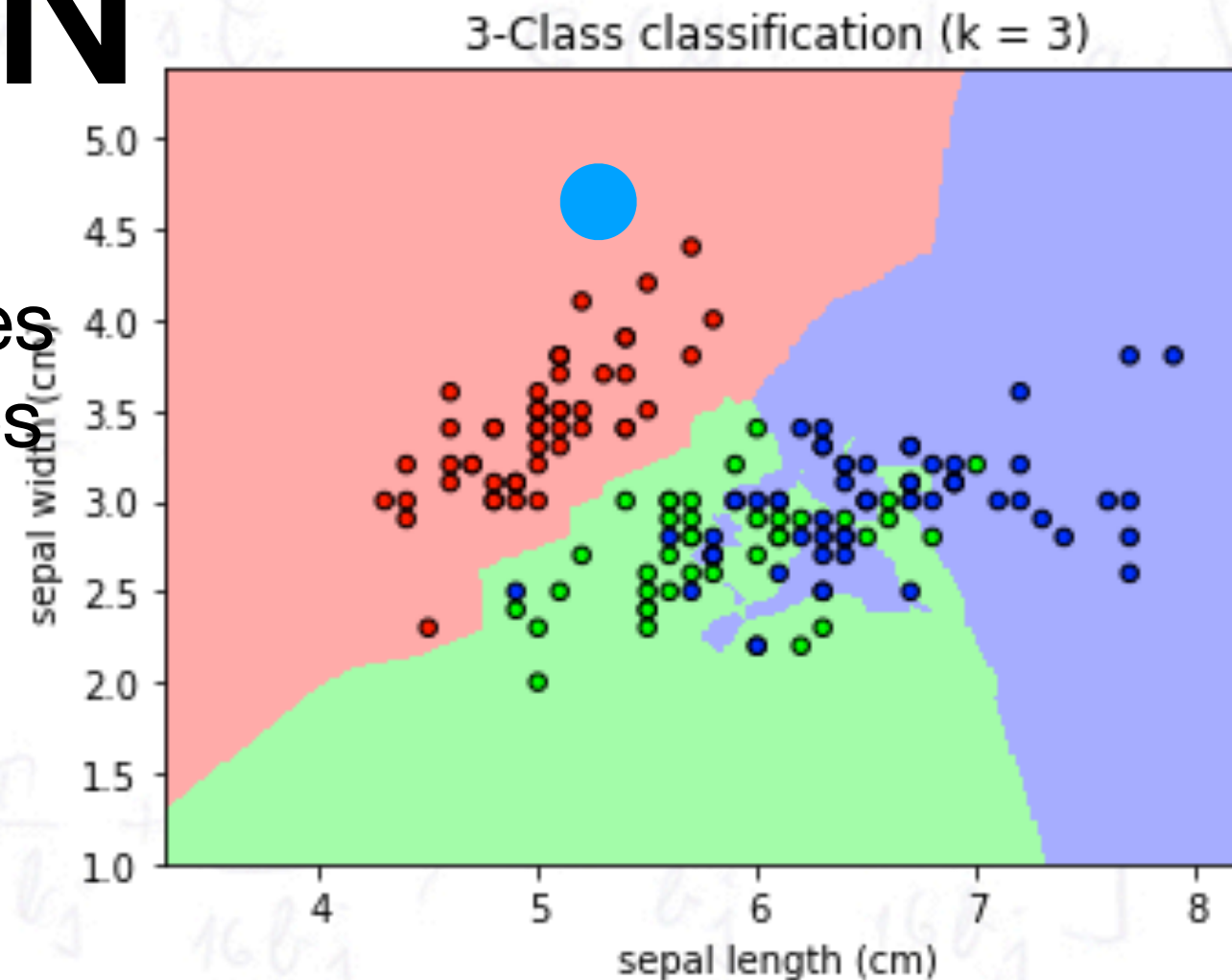
- It is a *lazy* algorithm which does not learn any model and makes computations in classification time
- Given a dataset  $D$  a new instance for prediction  $X$ 
  - Let  $D'$  be the  $k$  closest instances to  $X$  on  $D$
  - Assign  $X$  to the most popular class on  $D'$





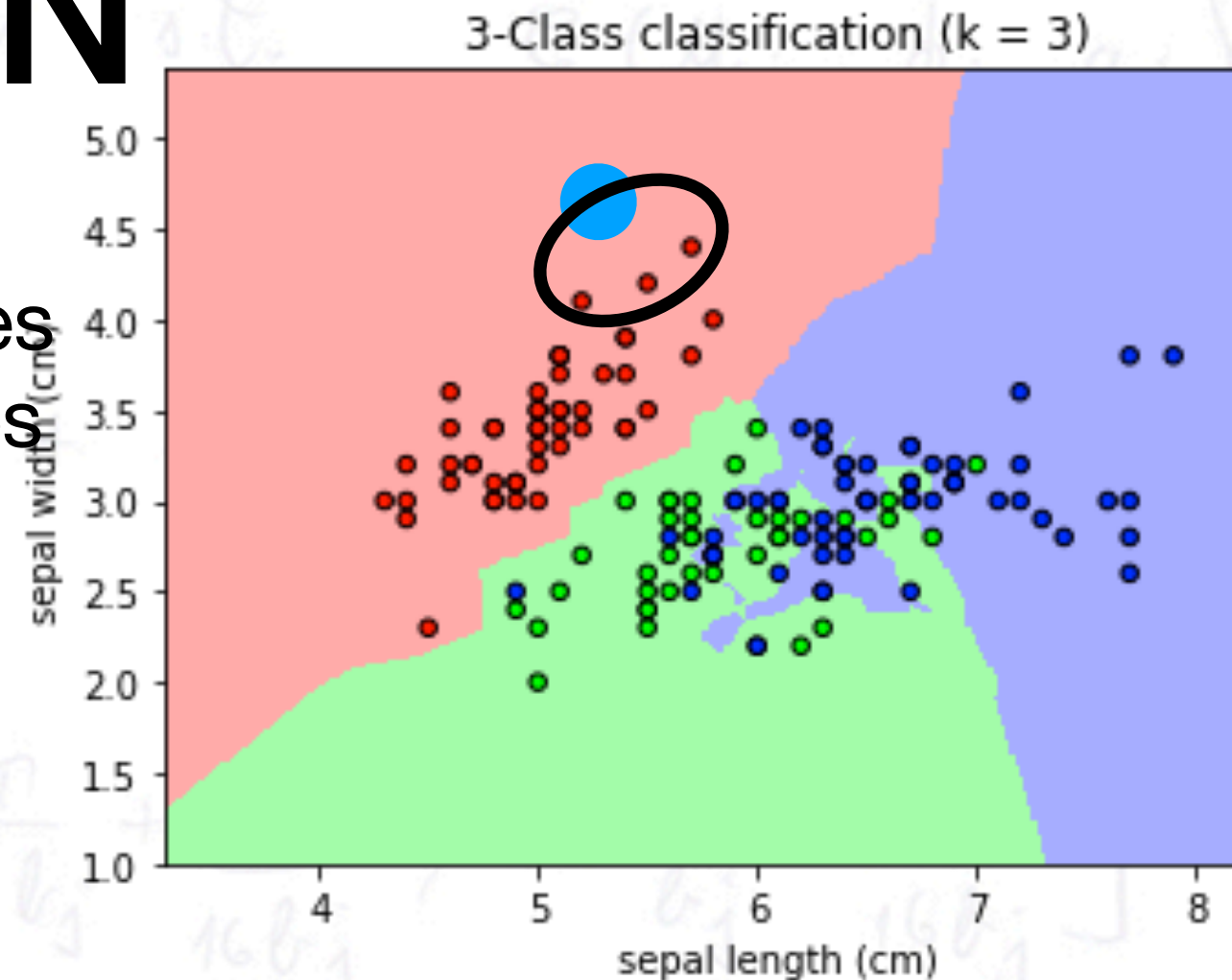
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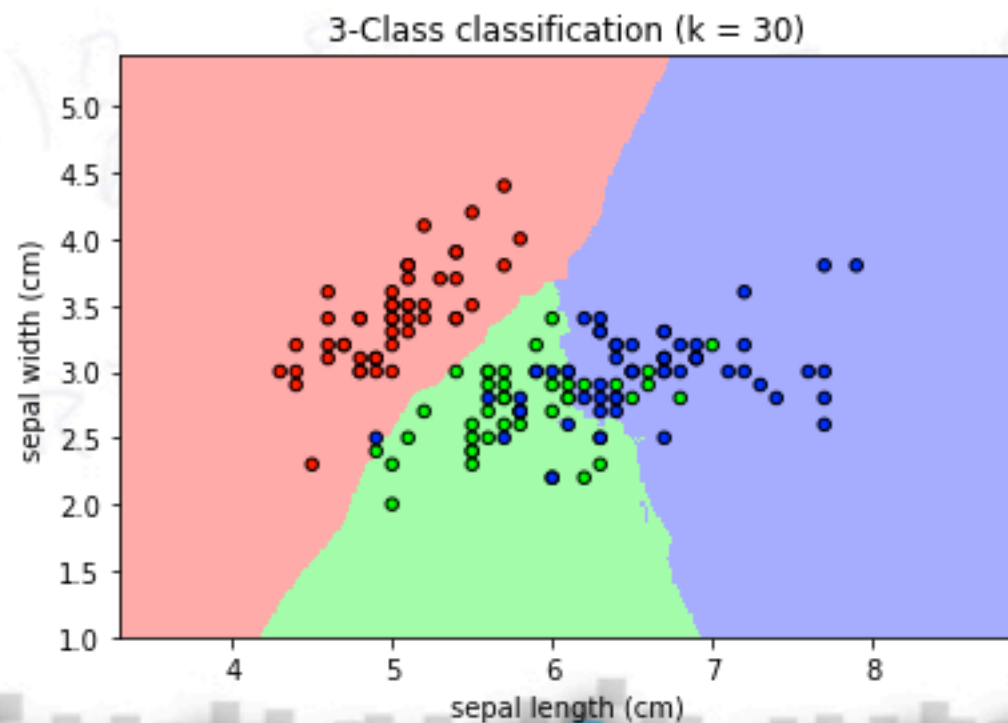
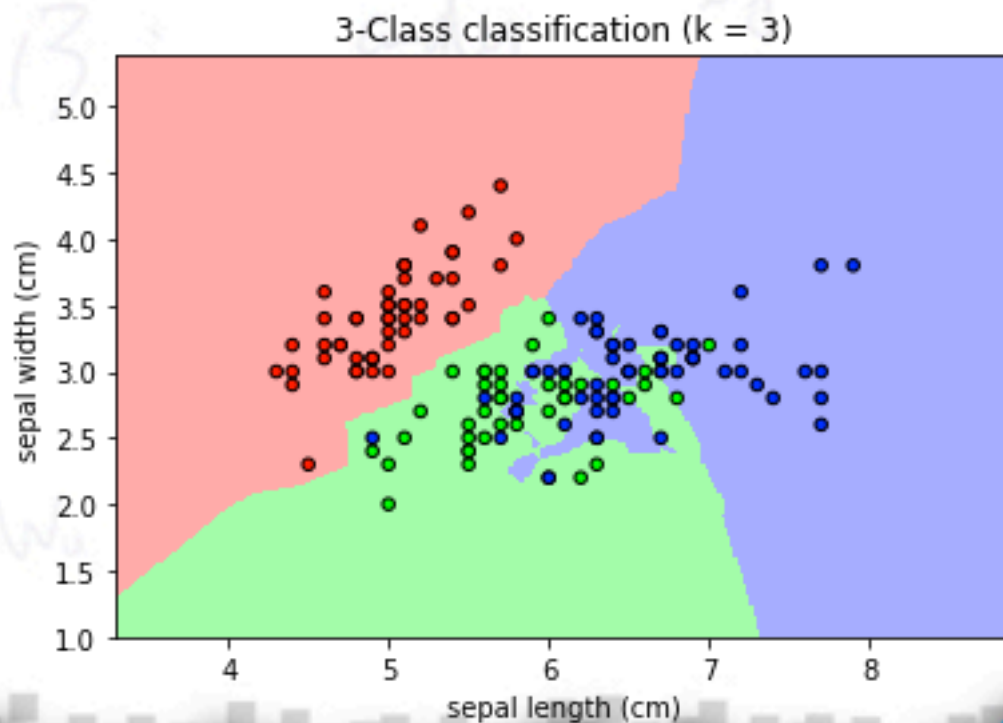
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# KNN

- What happens as we change  $k$ ? The decision boundaries get smoother and we control overfitting
- How do we choose  $k$ ?



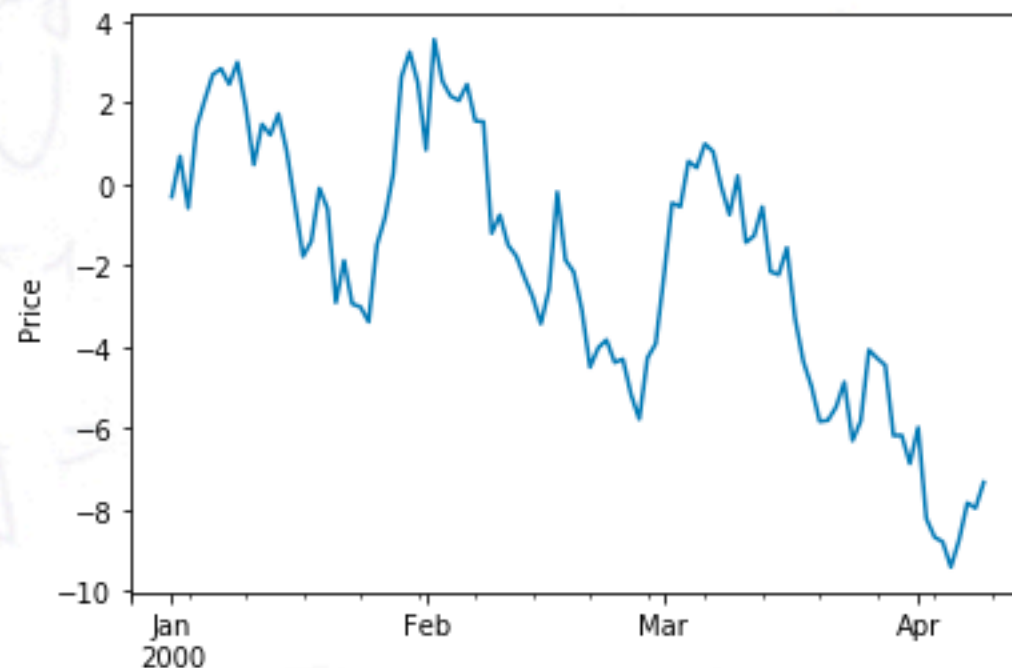
# KNN

- If we can define similarity measures for the features we can use the KNN
- Time series, a series of data points indexed sequentially



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- Time series, a series of data points indexed sequentially





# KNN - TS classification

Instance

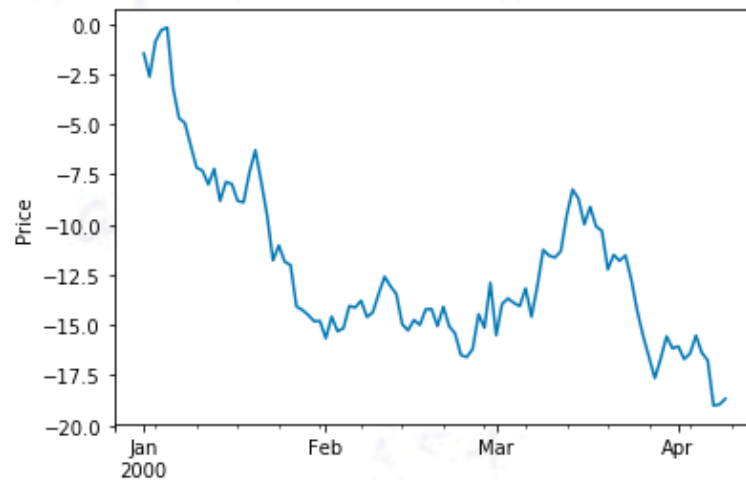
Class



# KNN - TS classification

**Instance**

**Class**

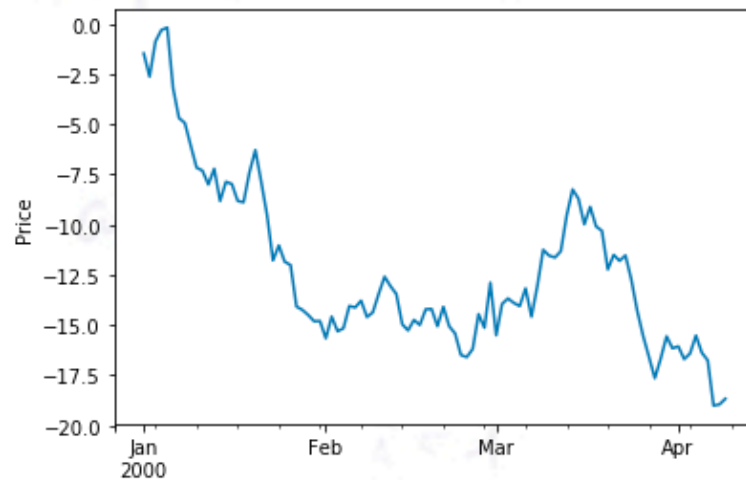


# KNN - TS classification

Instance

Class

0

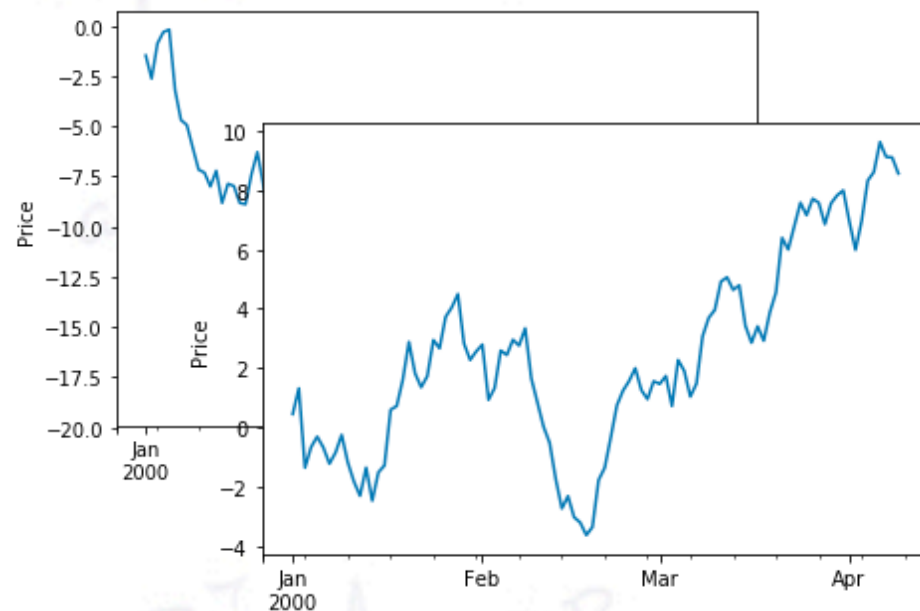




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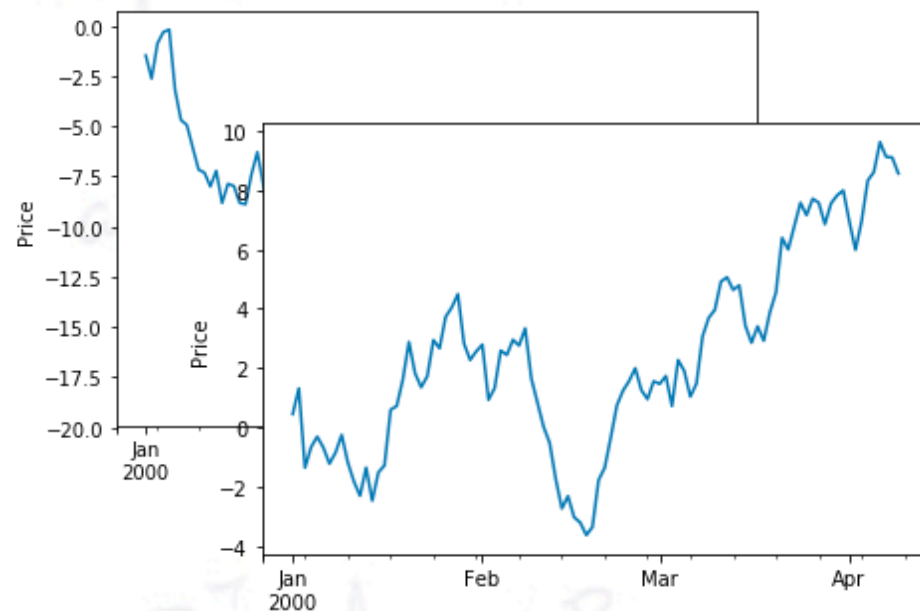


0

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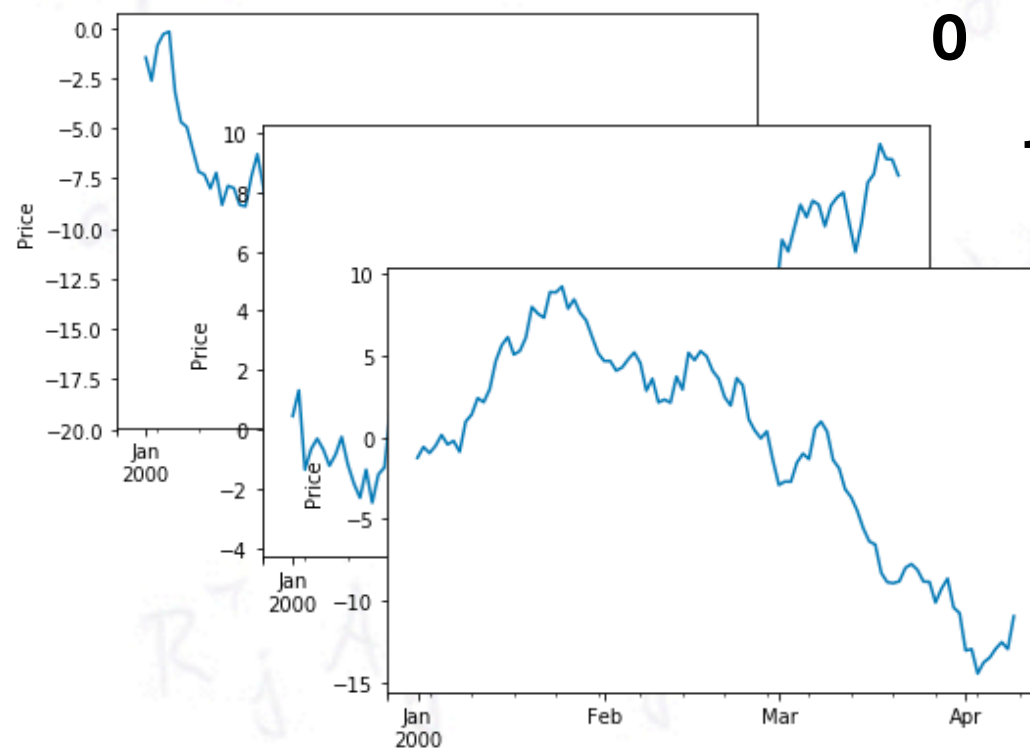
0

1

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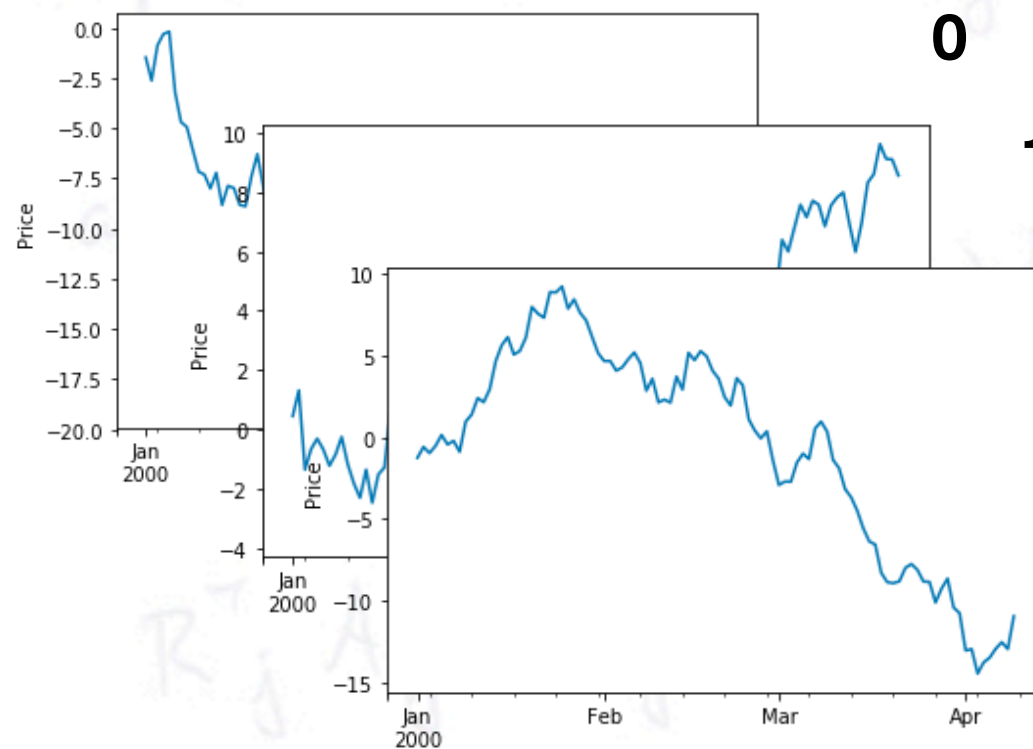




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Instance

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0

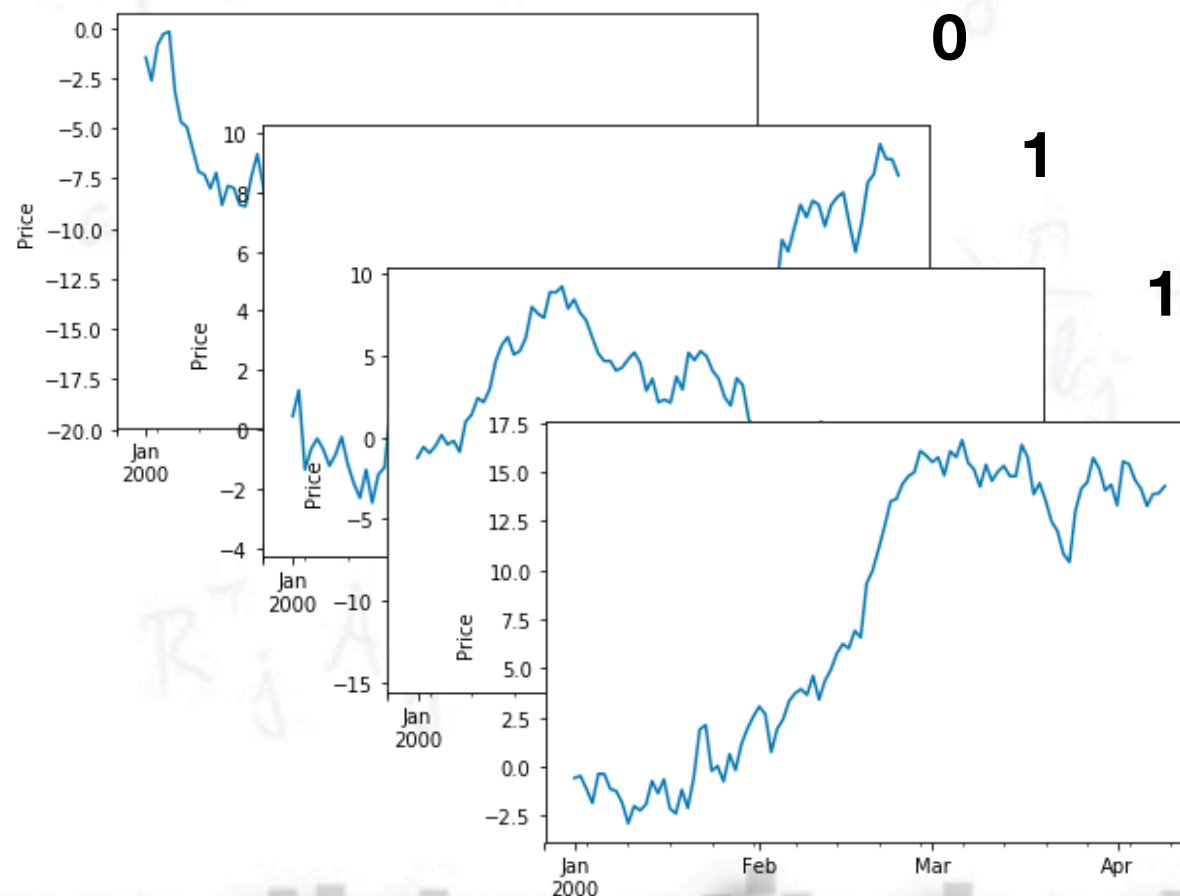
1

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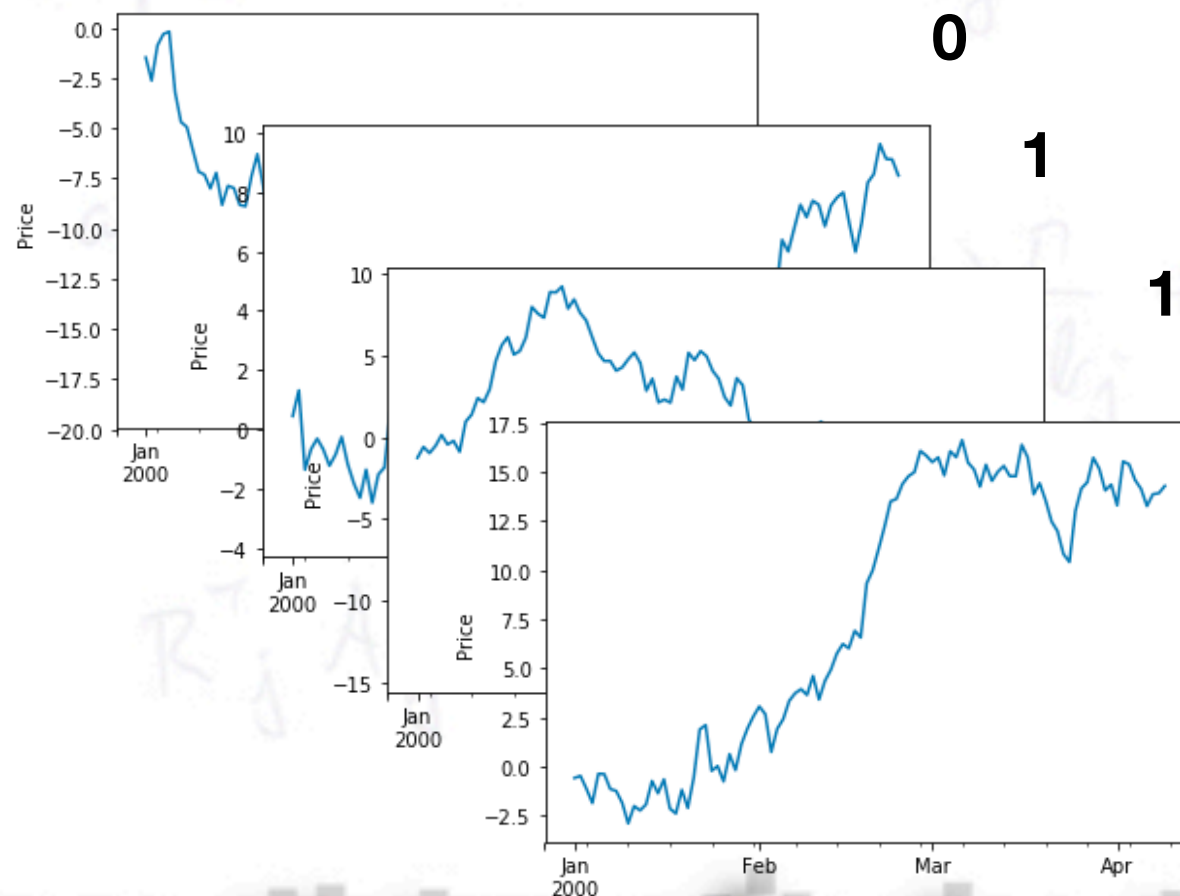
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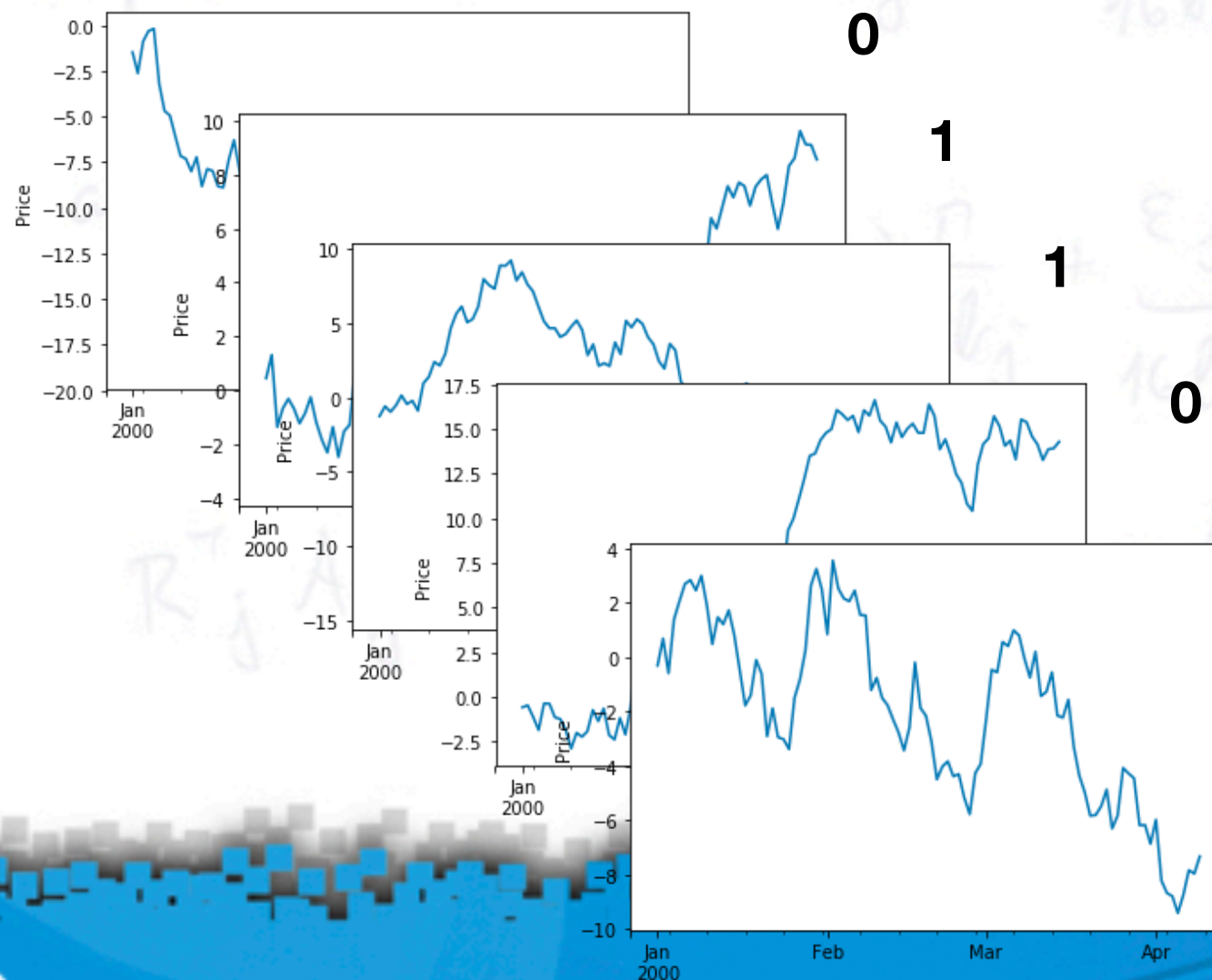




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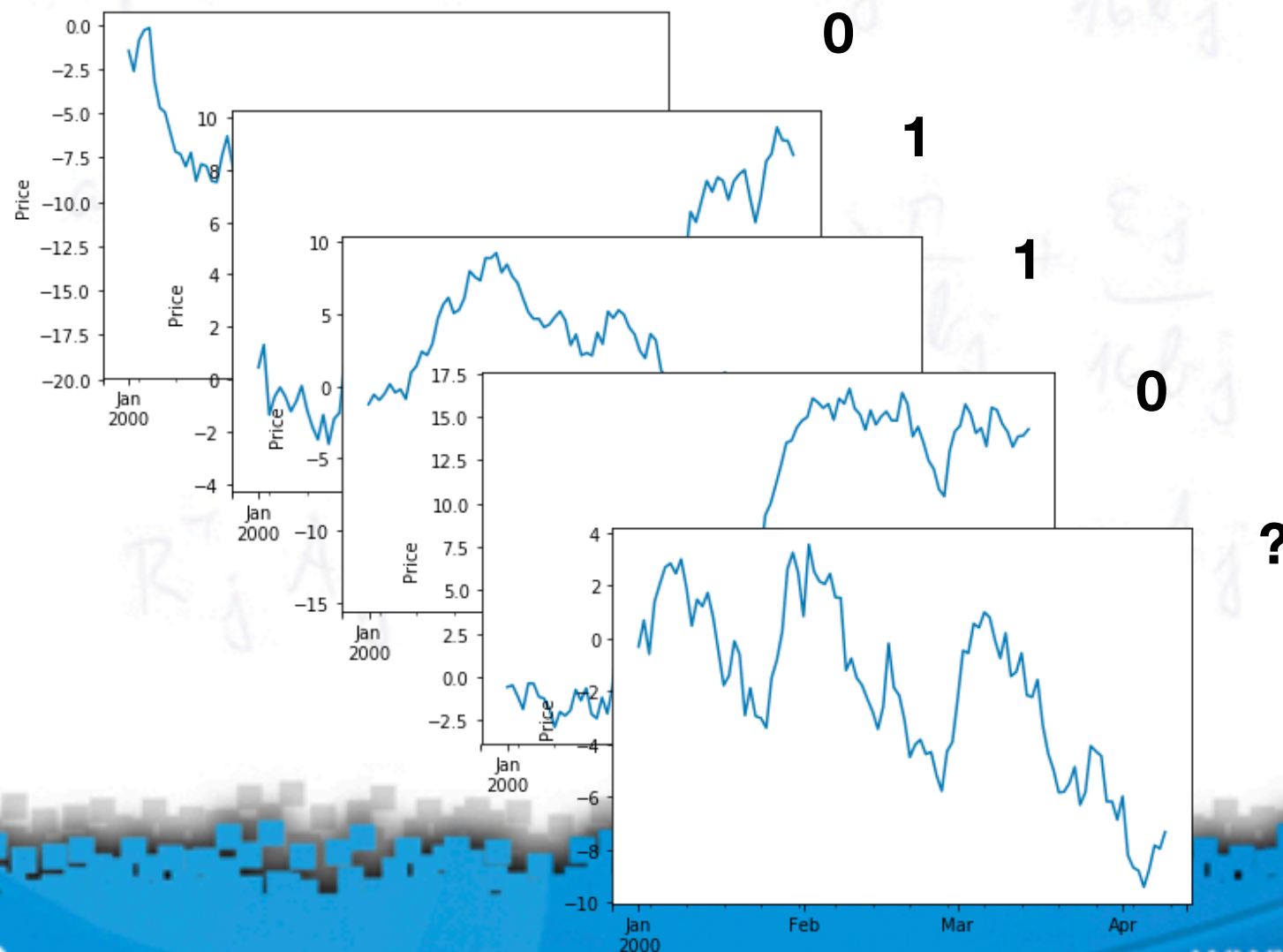
Class



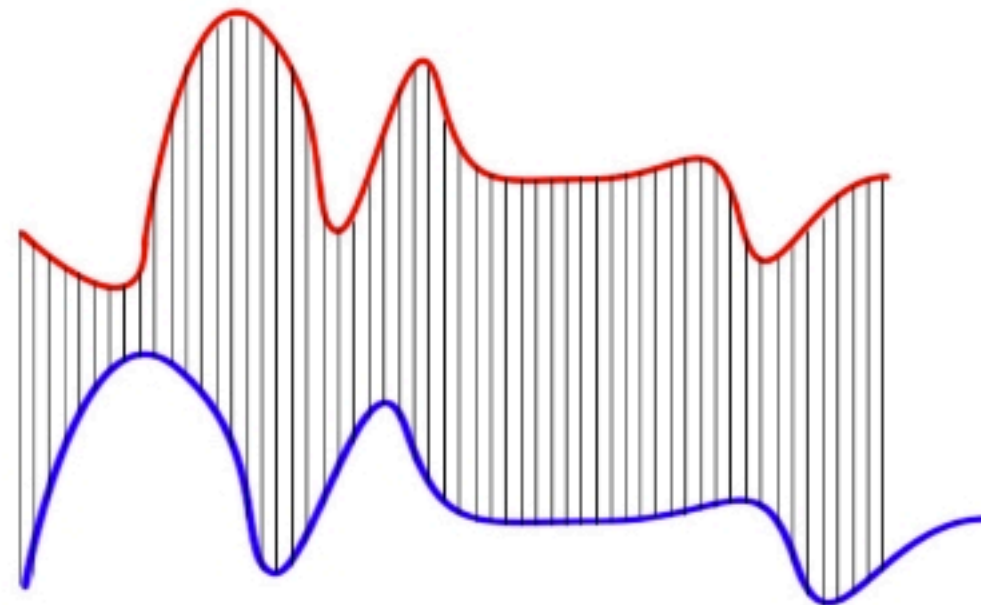
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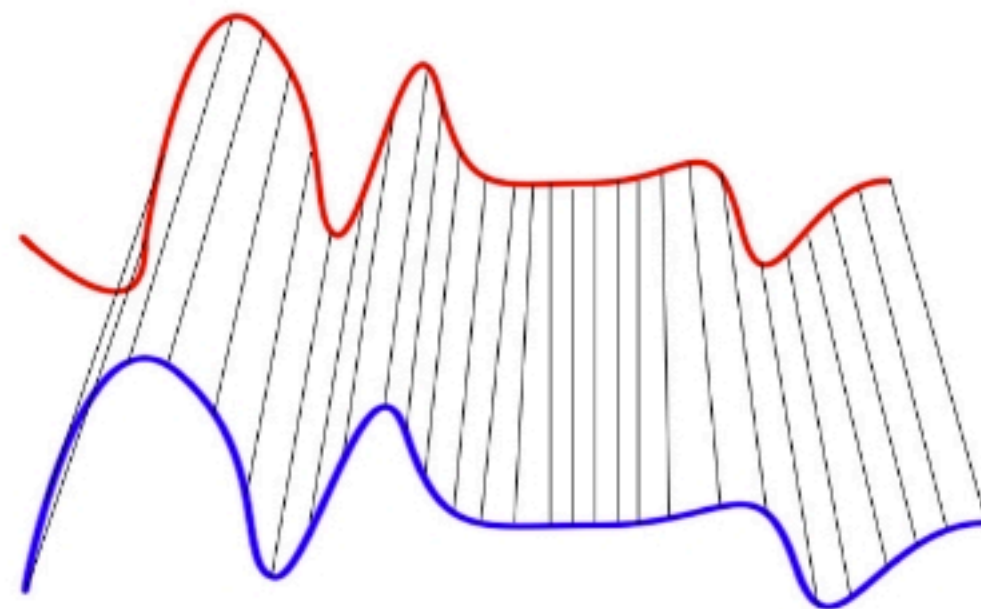
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# KNN - TS distance



Euclidean Matching

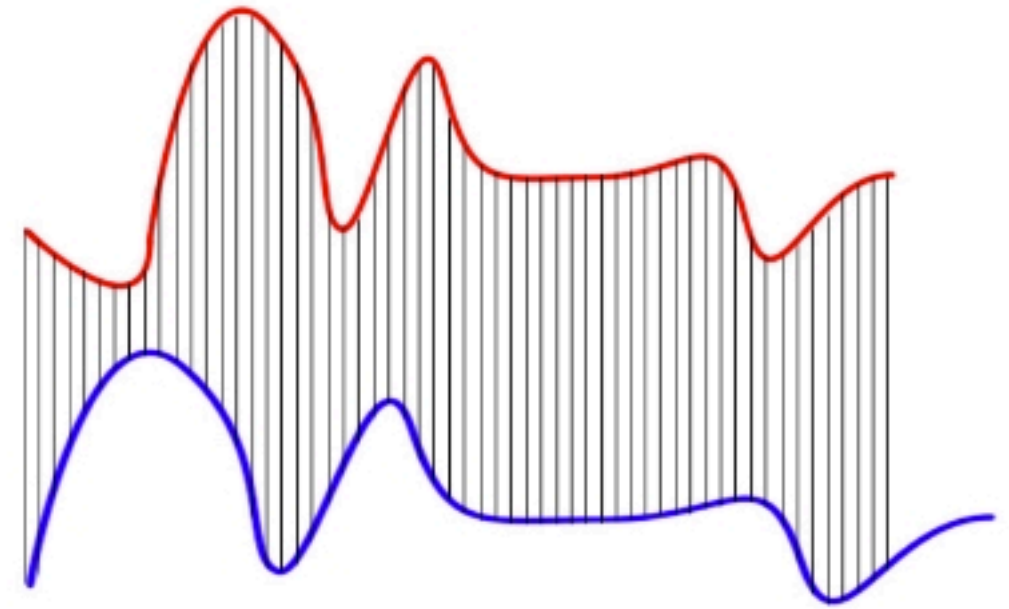


Dynamic Time Warping Matching

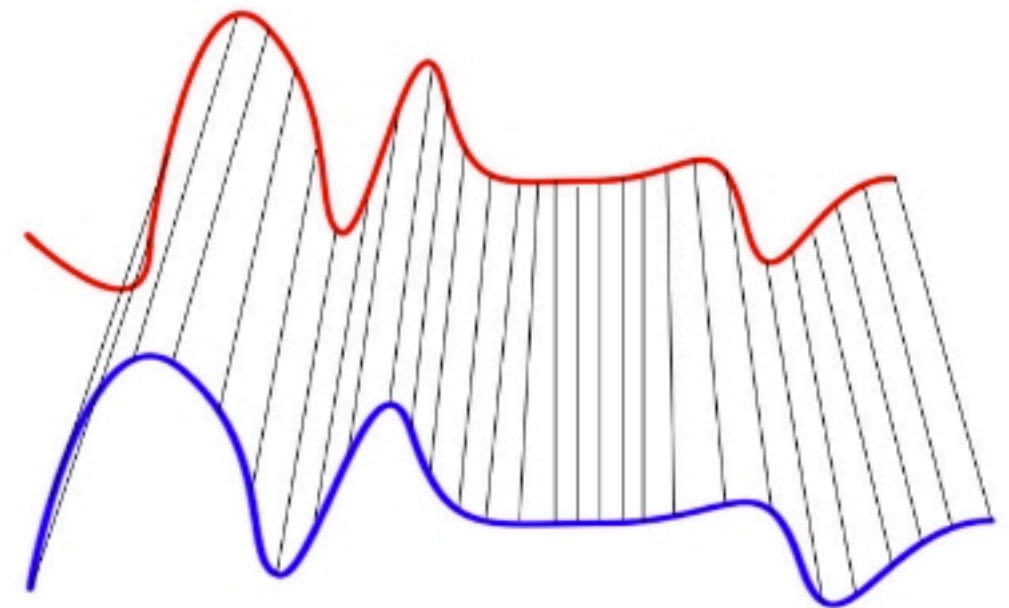


# KNN for time series

Dynamic time warping,  
DTW, a distance for time  
series



Euclidean Matching



Dynamic Time Warping Matching

# KNN

- Easy to understand and implement
- Computationally efficient in general
- Defining *similarities*
- The first thing that you should try when approaching a ML problem
- The curse of dimensionality: Nearest neighbours tend to be far away in high dimensions

# Outline

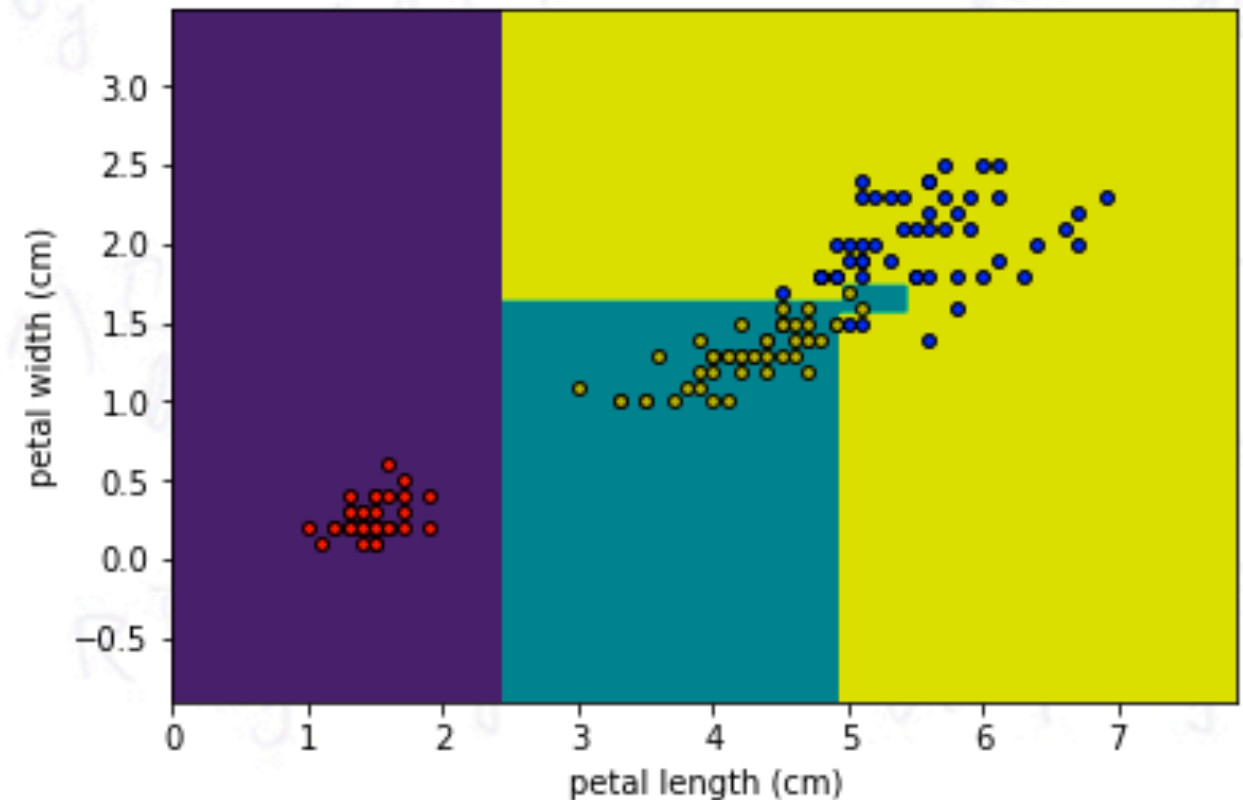
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# Decision trees

- Divide the feature space into high dimensional rectangles
- Find the boxes that minimise the classification error
- Infeasible!



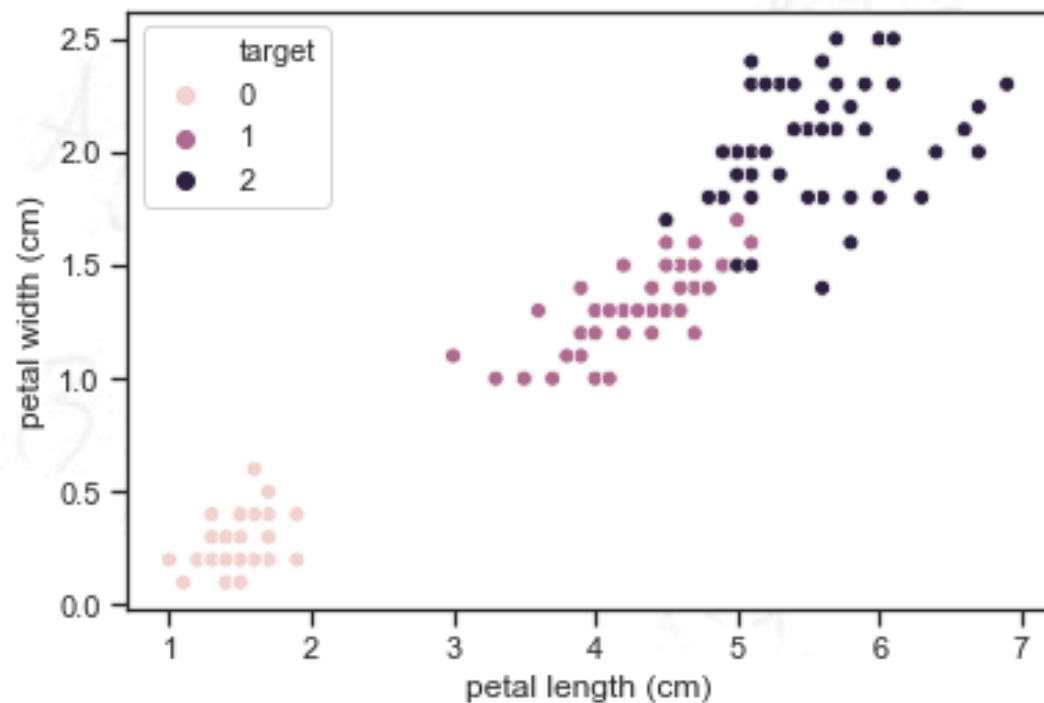
# Decision trees

- Recursive binary splitting: iteratively partition the feature space.

- Error measured as

$$G = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{mk}(1 - \hat{p}_{mk}) \text{ where } \hat{p}_{mk}$$

is the proportion of observations in the  $k$ th class in the  $m$ th region



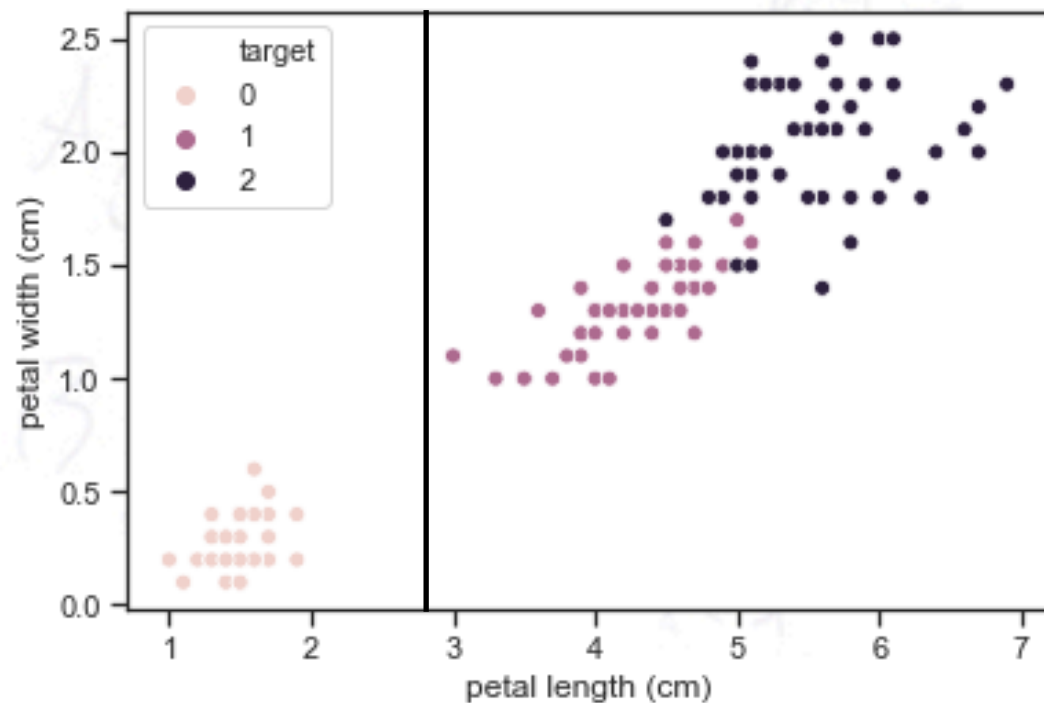
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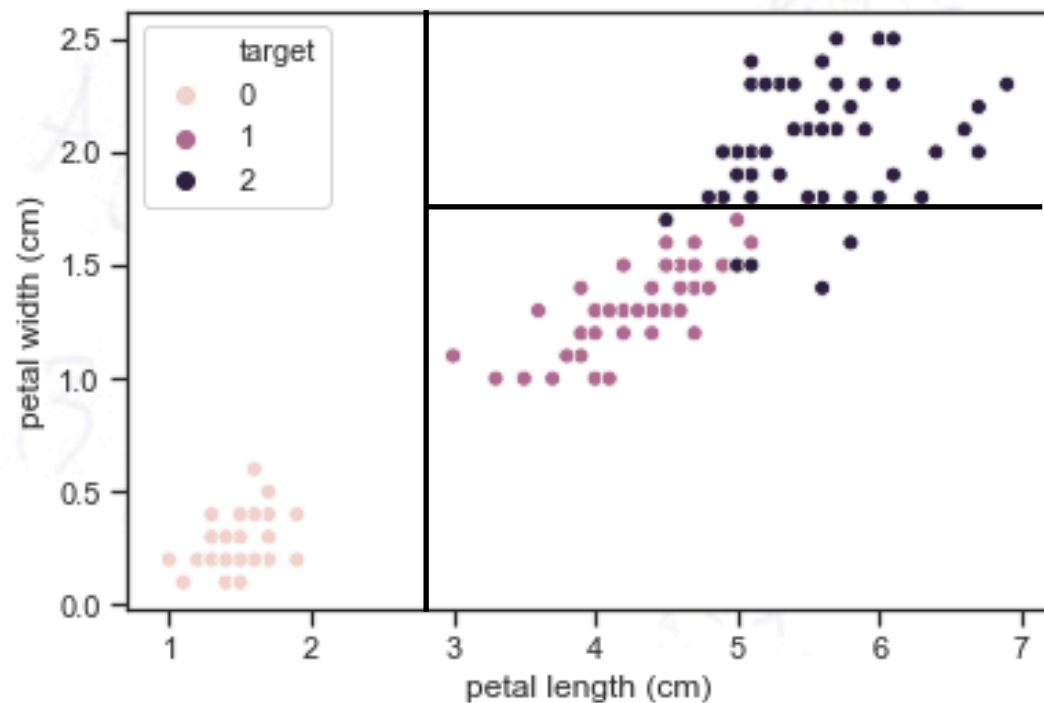
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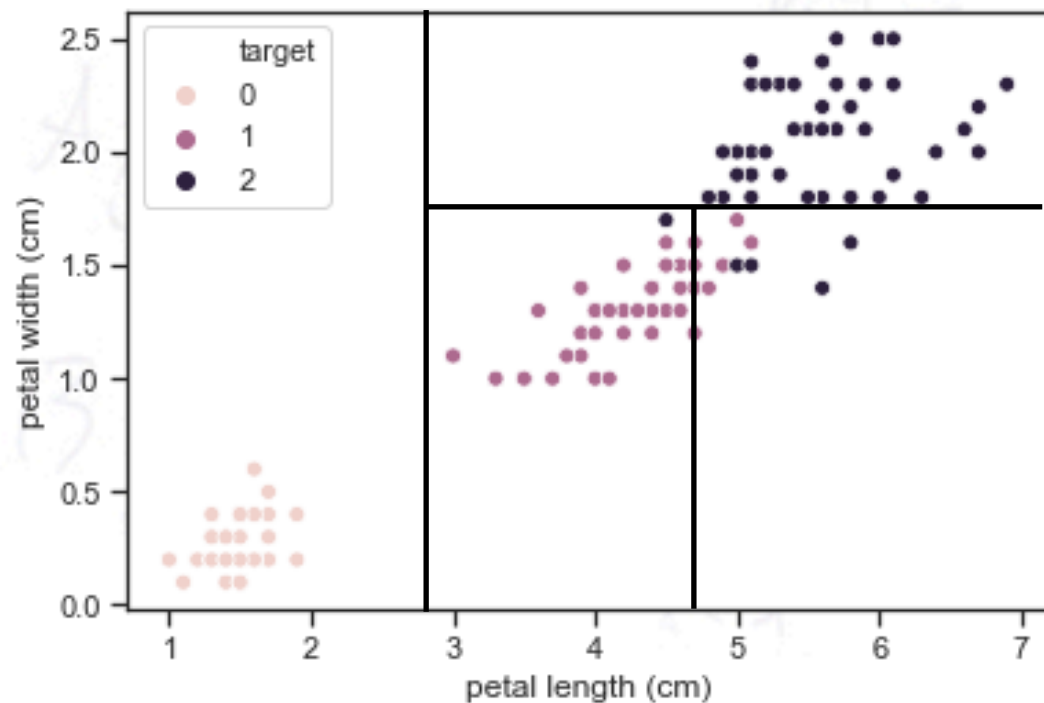
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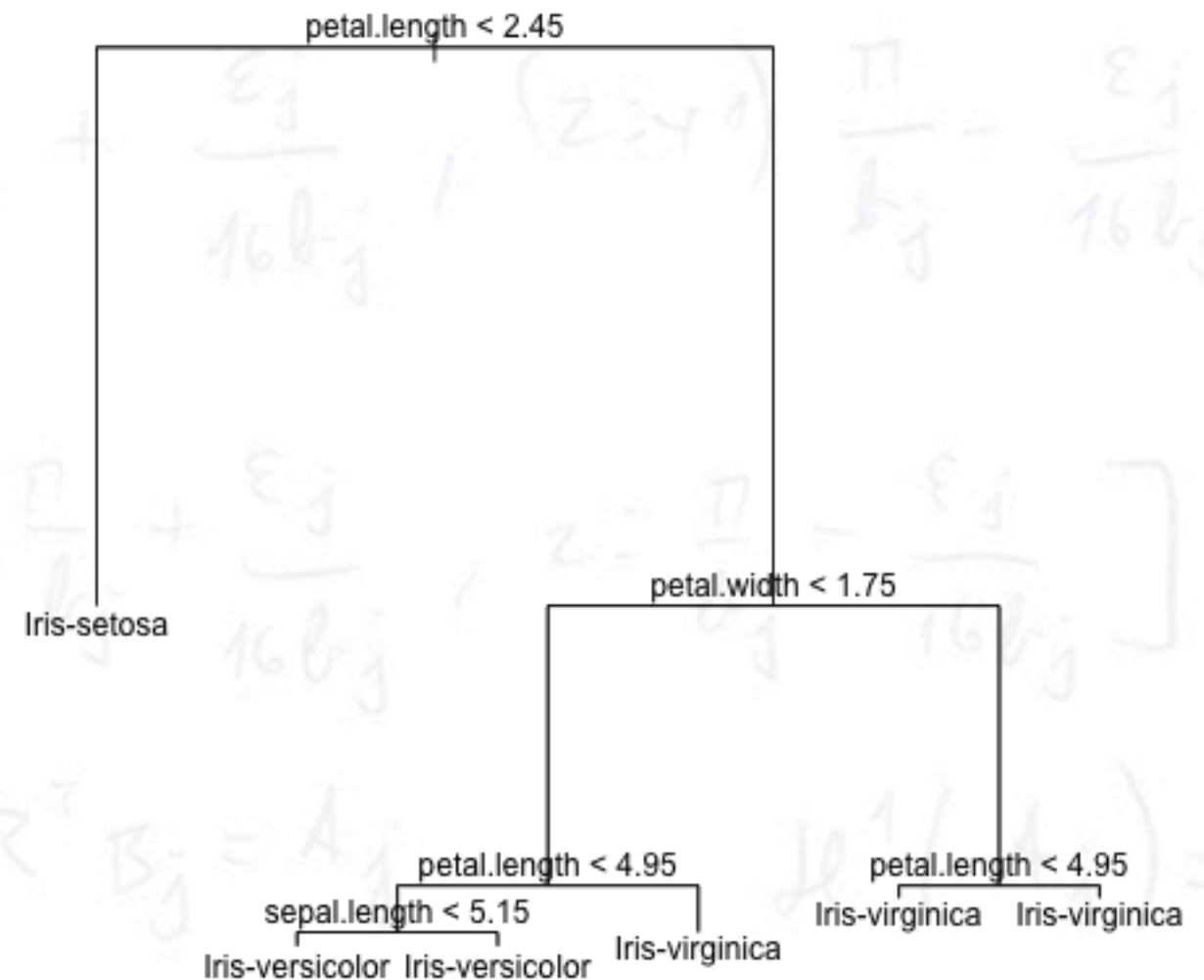
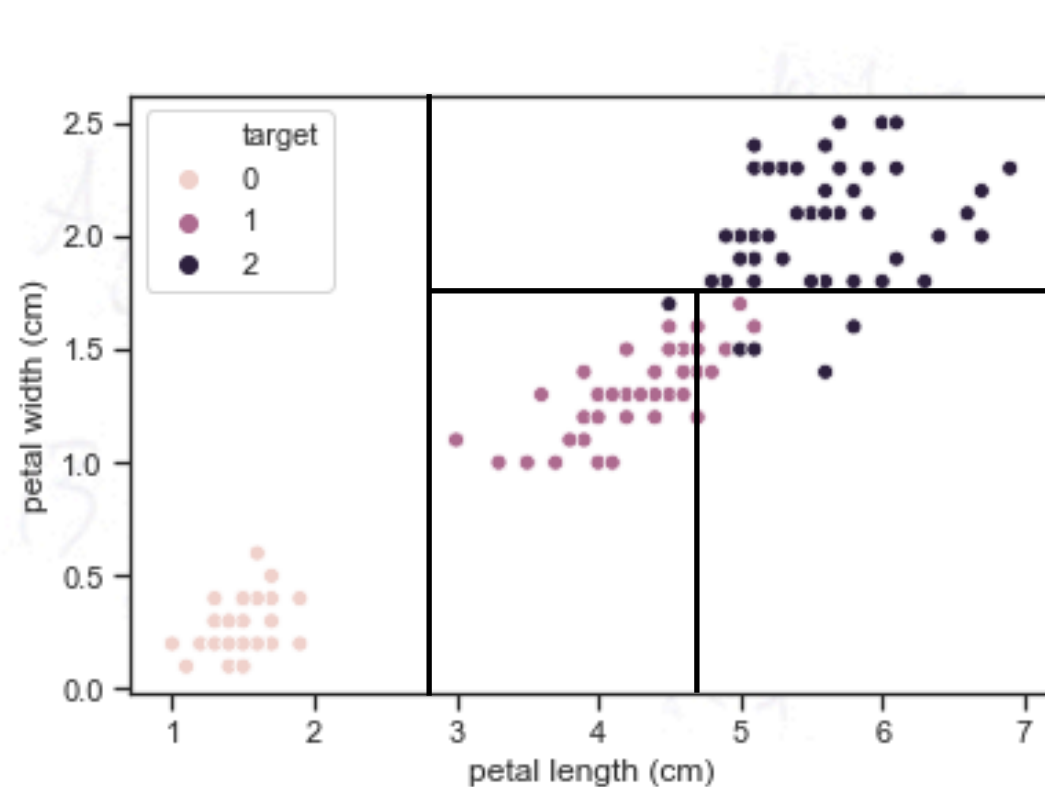
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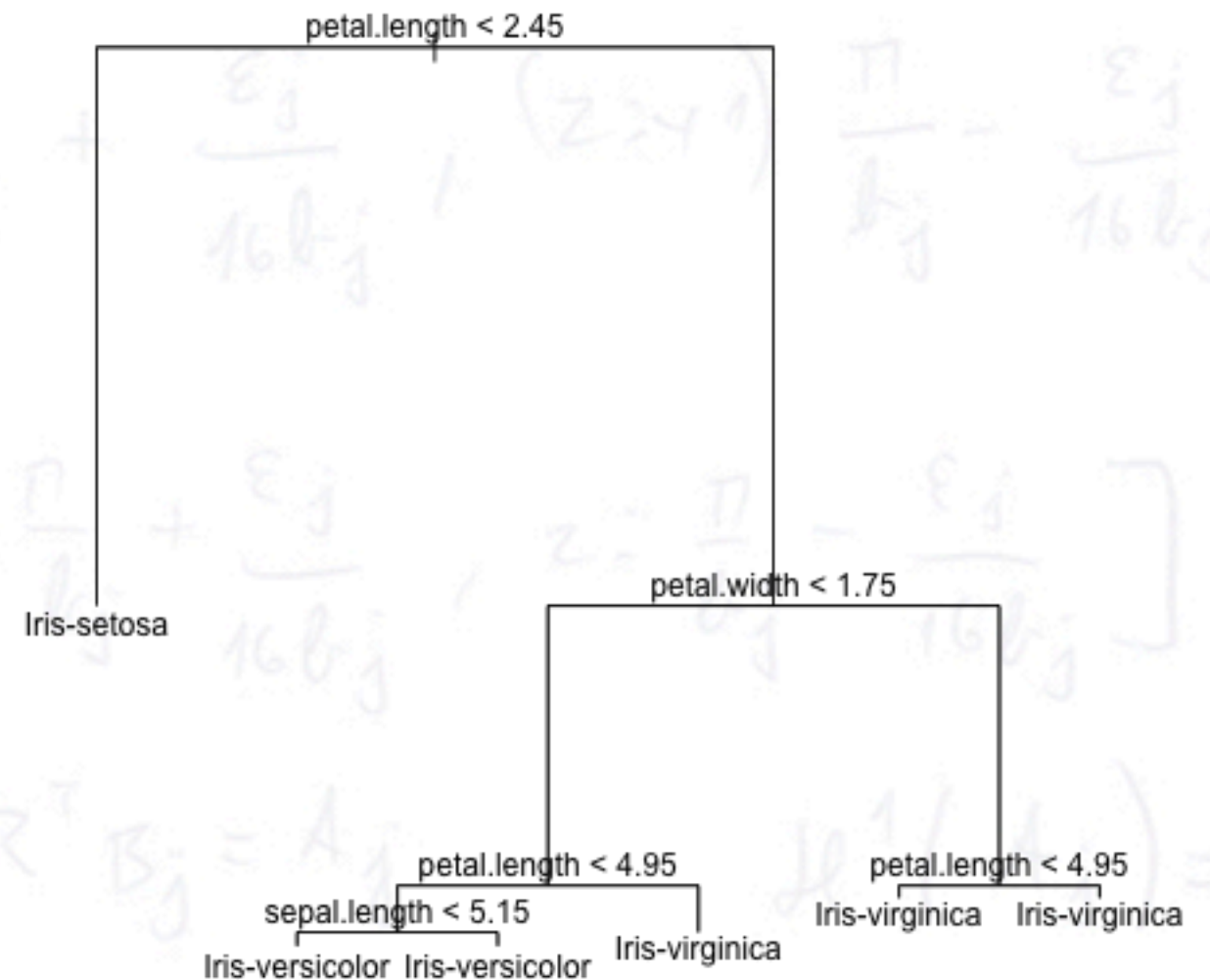
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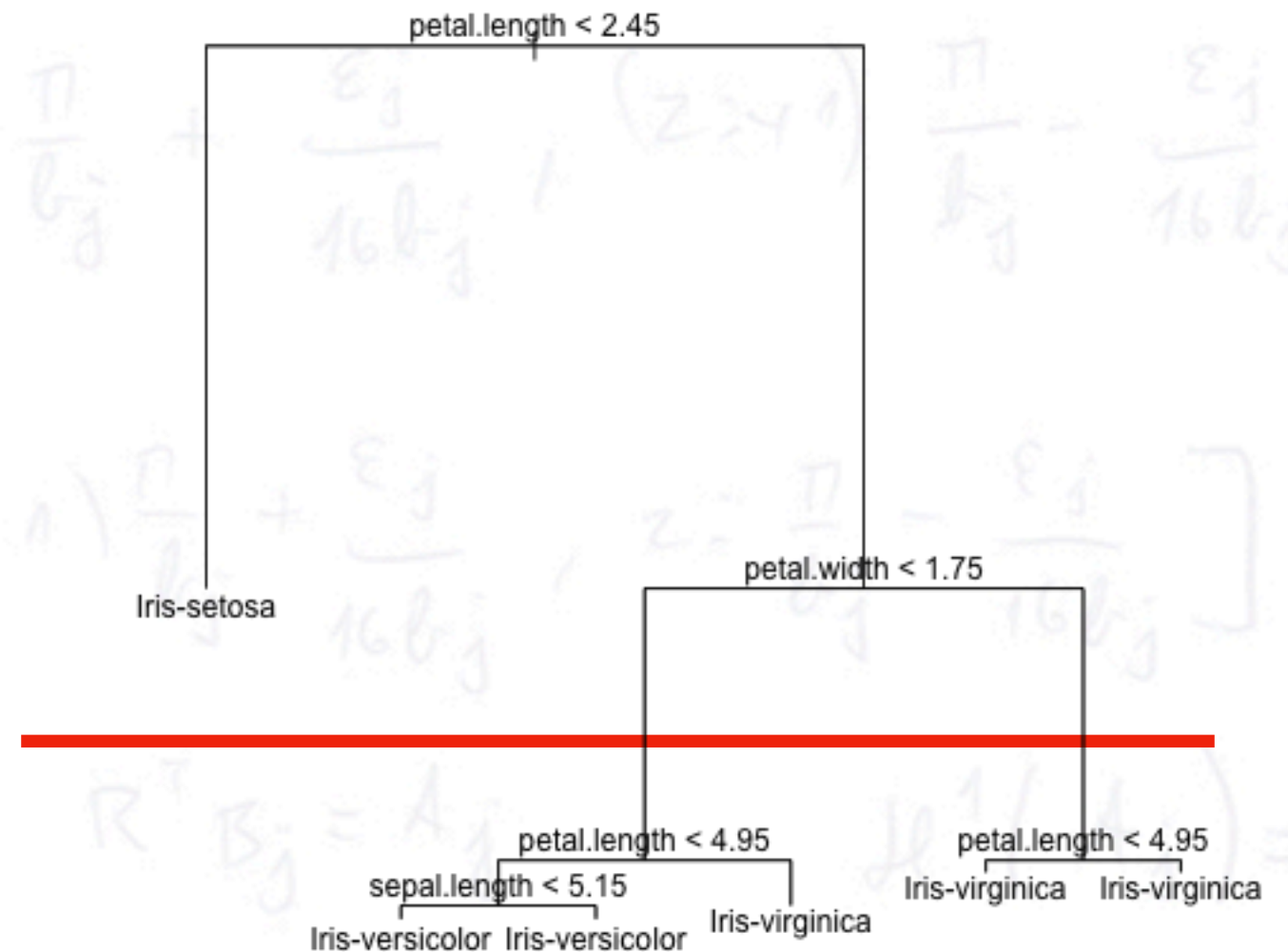
# Decision trees

- Deep trees lead to high variance and overfitting
- When do we stop growing the tree?
  - iterate until each region contains no more than  $k$  samples
  - prune the tree, regularization



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# Decision trees

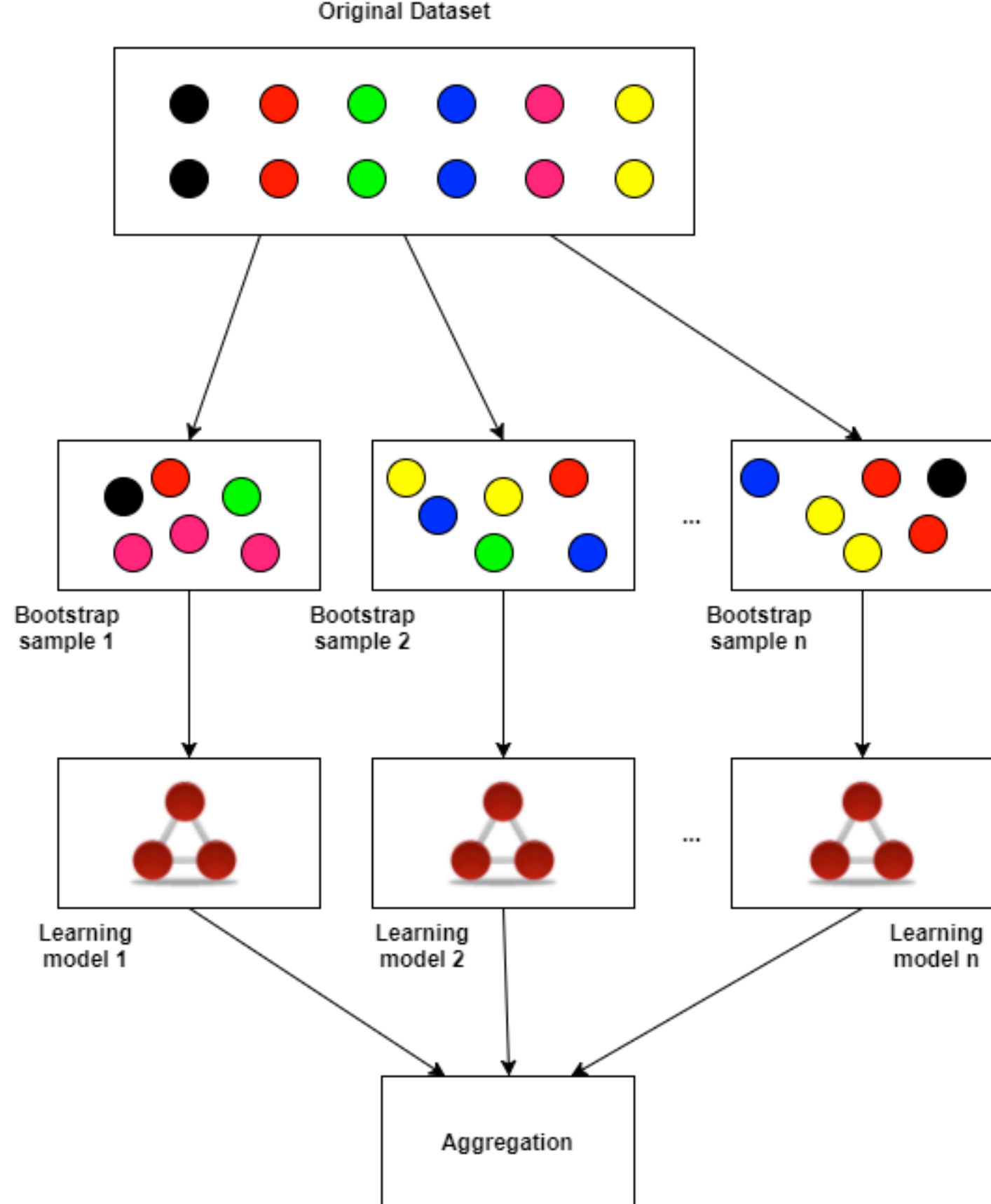
- Simple and interpretable. It is easy to understand by an expert
- Not competitive with modern algorithms
- High variance
- Can be a building block for other techniques





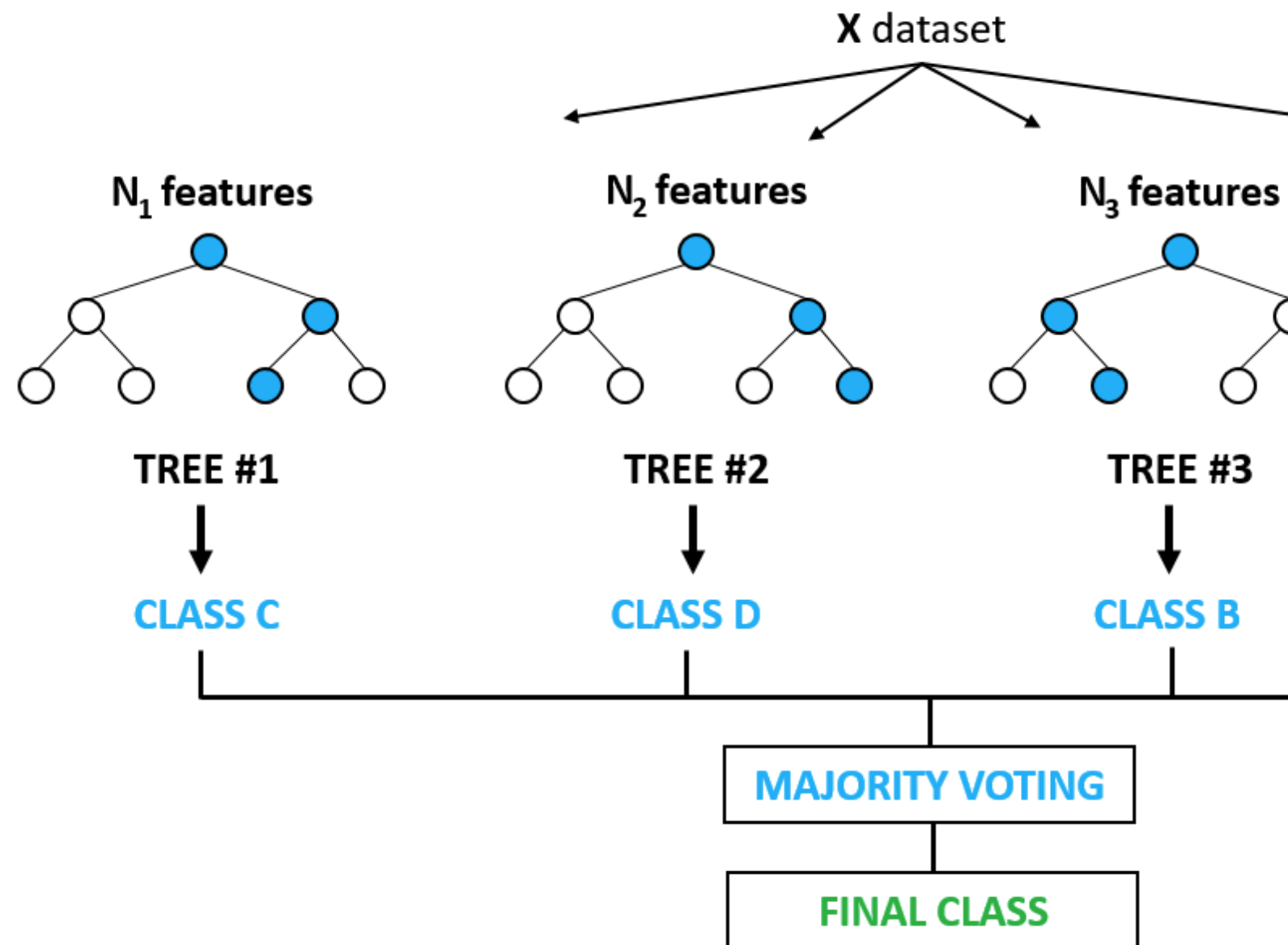
# Bagging

- Bootstrap sample
- Grow a full tree
- Aggregate all results
- The mean decrease of Gini index by split for a given feature gives the variable importance



# Random forests

- Bootstrap sample
- Select a subset of the features for each split
- Aggregate the results



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# Logistic regression

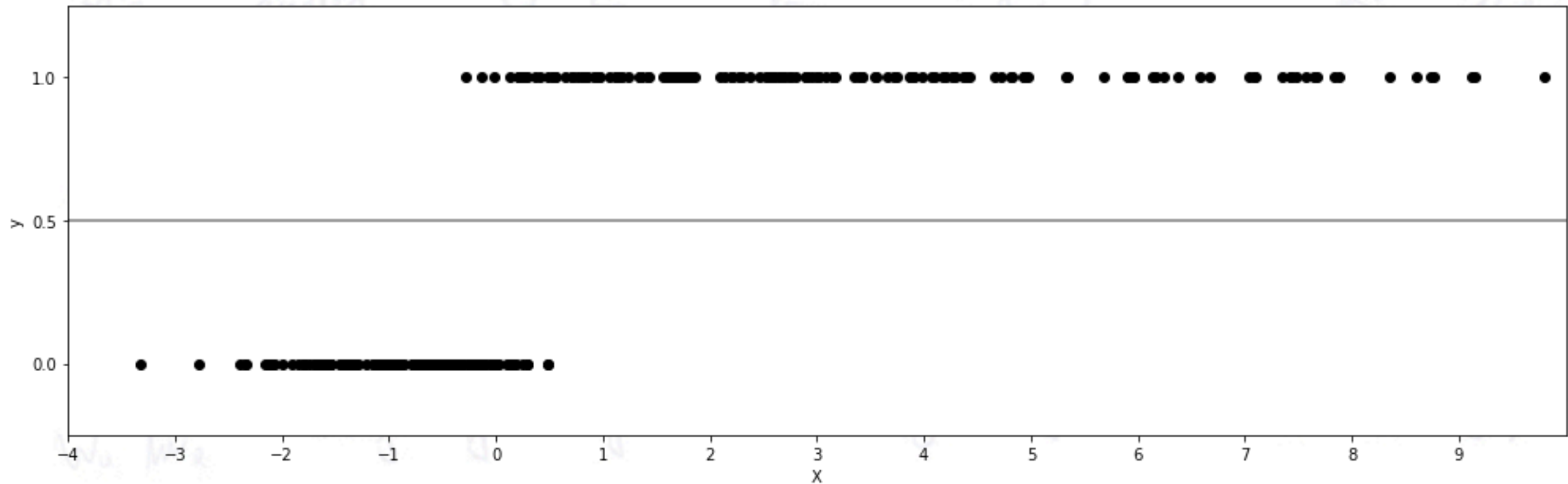
- Binary class variable,  $Y$
- Example in finance:  $X$  is the balance of a client and  $Y$  client's default
- Different approach from previous chapter: model the relation between  $X$ , the balance, and the probability of default of this client  $p(X) = \Pr(Y = 1 | X)$

# Logistic regression

- First approach is to use linear regression:  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$
- LR is a very powerful solution in many context
- Easy to fit
- Interpretable

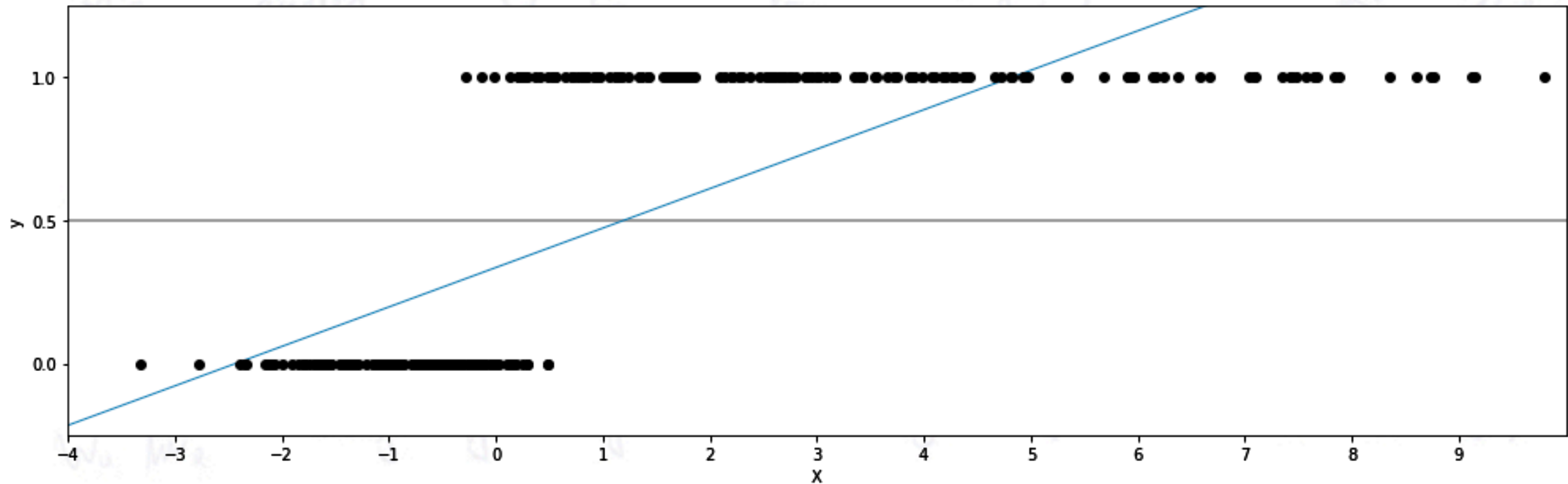


# Logistic regression



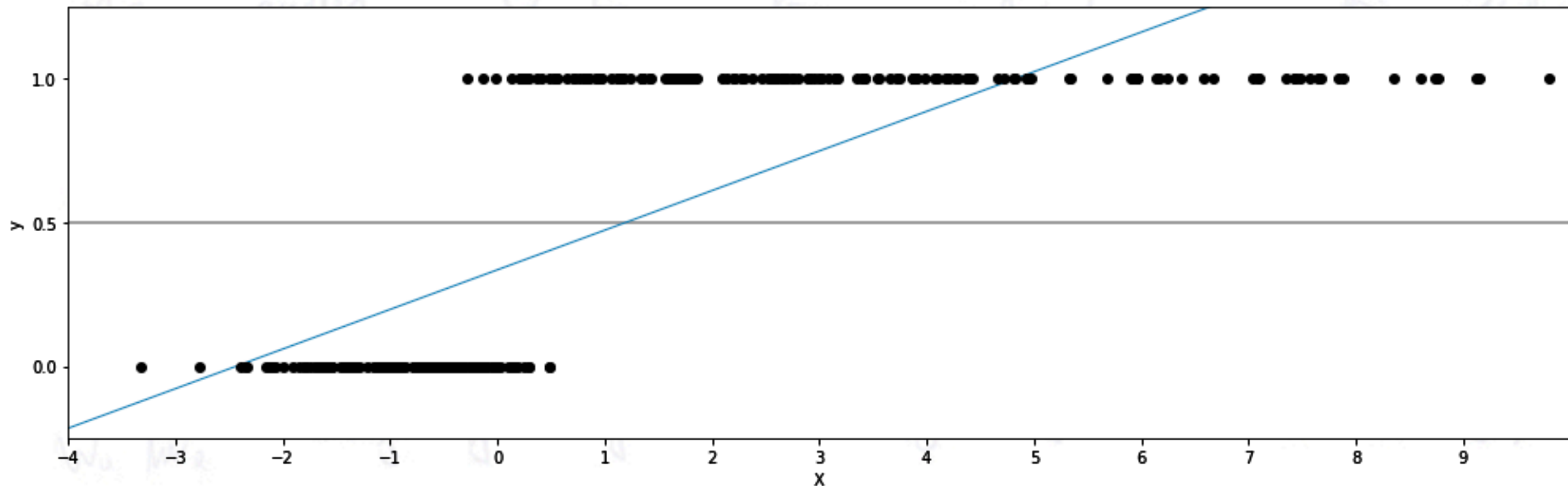


# Logistic regression



# Logistic regression

- Change the domain from  $(-\infty, \infty)$  to  $[0, 1]$



# Logistic regression

- One approach is to use the logistic function

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

- This is equivalent to  $\log \frac{p(X)}{1 - p(X)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$



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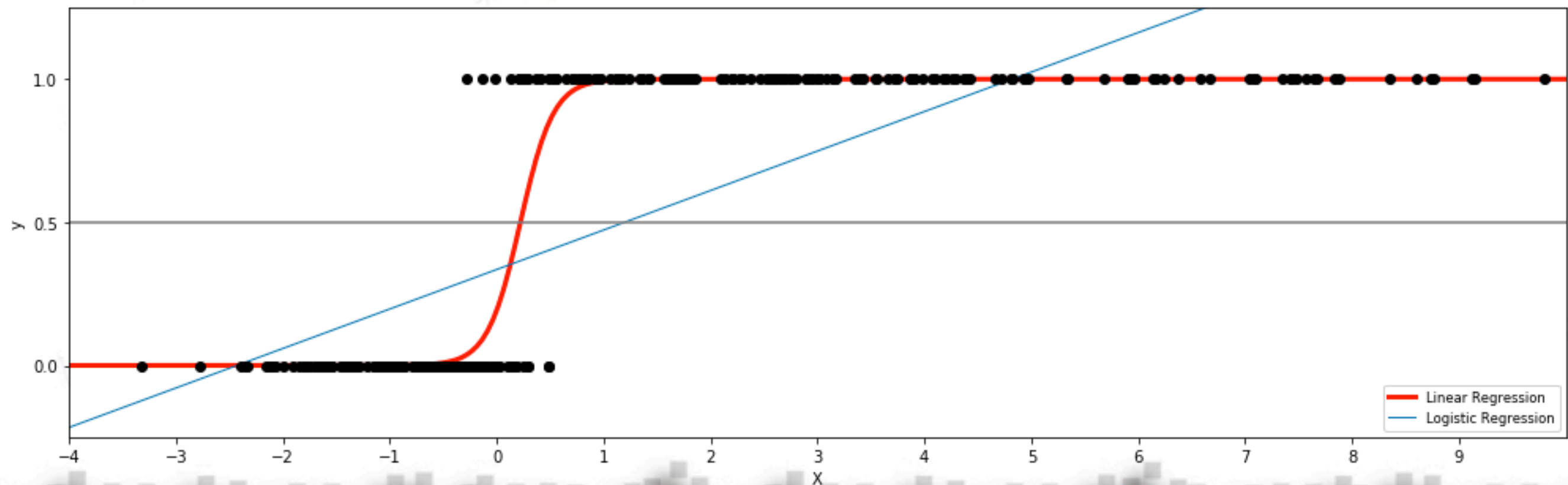
$$p(X) = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}$$

The logit is linear in  $X$

- This is equivalent to  $\log \frac{p(X)}{1 - p(X)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$

# Logistic regression

- Making predictions is easy
- Maximum likelihood estimation of the coefficients efficient





# Logistic regression

- When the classes are well separated it can be unstable: if there is a feature that separates classes perfectly the coefficients go up to infinity
- If the sample is small discriminant analysis is more accurate



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# Discriminant analysis

- $P(Y = k)$
- $P(X = x | Y = y)$ : assume that they follow the Gaussian distribution with the same variance in each class (Linear Discriminant Analysis)
- $P(Y = k | X = x)$

X	Y
3	1
5	0
4	0
7	1
3	1
...	...
...	...
8	0
9	1
4	0
8	?



# Discriminant analysis

- Model the distribution of  $X$  and use the Bayes theorem to obtain  $P(Y|X)$ :

$$P(Y = k | X = x) = \frac{P(X = x | Y = k)P(Y = k)}{P(X = x)} = \frac{\pi_k f_k(x)}{\sum_{i \leq k} \pi_i f_i(x)}$$

- Assign  $x$  to the class with maximum  $P(Y|X)$
- We do not need the denominator
- Particularly accurate when the classes are normal

# Discriminant analysis

- Model the distribution of  $X$  and use the Bayes theorem to obtain  $P(Y|X)$ : **density**

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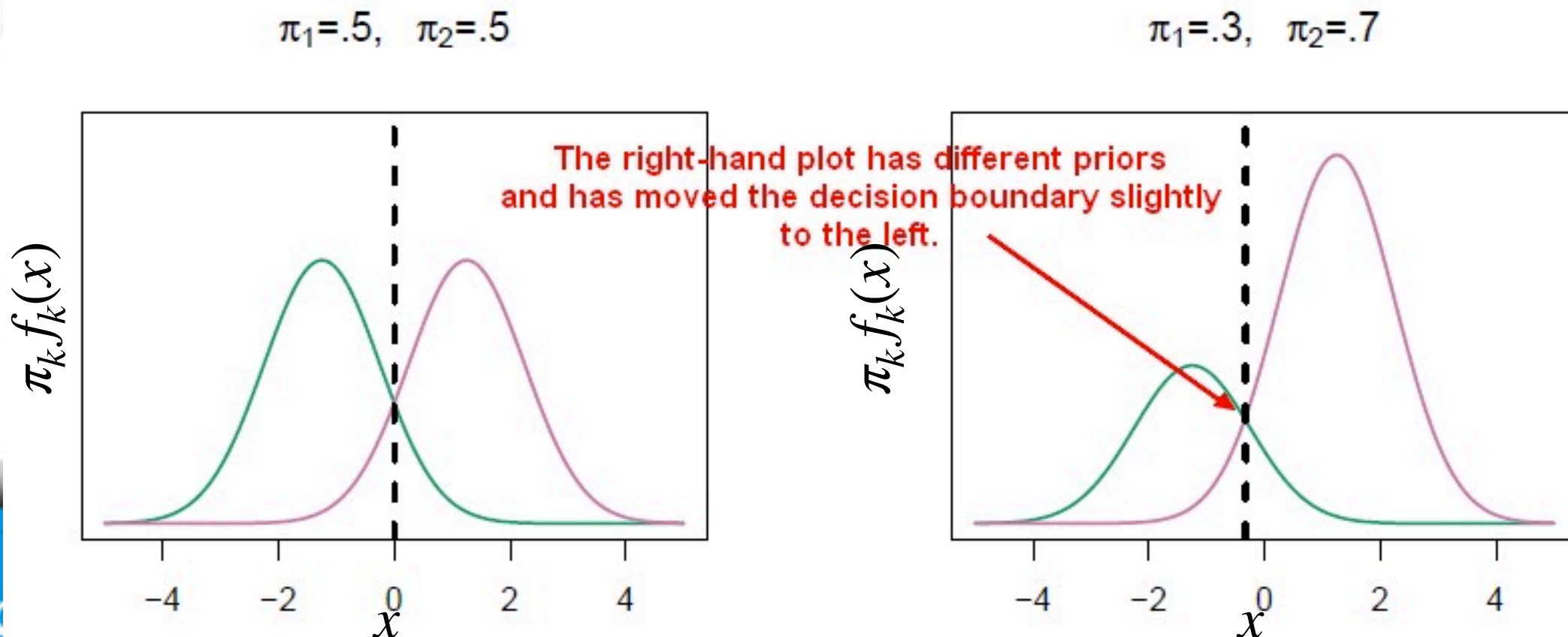
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# Linear Discriminant analysis

- If we assume that  $f$  is Gaussian, the Bayes classifier assign an observation to the class with maximum discriminant function value

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

- Linear function of  $x$
- Learning from data implies estimating the means and the variances

# Quadratic discriminant analysis

- $$P(Y = k | X = x) = \frac{P(X = x | Y = k)P(Y = k)}{P(X = x)} = \frac{\pi_k f_k(x)}{\sum_{i \leq k} \pi_i f_i(x)}$$
- assume that the density follows a Gaussian distribution with **different** variance in each class
- Discriminant function  $\delta_k(x)$  is quadratic on  $x$



# Quadratic discriminant analysis

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# Naive Bayes

- In each class the density factors into a product of

$$\text{densities, } f_k(x) = \prod_{j=1}^p f_{jk} x(j)$$

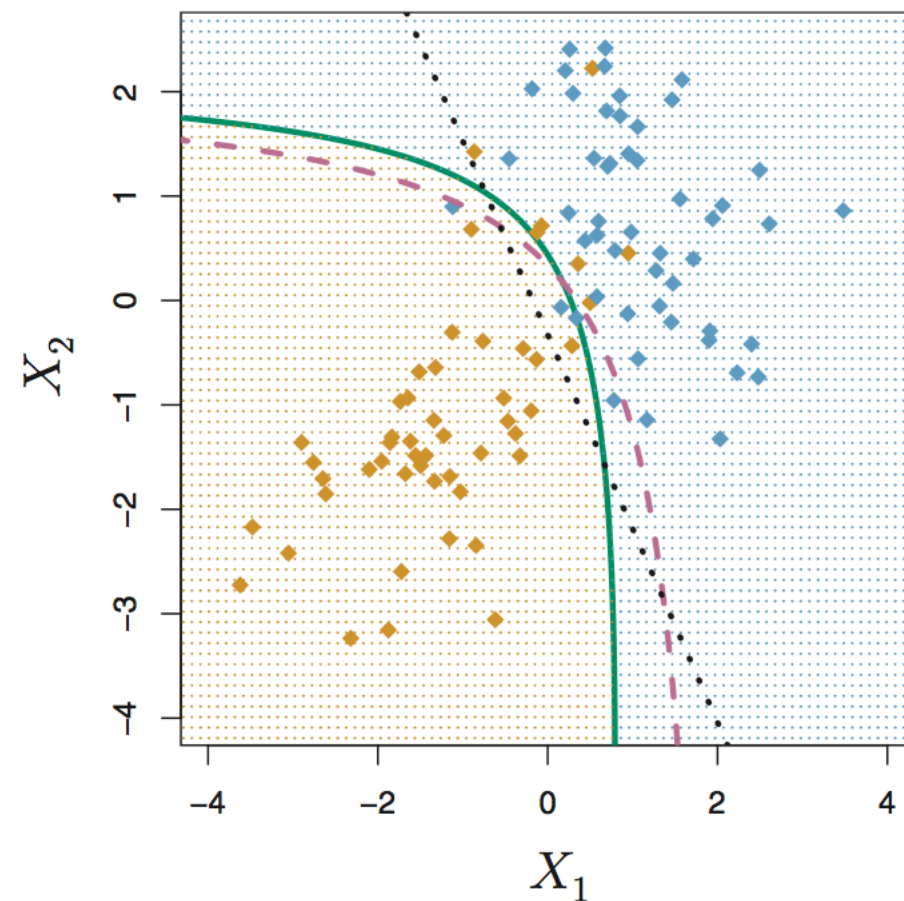
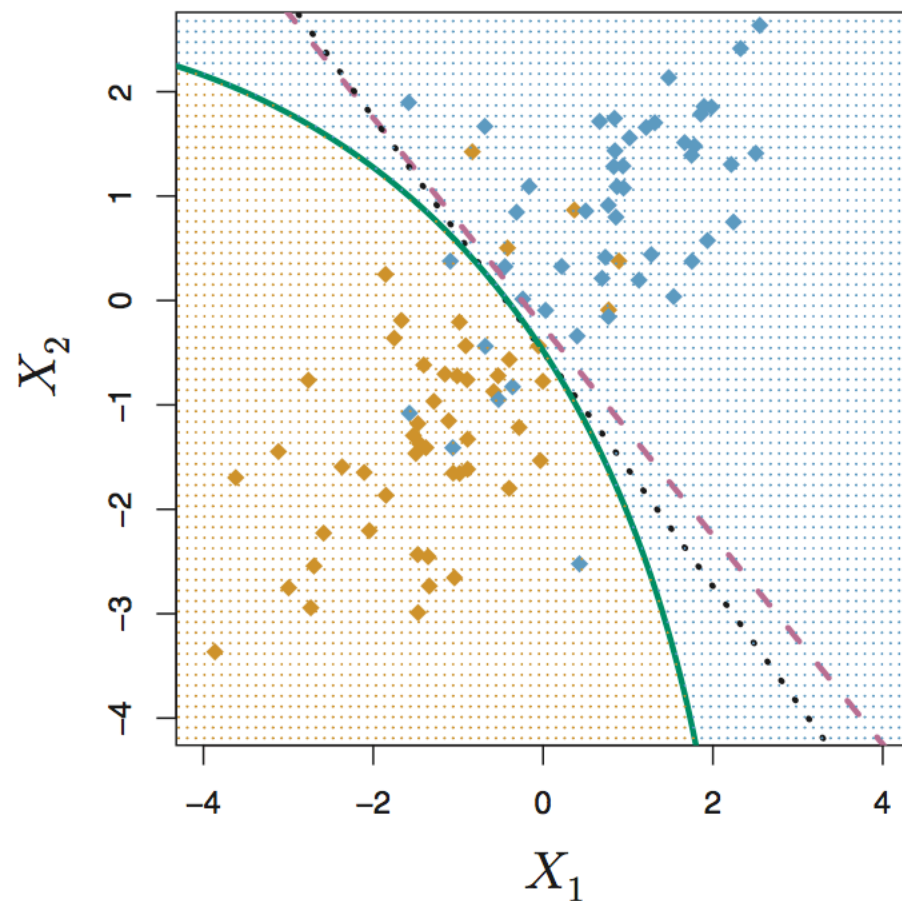
- The assumptions are strong (conditionally independence in each of the classes) but for classification we are interested in finding the class for which the probability

$$P(Y = k | X = x) = \frac{P(X = x | Y = k)P(Y = k)}{P(X = x)} \text{ is}$$

maximized



# LDA QDA



- Bayes, LDA and QDA decision boundaries

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# Separating hyperplanes

- Find decision boundaries that separate the data in different classes
- Two dimensional feature space in the example





# Hyperplane

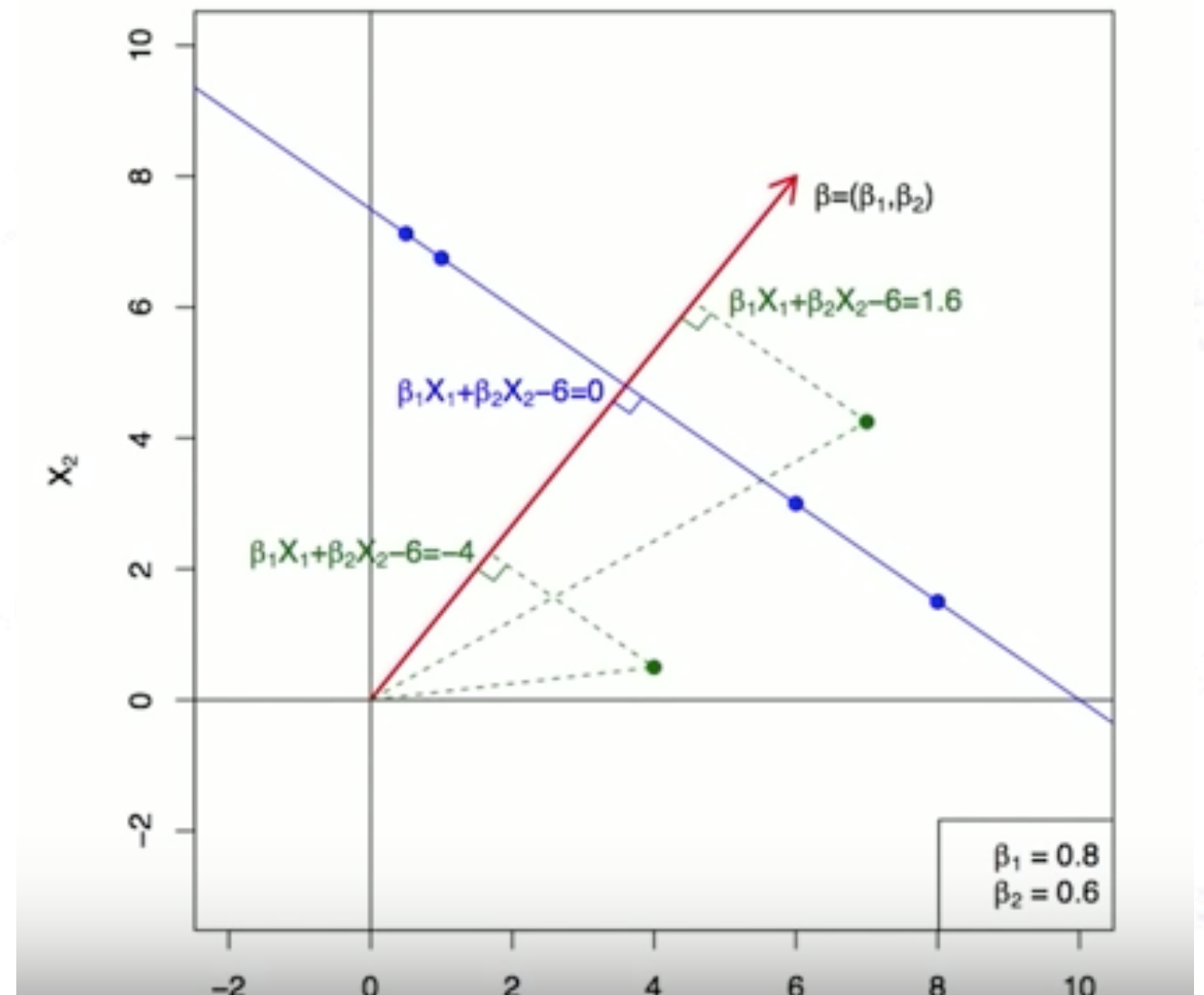
- A flat affine subspace of dimension  $n-1$
- In a two dimensional space, a hyperplane is a line
- It has the form

$$\beta_0 + X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + \dots + X_n\beta_n = 0$$

- The vector  $(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n)$  is called a normal vector and goes from the origin in a direction orthogonal to the surface of the hyperplane

# Hyperplane

- Hyperplane,  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$
- Normal,  $\beta_1, \beta_2$ 
  - $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 = 1$
- Projections onto the normal and the distance to the hyperplane
- Can be positive, zero or negative





# Hyperplane

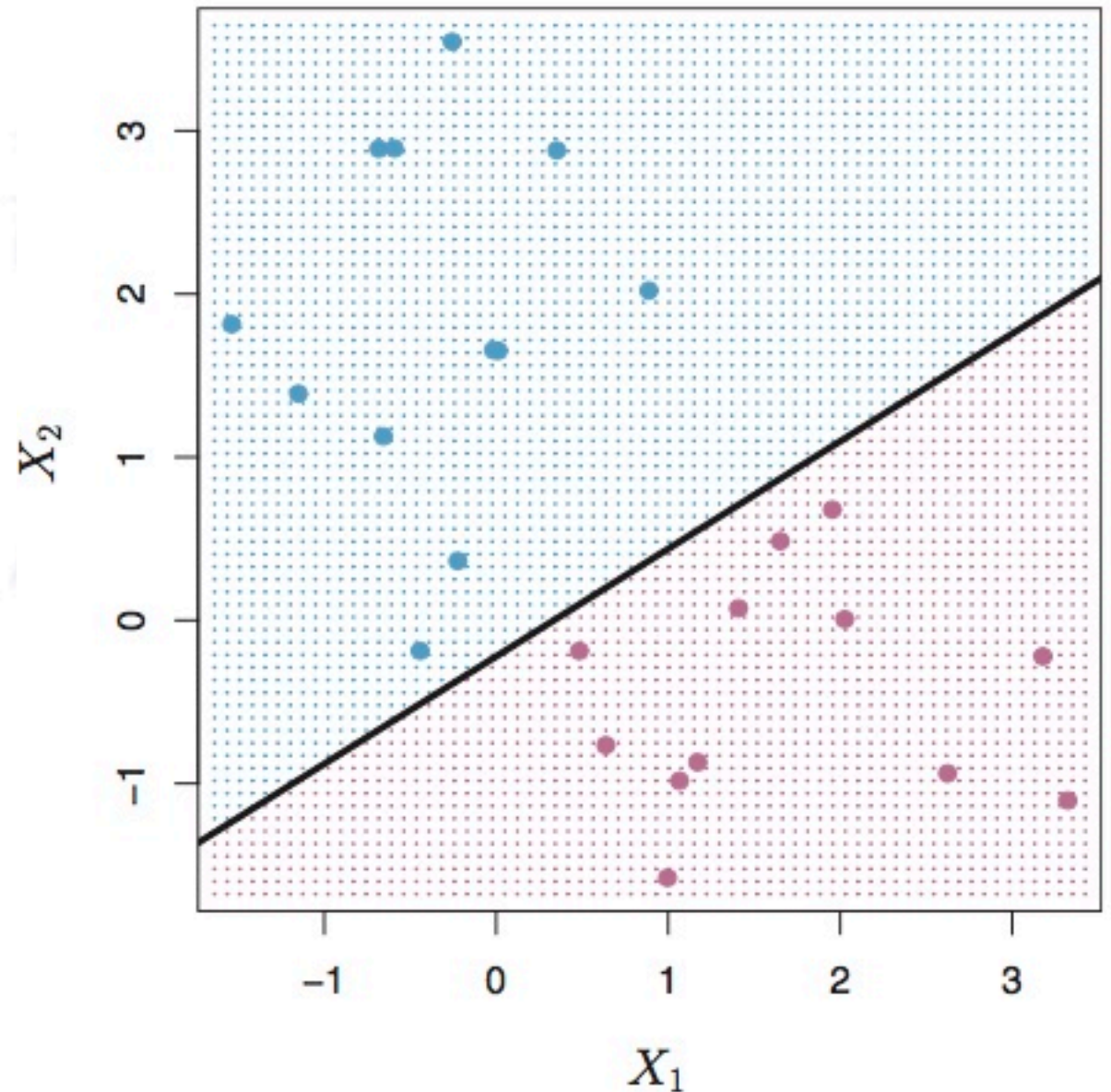
- For every blue point  $i$

$$\beta_0 + \sum_j X_{ij} \beta_{ij} > 0$$

- For every purple point  $i$

$$\beta_0 + \sum_j X_{ij} \beta_{ij} < 0$$

- Predictions are very easy
- Data has to be normalised





# Hyperplane

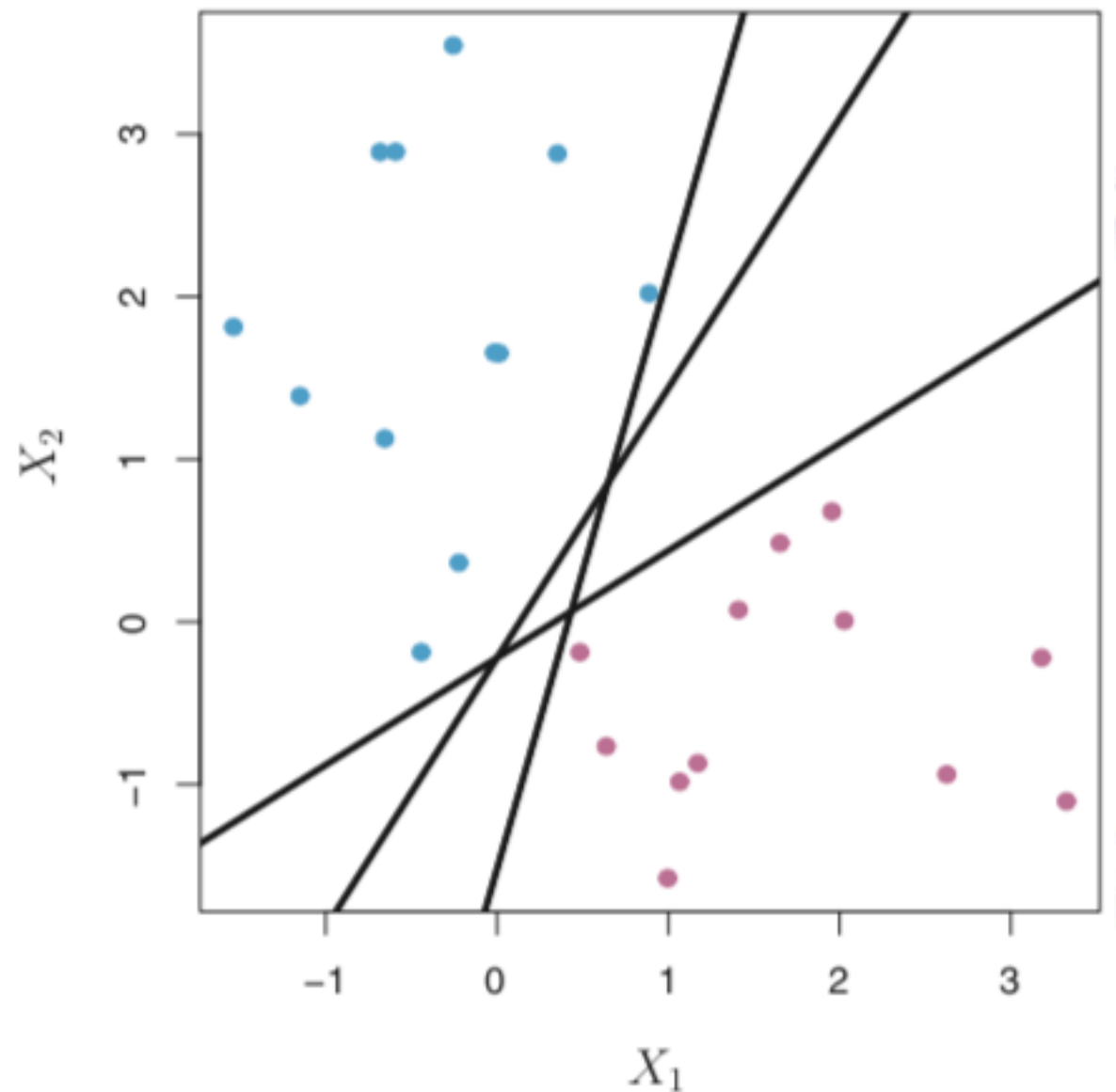
- Assume that the class value of instance  $i$  is  $y_i = \{-1, +1\}$
- Then for every separating hyperplane it holds that for every sample  $i$

$$y_i * (\beta_0 + \sum_j X_{ij} \beta_{ij}) > 0$$

- This is the key to the learning algorithm

# Max margin classifier

- Which separating Hyperplane do we choose?
- In order to reduce the variance we will prefer the hyperplane that is farther from the observations



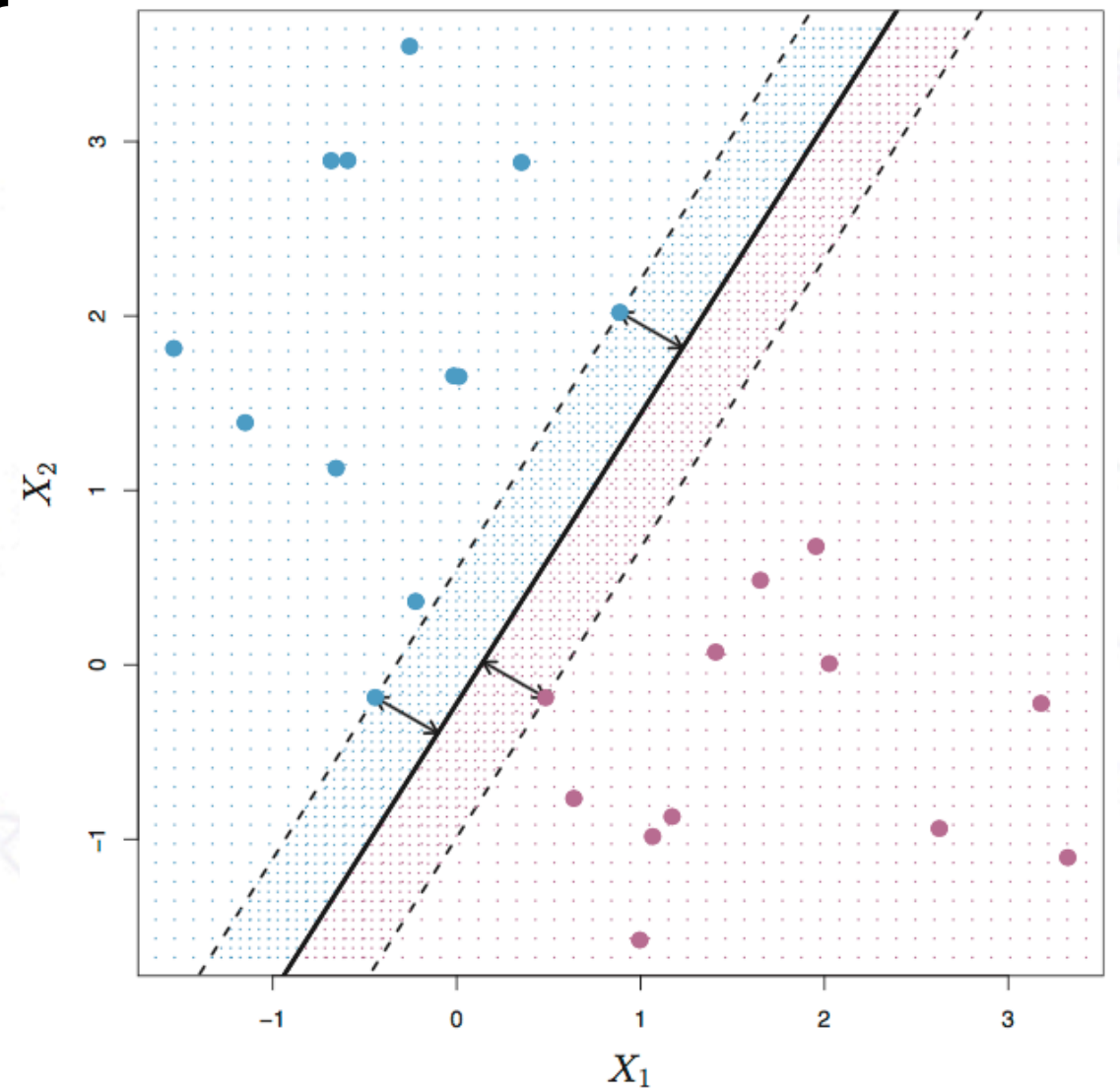
# Max margin classifier

- The maximal margin classifier can be estimated as an optimisation problem

$$\arg \max_{\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n} M$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^2 = 1,$$

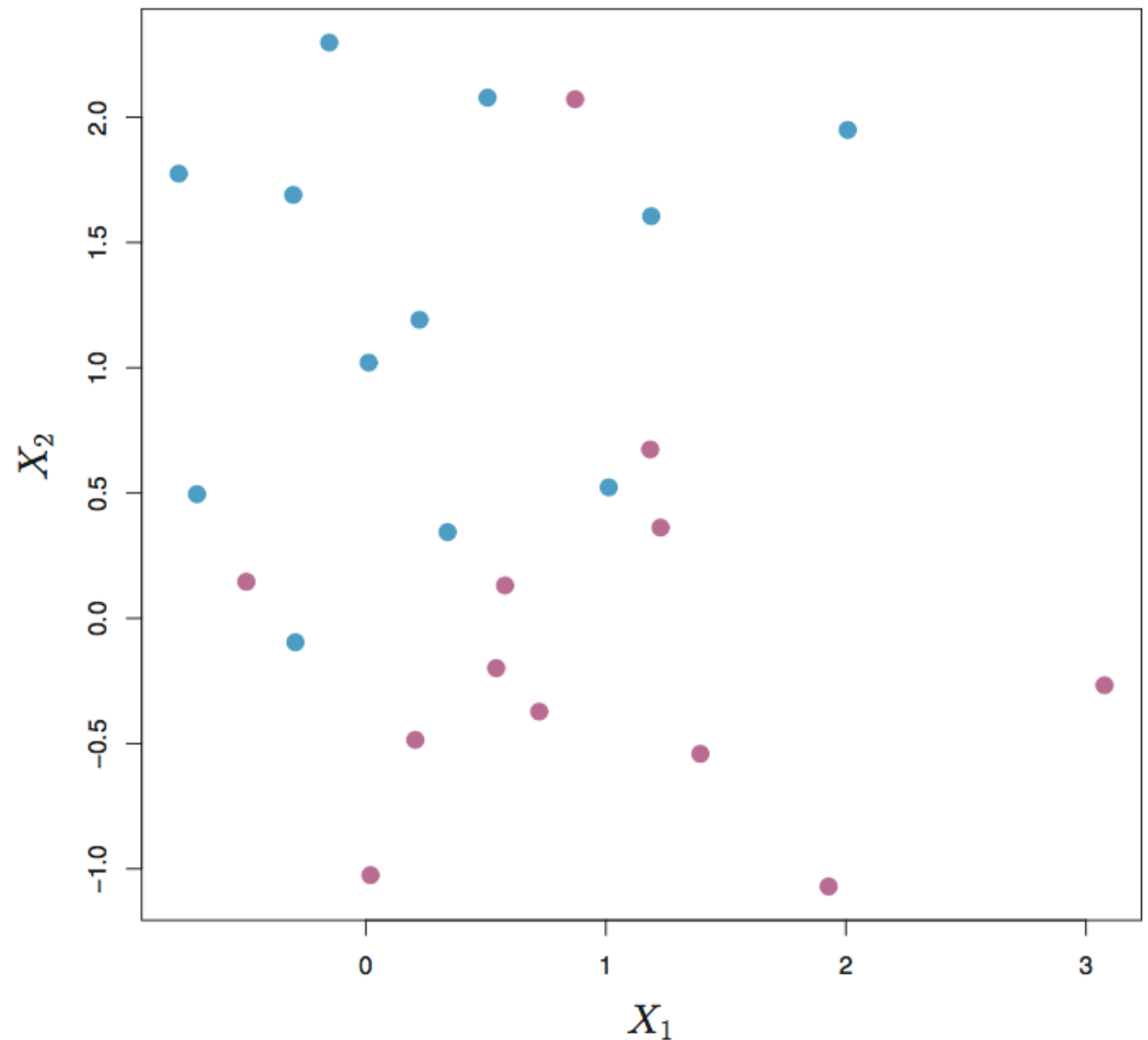
$$y_i * (\beta_0 + \sum_j X_{ij} \beta_{ij}) \geq M$$





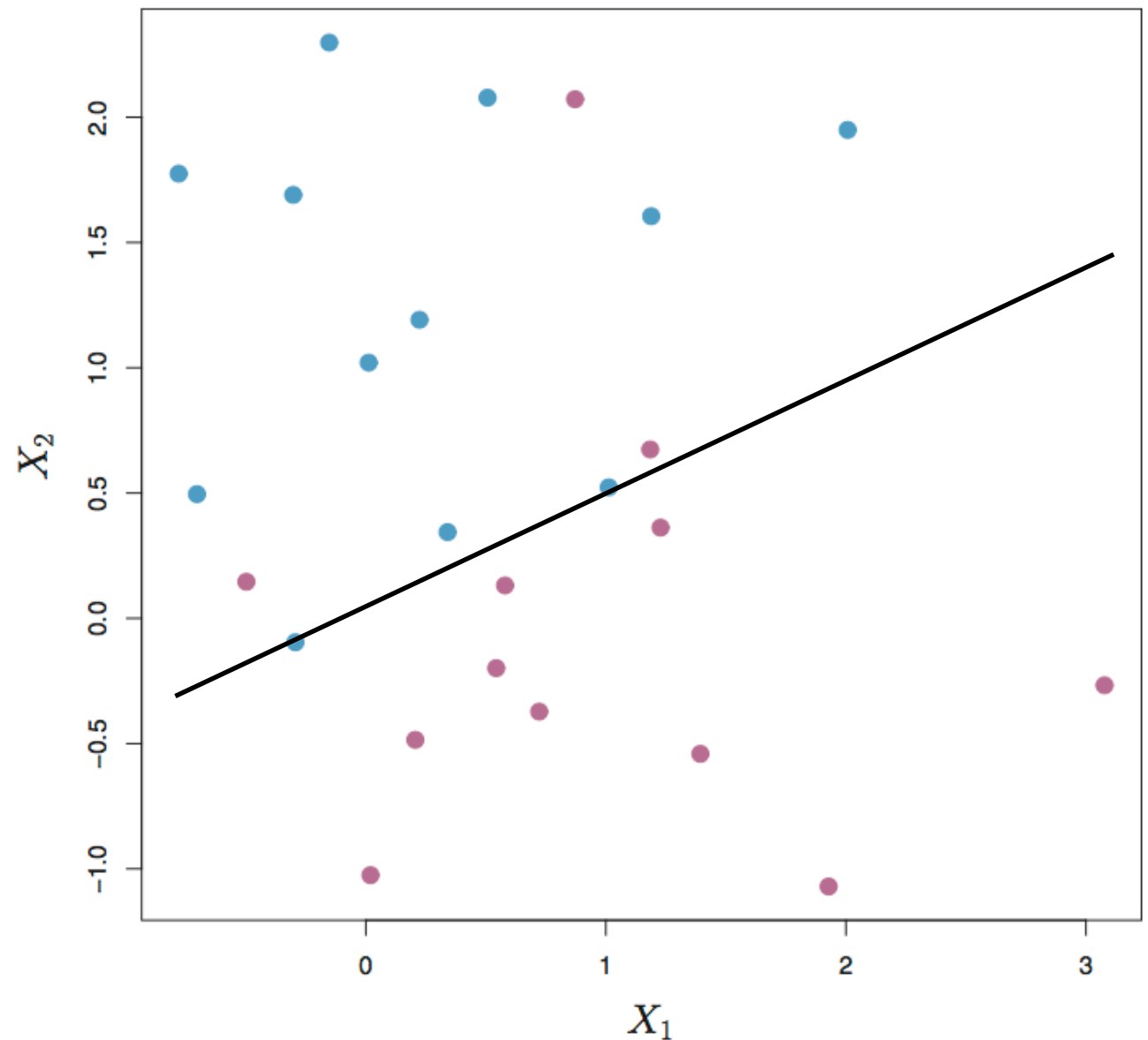
# The non-separable case

- In most cases the data is not separable. In this case we can try to look for the hyperplane that almost separates the classes, the *support vector classifier*



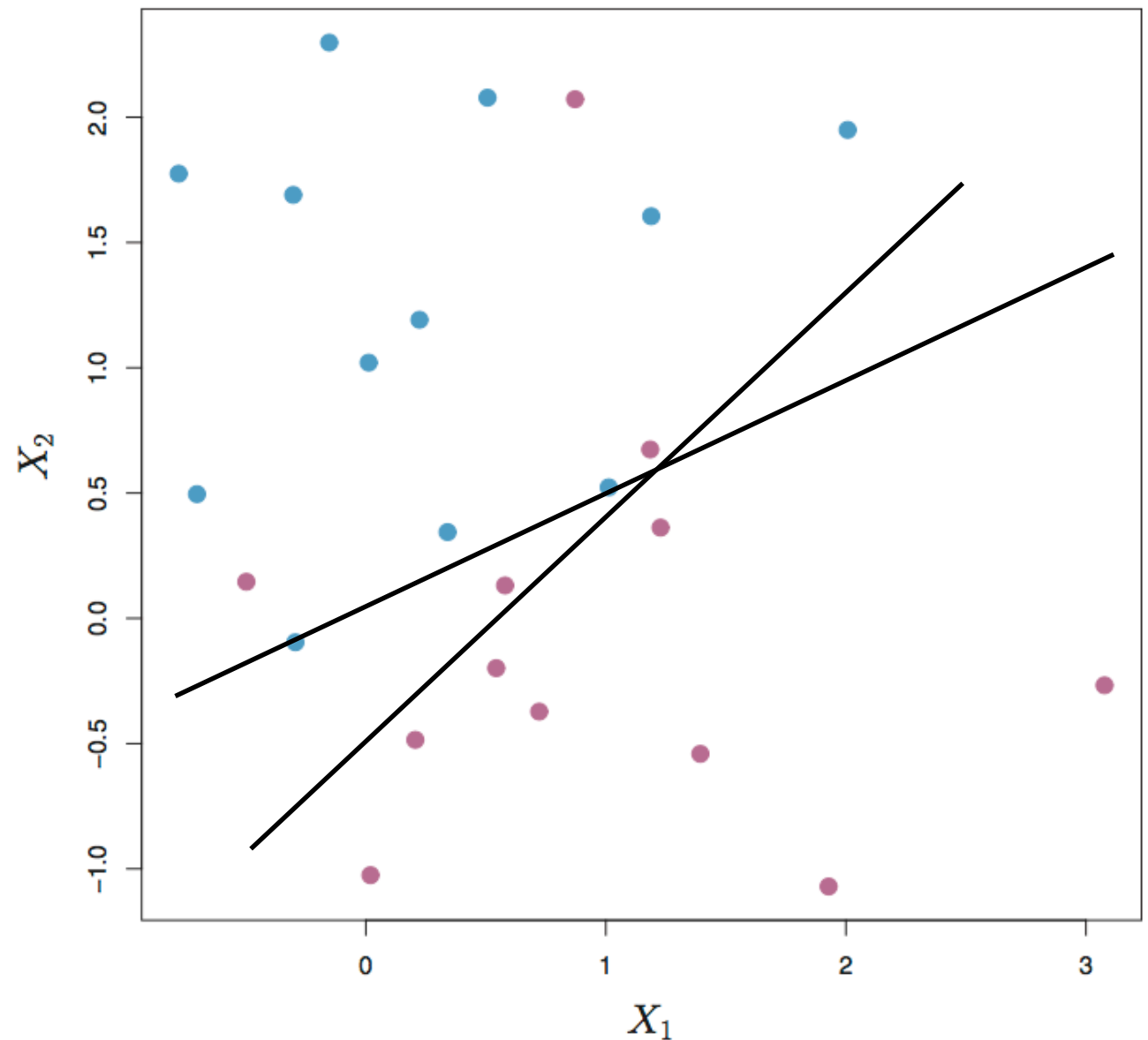
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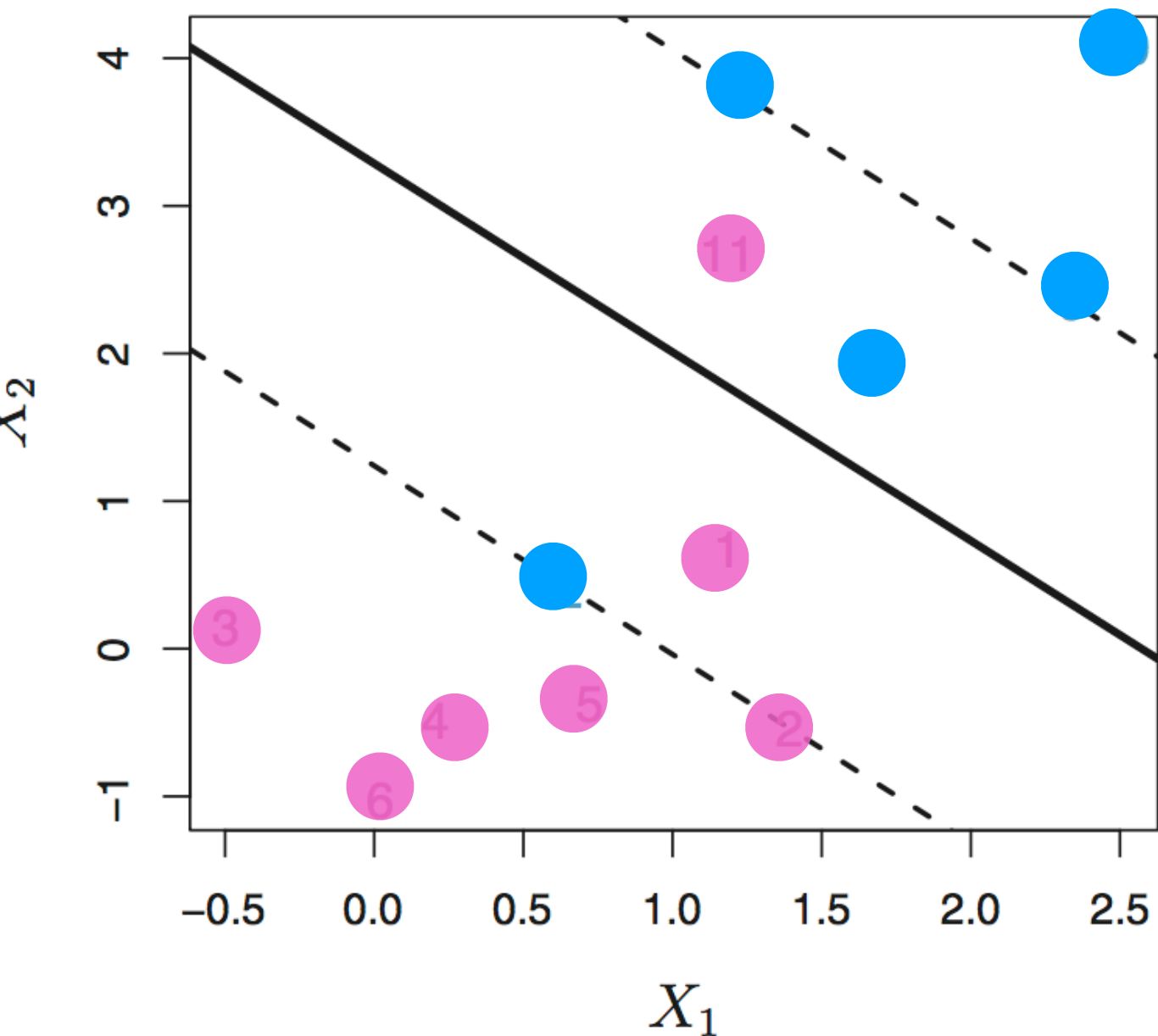
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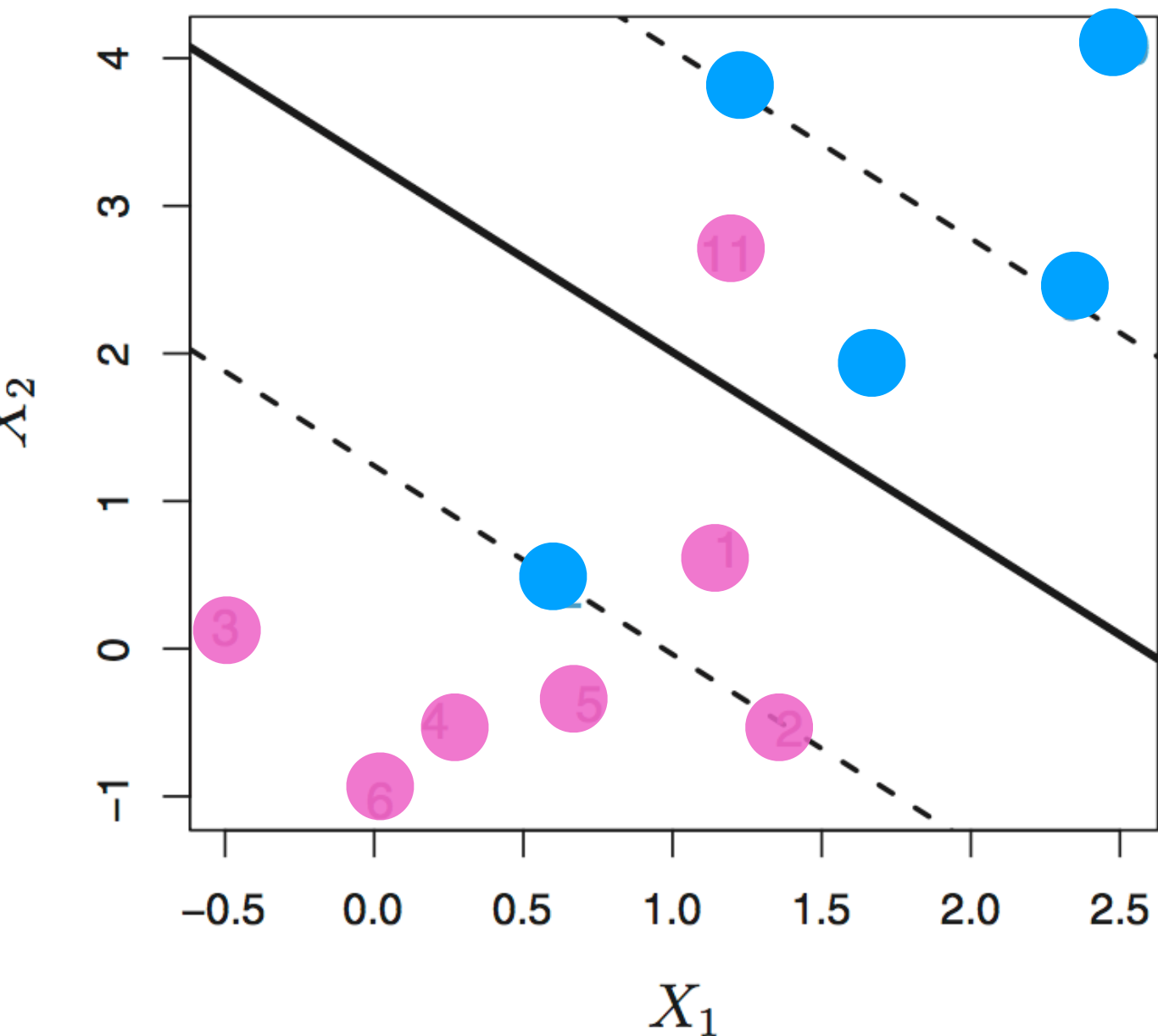




# Support vector classifier



# Support vector classifier



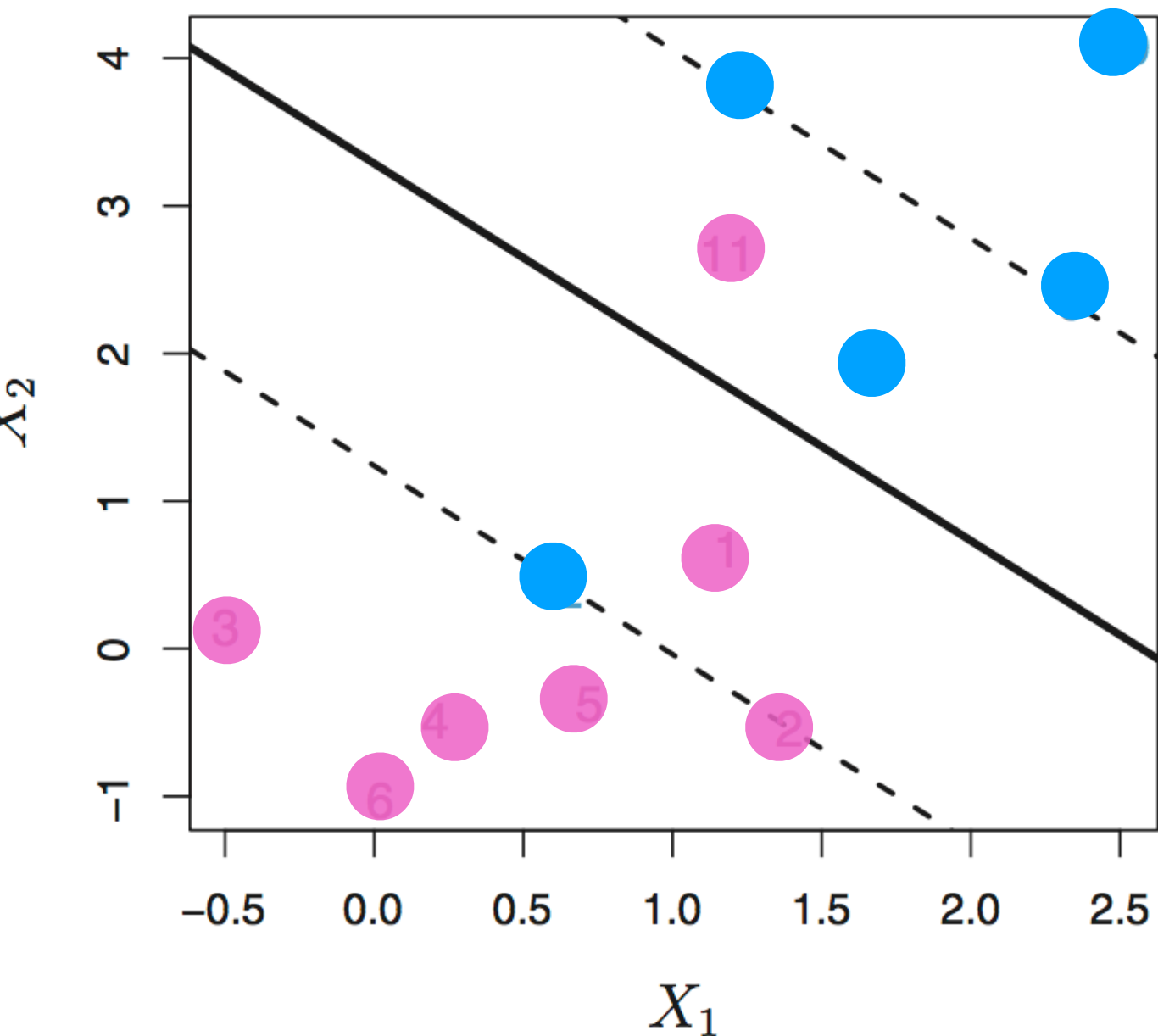
$$\arg \max_{\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n, \epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n} M$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^2 = 1,$$

$$y_i * (\beta_0 + \sum_j X_{ij} \beta_{ij}) \geq M(1 - \epsilon_i),$$

$$\epsilon_i \geq 0, \sum_i \epsilon_i \leq C$$

# Support vector classifier



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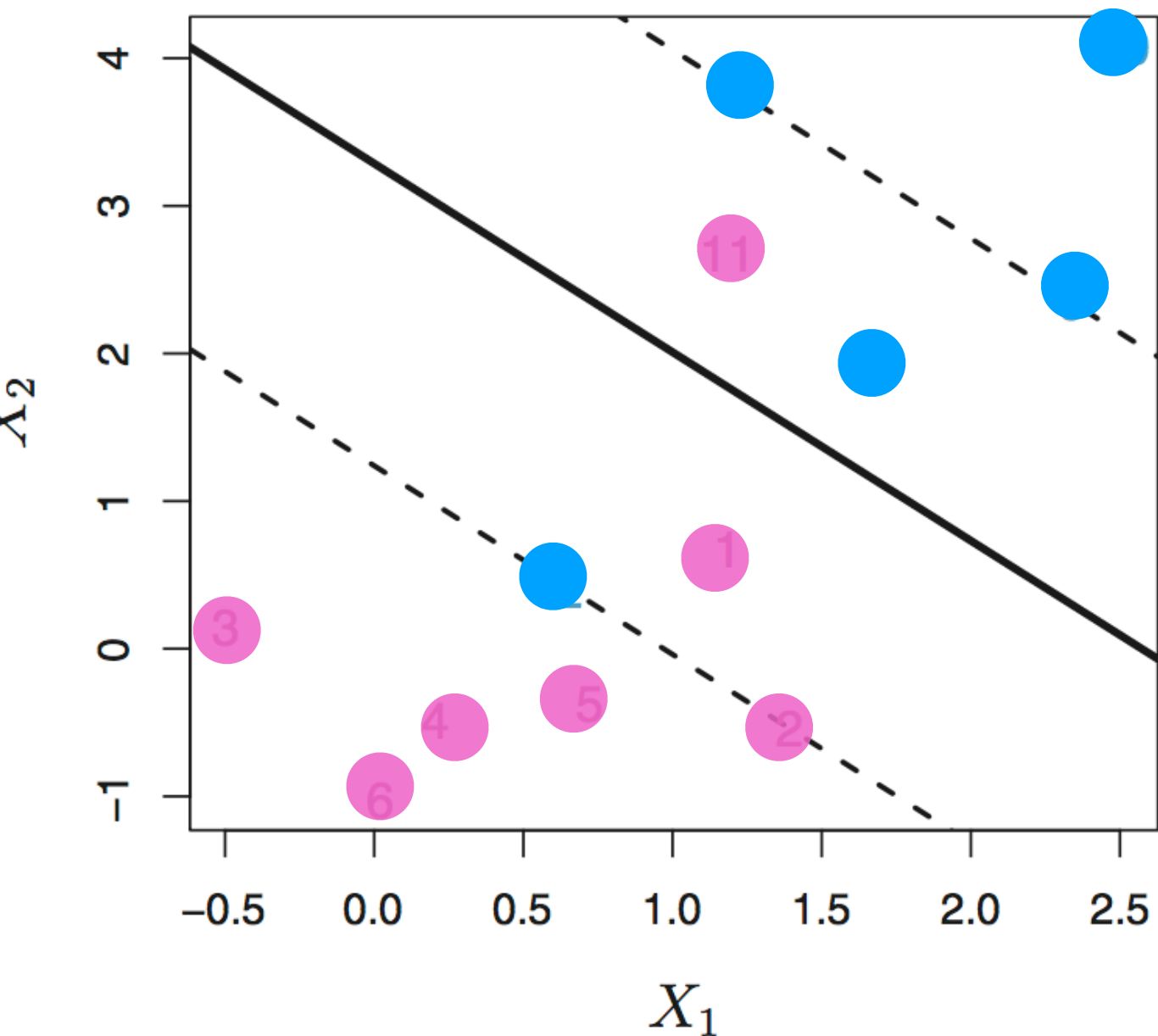
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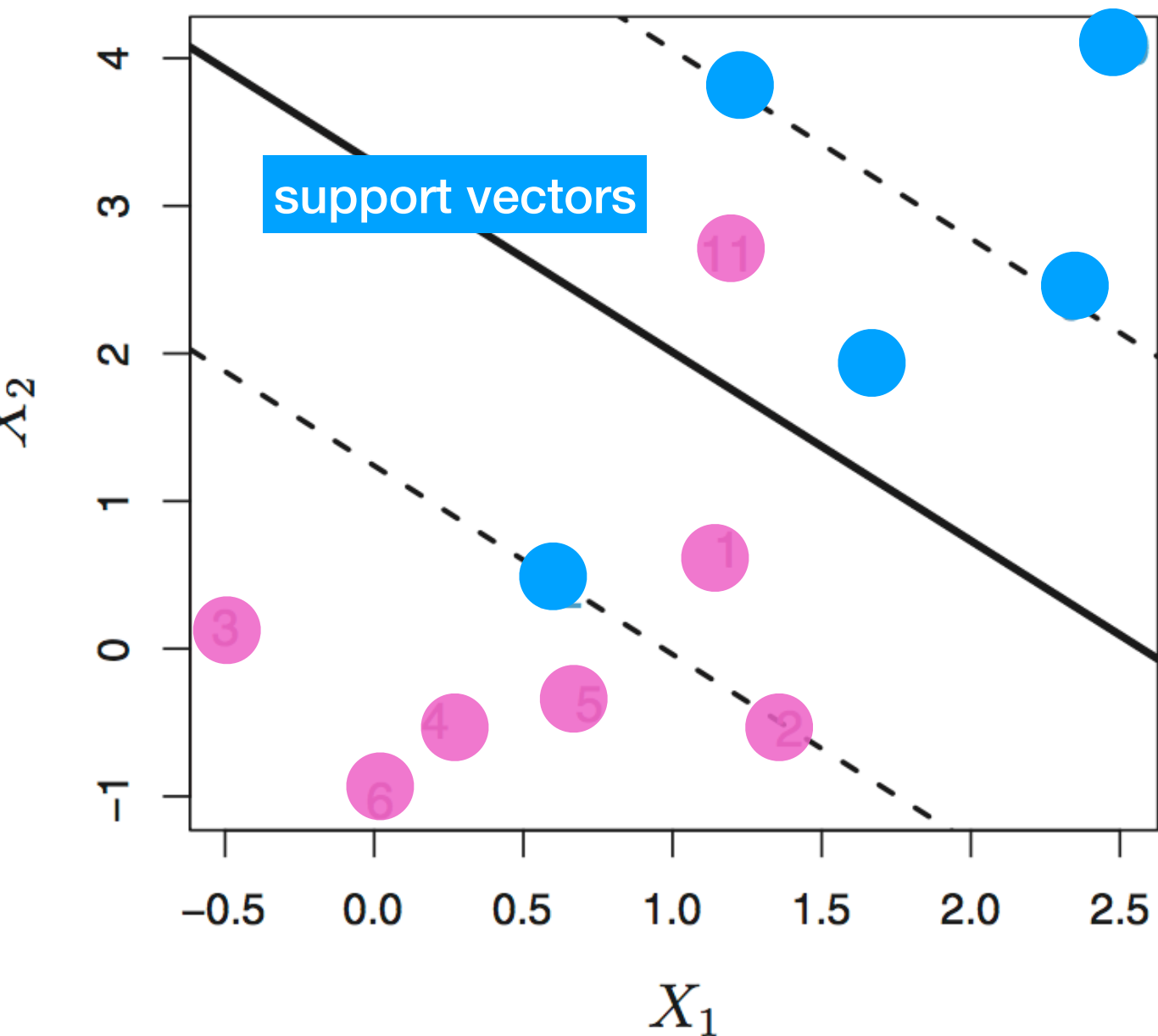
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**control overfitting**

# Support vector classifier



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**control overfitting**

# SVC non linearities

- We can address non-linearities by enlarging the feature space as follows

$$X_1^2, X_1^3, X_1 X_2, X_1 X_2^2, \dots$$

- Then we can fit

$$\beta_0 + X_1^2 \beta_1 + X_1^3 \beta_2 + X_1 X_2 \beta_3 + X_1 X_2^2 \beta_4 \dots$$





# SVM

- The SVC classifies a test instance to the side of the hyperplane it lies on. When  $K$  is the inner product it can also be expressed as

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum \alpha_i K(x, x_i)$$

- To estimate it we just need the pairwise distance among observations. It happens that  $\alpha_i$  is going to be non-zero just for the support vectors
- The support vector machine is an extension of the support vector classifier using kernels.

# SVM kernels

- Kernels quantify the similarities between two observations

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \sum_j x_{ij} x_{kj}$$

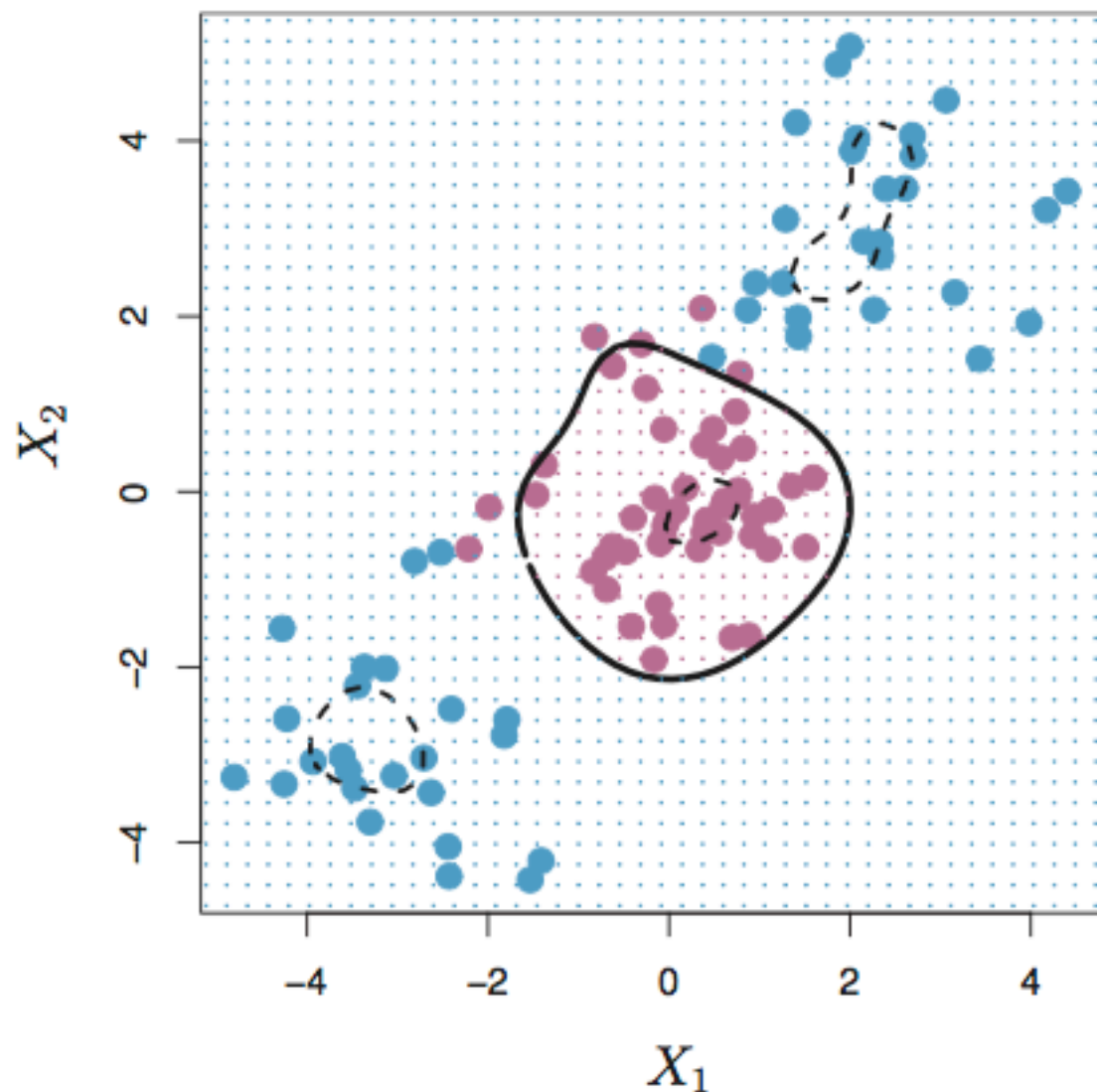
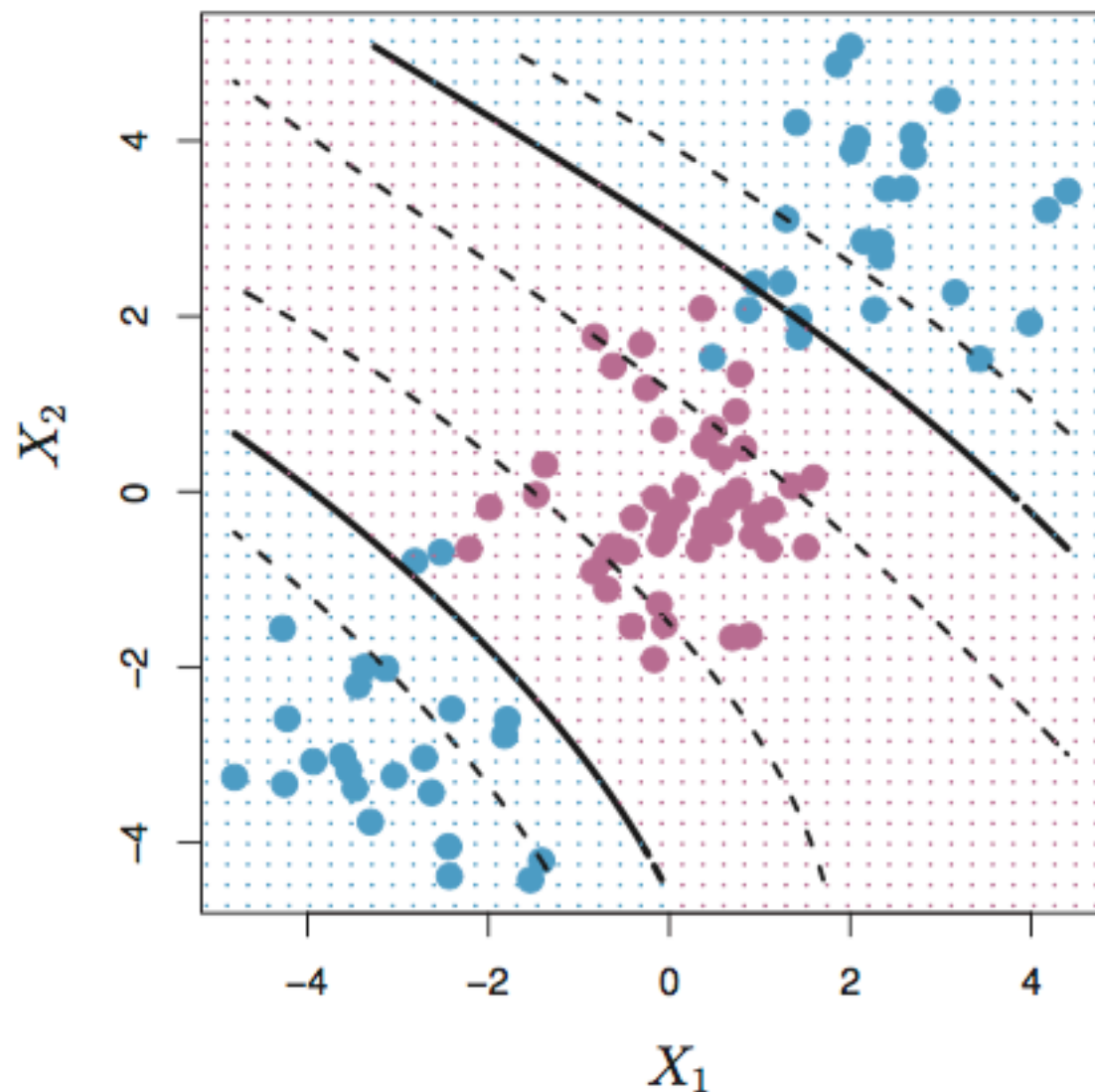
- Polynomial

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \left(1 + \sum_j x_{ij} x_{kj}\right)^d$$

- Radial Kernel

$$K(x_i, x_k) = \exp\left(-\lambda + \sum_j (x_{ij} x_{kj})^2\right)$$

# SVM kernels



- Polynomial kernel of degree 3

Radial kernel