

Classification

December 18, 2017

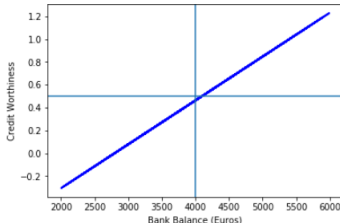
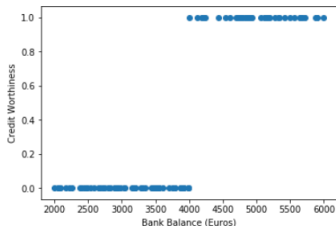
Classification

- ▶ Linear regression: the response variable y is quantitative.
- ▶ Classification: y is qualitative (takes on a number of discrete values).
- ▶ Classification problems seem to occur more often than regression problems:
 - ▶ spam classifiers (spam or ham)
 - ▶ classifying whether a bank transaction is fraudulent or not
 - ▶ given a set of symptoms, determining which medical condition a person has
 - ▶ classifying whether a video is suitable or unsuitable for children
 - ▶ MNIST: given a handwritten digit, determine which digit it actually is

Why not Linear Regression?

Example 1

Consider the following (simplified) problem: given the bank balance x of an individual, determine whether they are credit worthy or not.

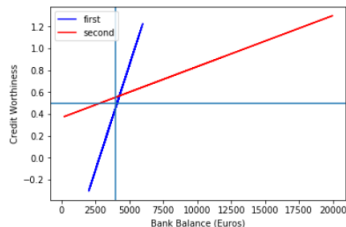
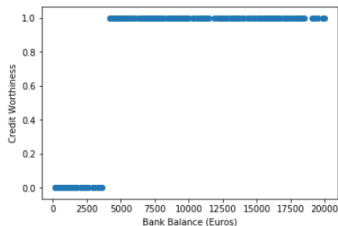


- ▶ Turns out that anyone with a balance of €4000 or more is credit worthy
- ▶ Classification: if $y(x) \geq 0.5$, then “credit worthy”; else “not”
- ▶ Slope of the regression line depends on the how many data points are in each of the two buckets

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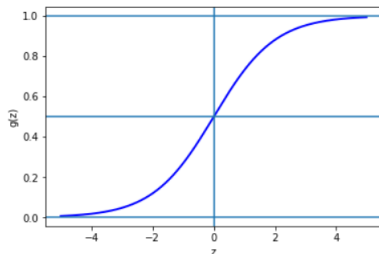
- ▶ With more data points in the “positive” bucket, the slope of the regression line is less steep.
- ▶ The threshold predicted also changes.



Binary Classification: Logistic Regression

- ▶ Two classes: 0 and 1
- ▶ Logistic regression models the probability that the response variable y belongs to a particular class: $P(y = 1 \mid x)$
- ▶ $P(y = 1 \mid x; \theta) = g(\theta^\top x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^\top x}}$
- ▶ $g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$ is the sigmoid function

The Sigmoid Function



- ▶ $g(z) \rightarrow 1$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$
- ▶ $g(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $z \rightarrow -\infty$
- ▶ $g'(z) = g(z)(1 - g(z))$

Logistic Regression: Learning the Model Parameters

In logistic regression, the probabilities are modeled as follows:

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The Likelihood Function

Assume that the m training examples $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$ were generated *independently*.

$$\begin{aligned} L(\theta; \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m) &= \prod_{i=1}^m P(y^{(i)} \mid x^{(i)}; \theta) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^m \left(g(\theta^\top x^{(i)}) \right)^{y^{(i)}} \cdot \left(1 - g(\theta^\top x^{(i)}) \right)^{(1-y^{(i)})} \end{aligned}$$

Maximizing the Likelihood ...

... is equivalent to maximizing the log-likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned}l(\theta) &= \log L(\theta) \\&= \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \log g(\theta^\top x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - g(\theta^\top x^{(i)}))\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Use gradient ascent to maximize $l(\theta)$
- ▶ $\theta_{\text{new}} := \theta_{\text{old}} + \alpha \nabla_{\theta} l(\theta)$
- ▶ $\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha \cdot \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - g(\theta^\top x^{(i)})) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$
- ▶ Stochastic gradient ascent: $\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha \cdot (y^{(i)} - g(\theta^\top x^{(i)})) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$

Classifying New Data Points

- ▶ Once θ has been estimated (using maximum likelihood, for instance), given x , $P(y = 1 \mid x) = g(\theta^\top \cdot x)$
- ▶ We could for instance classify x as belonging to class 1 iff $g(\theta^\top x) \geq 0.5$

Evaluating the Performance of a Classifier

Harder than evaluating a linear regressor.

- ▶ Consider unbalanced data sets: let's say that 90% of customers in an online store are one-time customers.
- ▶ Want to determine whether a customer is a one-time customer.
- ▶ A “dumb” classifier that declares every customer as “bad” has 90% accuracy.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

In batch gradient descent, the update step for the j th component is:

$$\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha \cdot \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=0}^n x_j^{(i)} \theta_j \right) \cdot x_j^{(i)}.$$

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- ▶ Costly operation if m is large

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- ▶ Has to scan through the entire training set for a *single* update
- ▶ Costly operation if m is large
- ▶ **Stochastic Gradient Descent:** for every training instance (x, y) , $x = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)^\top$, update the parameters:

$$\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha \cdot \left(y - \sum_{j=0}^n x_j \theta_j \right) \cdot x_j.$$

Stochastic Gradient Descent: Features and Issues

- ▶ Doesn't have to look at the entire training set to make progress.
- ▶ Often gets close to the optimum much faster than batch gradient descent.
- ▶ May never converge to the optimum (can keep on oscillating between values near the optimum). This problem is alleviated by choosing α to be very small.

Analytic Solution

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=0}^n x_j^{(i)} \theta_j \right)^2$$

Want to find in closed-form a value of θ that minimizes $J(\theta)$

- ▶ Write $J(\theta)$ in matrix-vector form.

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- ▶ **Design matrix.** An $m \times (n + 1)$ matrix X defined by:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} - & (x^{(1)})^\top & - \\ - & (x^{(2)})^\top & - \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ - & (x^{(m)})^\top & - \end{bmatrix}$$

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- ▶ $y = (y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(m)})^\top$

$$y - X \cdot \theta = \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} (x^{(1)})^\top \cdot \theta \\ (x^{(2)})^\top \cdot \theta \\ \vdots \\ (x^{(m)})^\top \cdot \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-form of $J(\theta)$:

$$\begin{aligned} J(\theta) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=0}^n x_j^{(i)} \theta_j \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (y - X\theta)^\top (y - X\theta) \end{aligned}$$

Analytic Solution ...

Minimize $J(\theta)$ w.r.t θ :

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) &= \nabla_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} (y - X\theta)^{\top} (y - X\theta) \\ &= \text{see Andrew Ng's notes} \\ &= X^{\top} X \theta - X^{\top} y\end{aligned}$$

yielding:

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- ▶ If X does not have full column rank, the usual strategy is to remove redundant columns.

Probabilistic Interpretation

Assumptions

$$y^{(i)} = \theta^T \cdot x^{(i)} + \epsilon^{(i)},$$

where the error terms $\epsilon^{(i)}$

- ▶ capture unmodeled effects and/or random noise
- ▶ are independent and identically distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2)$

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Thus $y^{(i)} \mid x^{(i)} \sim N(\theta^\top x^{(i)}, \sigma^2)$:

$$p(y^{(i)} \mid x^{(i)}; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y^{(i)} - \theta^\top \cdot x^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

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- ▶ **Principle of Maximum Likelihood.** Choose the parameters to make the data as likely as possible. Choose θ to maximize $L(\theta)$.

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Summary

Under the previous probabilistic assumptions: **least-squares regression** corresponds to finding the **maximum likelihood estimate** of θ .

The Goodness of Fit

- ▶ Residual Standard Error: standard deviation of the error terms $\epsilon^{(i)}$.

$$\text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - \hat{y}^{(i)})^2}$$

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- ▶ R^2 Statistic:

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- ▶ Total sum of squares = $\sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - \bar{y})^2$: variability inherent in the response
- ▶ Residual sum of squares = $\sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - \hat{y}^{(i)})^2$: variability left unexplained after performing the regression