

Classification: Part I

Statistical Analysis and Document Mining

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Outline

1 Classification: First Sight

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 k Nearest Neighbours Algorithm

2 Probabilistic Classification

- 2.1 Problem Statement
- 2.2 Bayes Classifier
- 2.3 Linear Discriminant Analysis

Introduction

- During first weeks of the course, you studied the regression task, where the target variable is continuous, which represents usually in practice some measurement.

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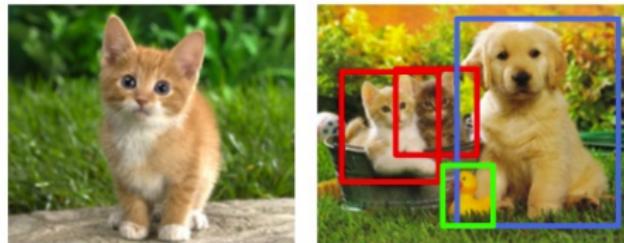
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- However, in many applications, the target variable is discrete and indicates to which sub-category an observation belongs.

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- However, in many applications, the target variable is discrete and indicates to which sub-category an observation belongs.
- For example:
In pattern recognition, a task can be to recognize a handwritten digit;

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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- However, in many applications, the target variable is discrete and indicates to which sub-category an observation belongs.
- For example:
In visual tracking, it is important to recognize who (e.g. what animal) is on the image;

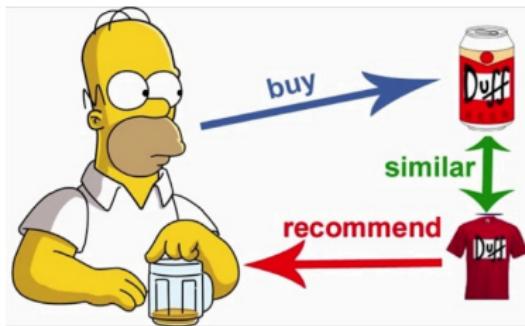


CAT

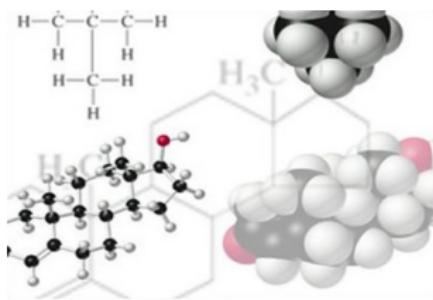
CAT, DOG, DUCK

Introduction

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- However, in many applications, the target variable is discrete and indicates to which sub-category an observation belongs.
- For example:
Some recommender systems are aimed to predict which product we recommend to a given customer;



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- However, in many applications, the target variable is discrete and indicates to which sub-category an observation belongs.
- For example:
In bioinformatics, one of the tasks is to predict a gene type given a DNA sequence.



Classical Data Set: Iris Flower (1936)



(a) Iris Setosa



(b) Iris Versicolor



(c) Iris Virginica

Figure: The data set consists of 50 samples from each of 3 species of Iris. From each sample the length and the width of the sepals and petals were measured. Based on this, the goal is to build a model that distinguishes the species from each other.¹

¹https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iris_flower_data_set

Classification: Simple Formulation

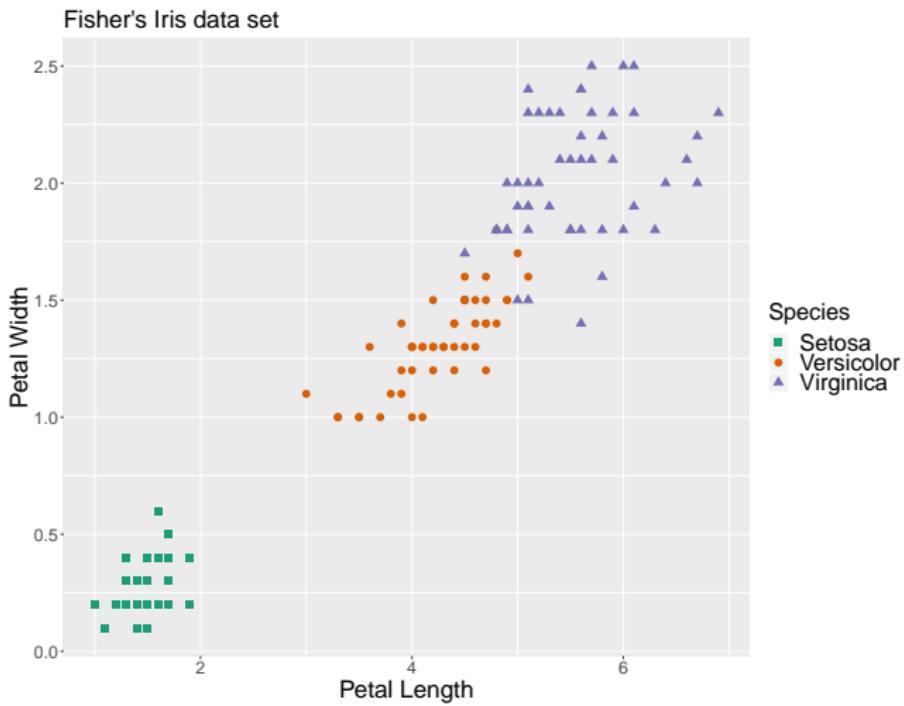
- Training set $\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$: collected samples with class labels;
- A new data point \mathbf{x} without any label;
- Build a classifier $h(\mathbf{x})$ that predicts y as accurately as possible:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{matrix} \text{Sepal.L} & \text{Sepal.W} & \text{Petal.L} & \text{Petal.W} \\ (6.2, & 2.8, & 5.6, & 2.4) \end{matrix} \xrightarrow{?} y = \text{"Virginica"}$$

How to do that?

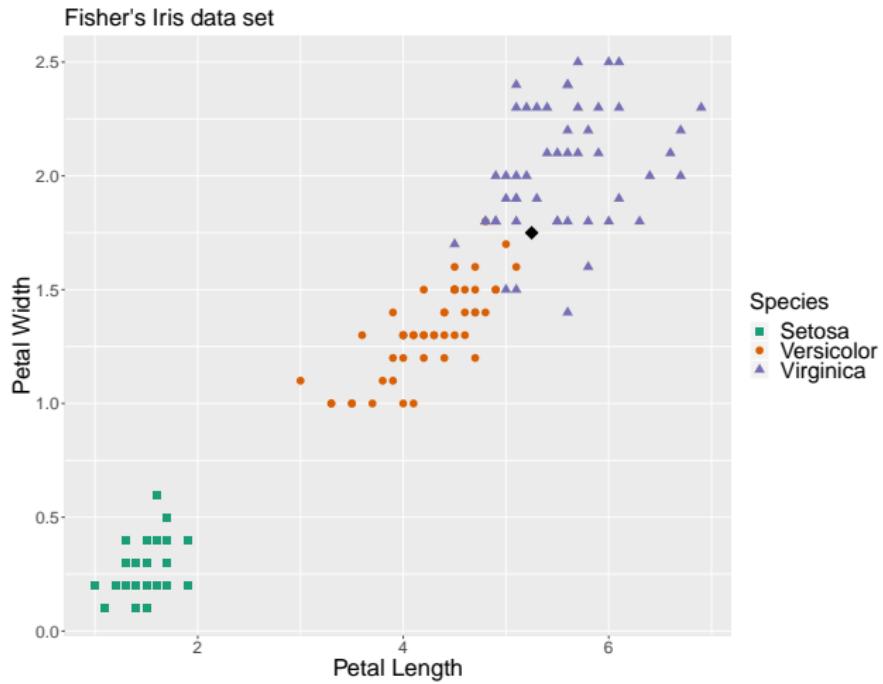
Iris Classification

Let's try to predict the type of iris' species based on Petal Length and Petal Width. Below is the plot of our training data.



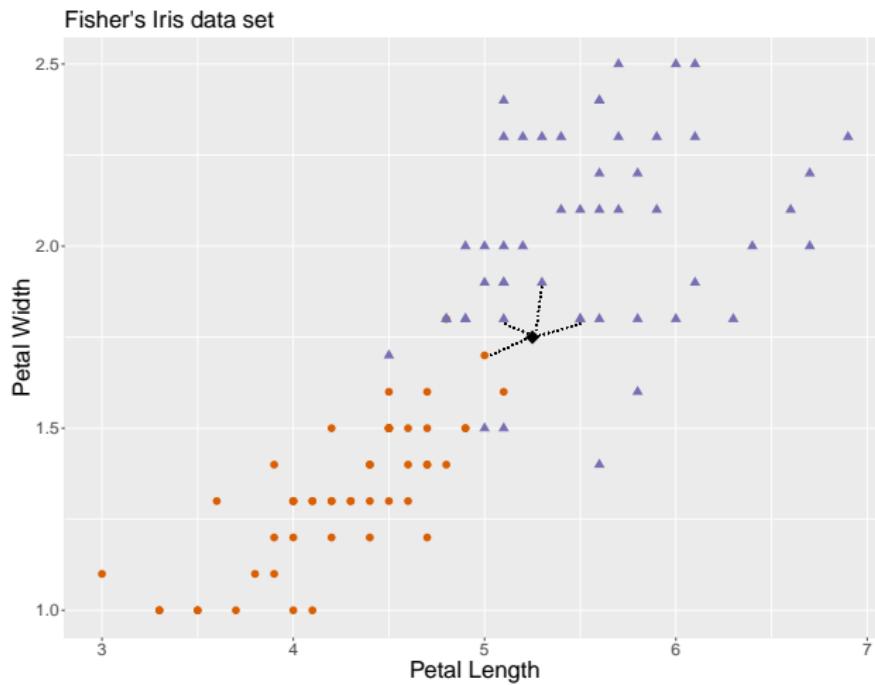
Iris: New Data Point

Imagine we have a new observation (the black point). How we can predict its label given training observations?



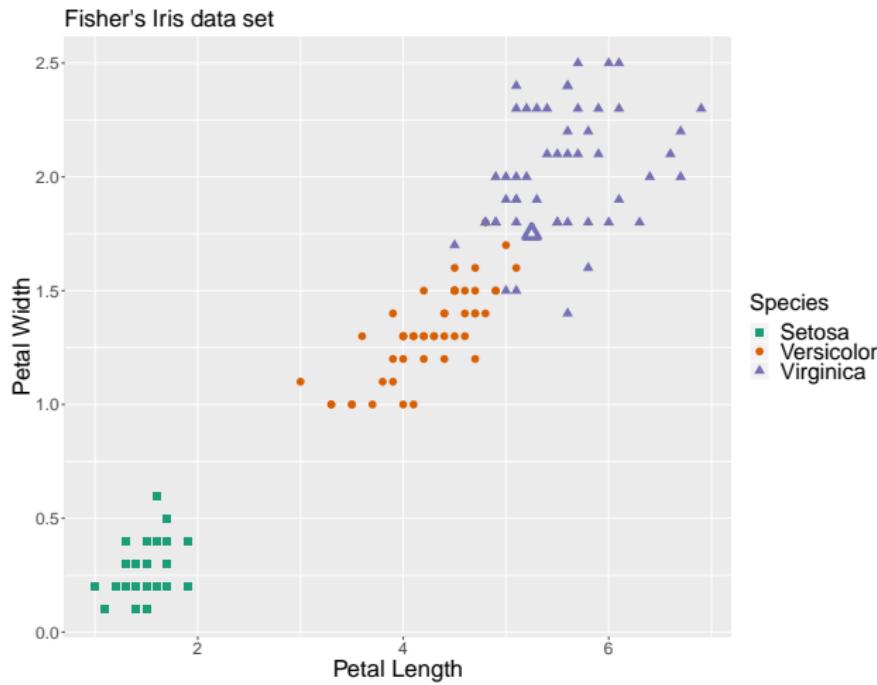
4 Nearest Neighbours

Assumption: examples from one class are close to each other in terms of distance. Find the 4 closest points to the black point.



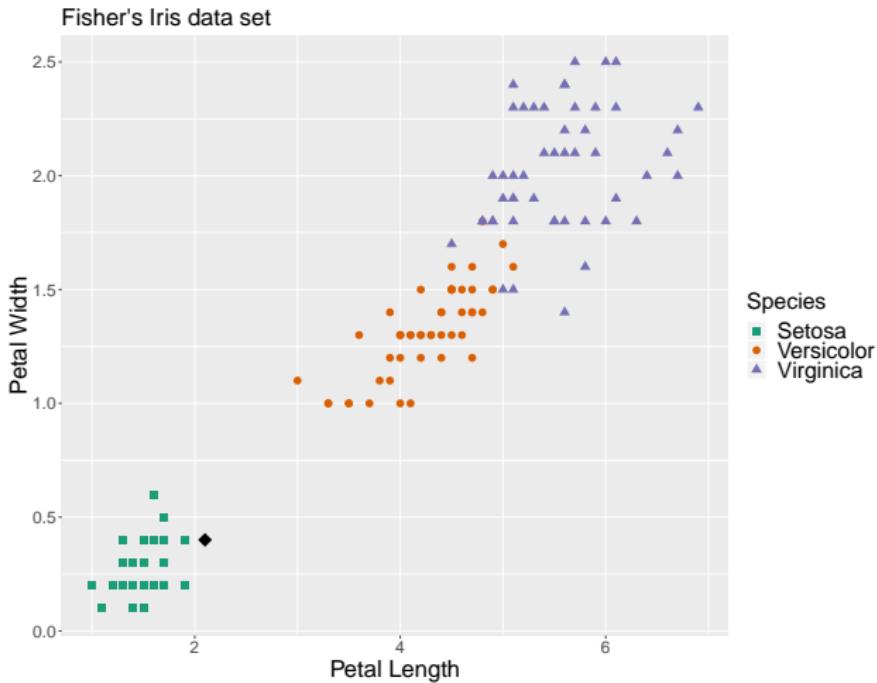
4NN Classification

We predict that our new example is Virginica, since the 3 of 4 neighbours were from this class.



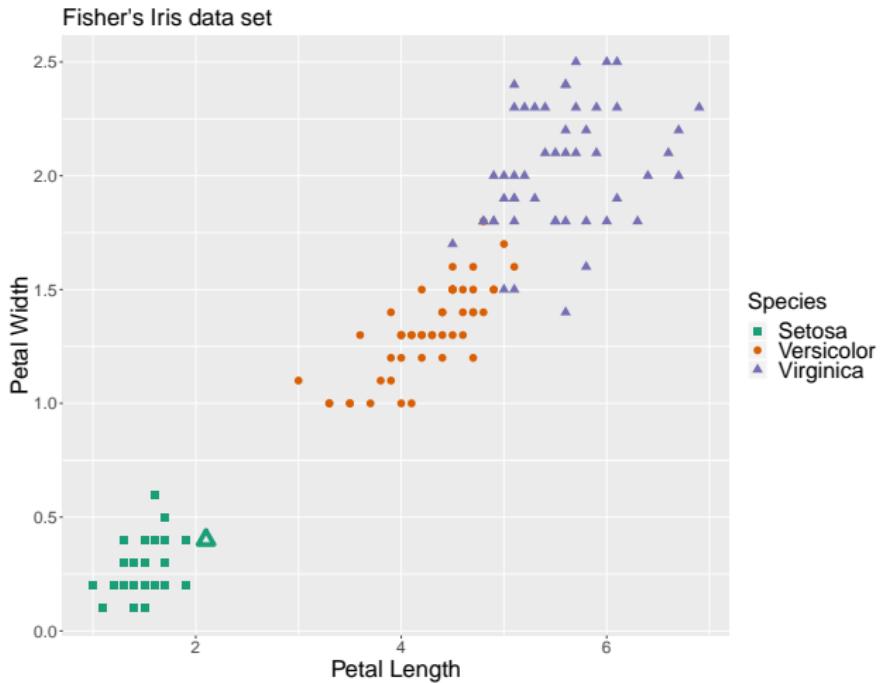
Another Data Point

Another example: what class we predict this time?

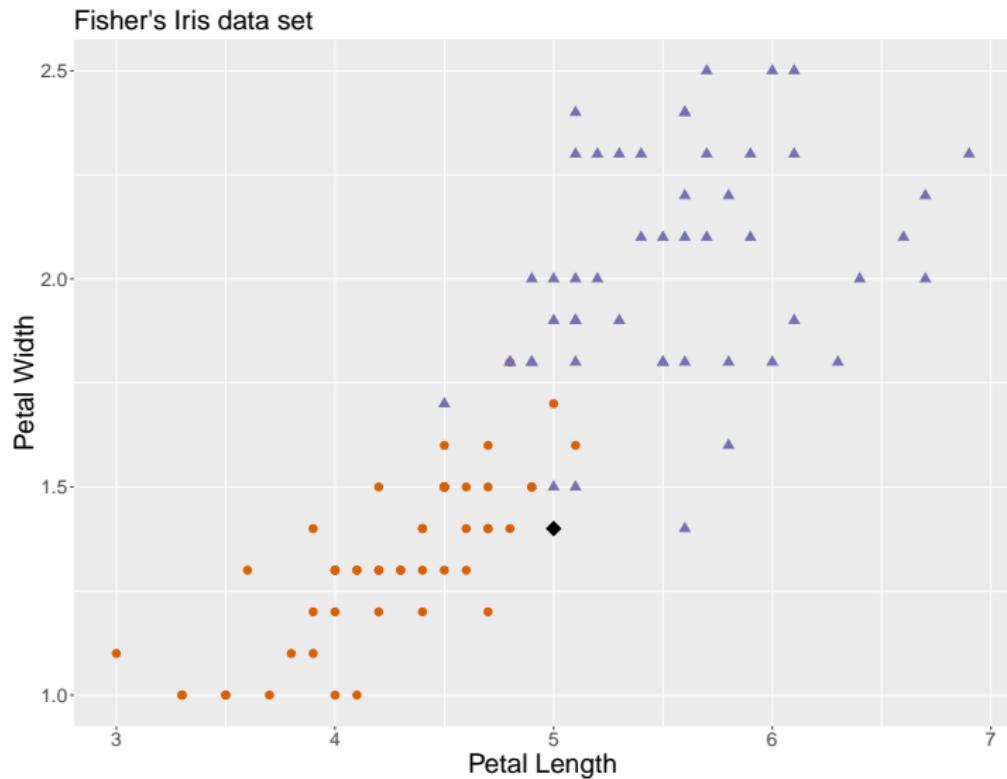


And Its Prediction

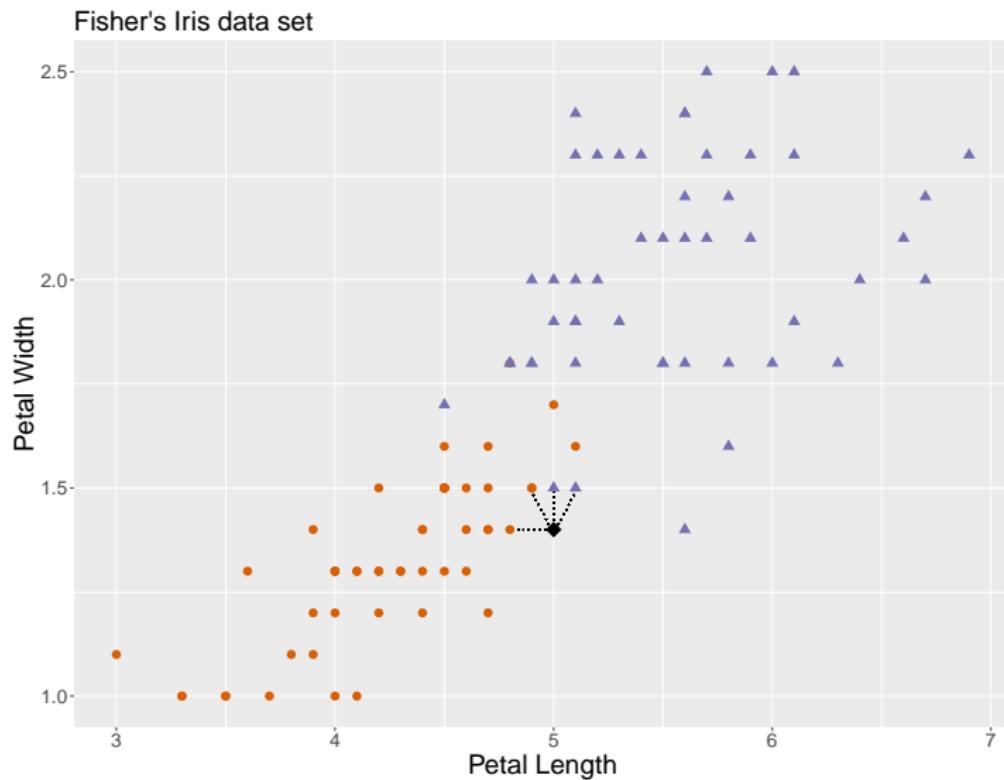
Yes, right! It belongs to Setosa.



One More Example



What to do in this case?



kNN Algorithm

We can generalize this approach to k nearest neighbours.

Algorithm k Nearest Neighbours (kNN)

Input: Training set $\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$;

Number of classes K ;

New data point \mathbf{x} .

1. Compute distance $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$ for $i = \{1, \dots, n\}$.
2. Find k closest training examples to \mathbf{x} :

$$J \subset \{1, \dots, n\} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad |J| = k;$$
$$\forall j \in J, \forall t \in \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus J : d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_j) \leq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_t).$$

Output: Majority class $h(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{c=1, \dots, K} \sum_{j \in J} \mathbb{I}(y_j = c)$.

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- What is the time complexity of the algorithm?

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- How does the choice of k affect kNN?

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- How does the choice of distance metric affect the algorithm?

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- Is the nearest neighbours approach applicable for the regression task?

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- kNN is an *instance-based* learning algorithm. What is the main drawback of such methods?

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Discriminant Analysis (Fisher, 1936)

A historically first classification algorithm was proposed by Ronald Fisher who studied the problem in the probabilistic way.

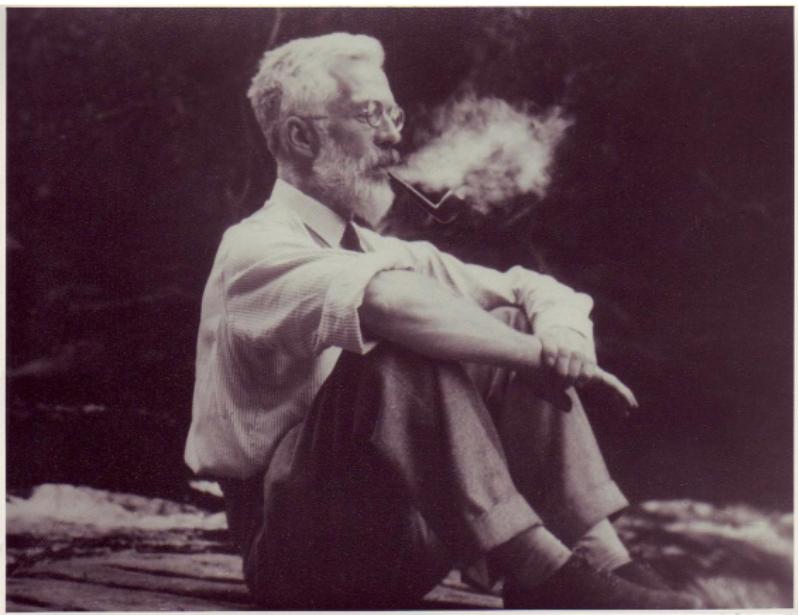


Figure: Ronald A. Fisher in 1946.

Classification Task: More Formally

- *Input space:* $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$;
- *Output space:* $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, +1\}$ (binary classification),
 $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, K\}$ (multi-class classification);
- *Assumption:* all $(\mathbf{X}, Y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ are **i.i.d.** with respect to a fixed unknown probability distribution $P(\mathbf{X}, Y)$;
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- *Sample Data:* we observe $S = \{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$;
- *Loss Function:* $\ell : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$;
- *Target:* minimise the *risk* $R^\ell(h) := \mathbb{E}_{P(\mathbf{X}, Y)} \ell(h(\mathbf{X}), Y)$, where $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ is a classifier.

0/1 Loss Function

0/1 loss function has the following view:

$$\ell^{0/1}(h(\mathbf{x}), y) = \mathbb{I}(h(\mathbf{x}) \neq y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } h(\mathbf{x}) \neq y; \\ 0, & \text{if } h(\mathbf{x}) = y. \end{cases}$$

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In this case, the risk is written as:

$$\begin{aligned} R(h) &= P(h(\mathbf{X}) \neq Y) \quad \leftarrow \text{Also called } \textit{misclassification probability} \\ &= \sum_{c \in \{1, \dots, K\}} P(Y = c) P(h(\mathbf{X}) \neq c | Y = c). \end{aligned}$$

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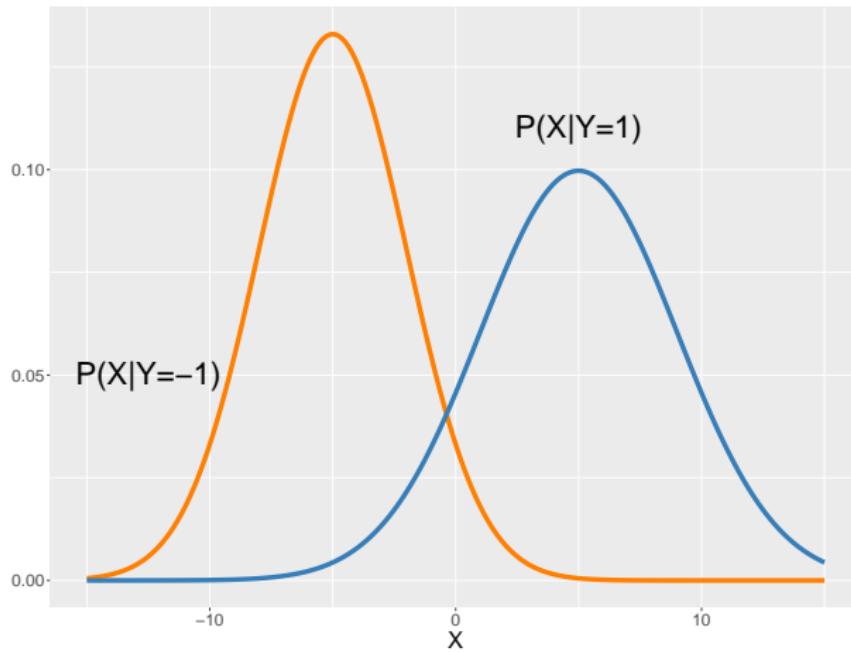
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In the binary case, it is represented as:

$$R(h) = P(Y = -1)P(h(\mathbf{X}) = 1 | Y = -1) + P(Y = 1)P(h(\mathbf{X}) = -1 | Y = 1)$$

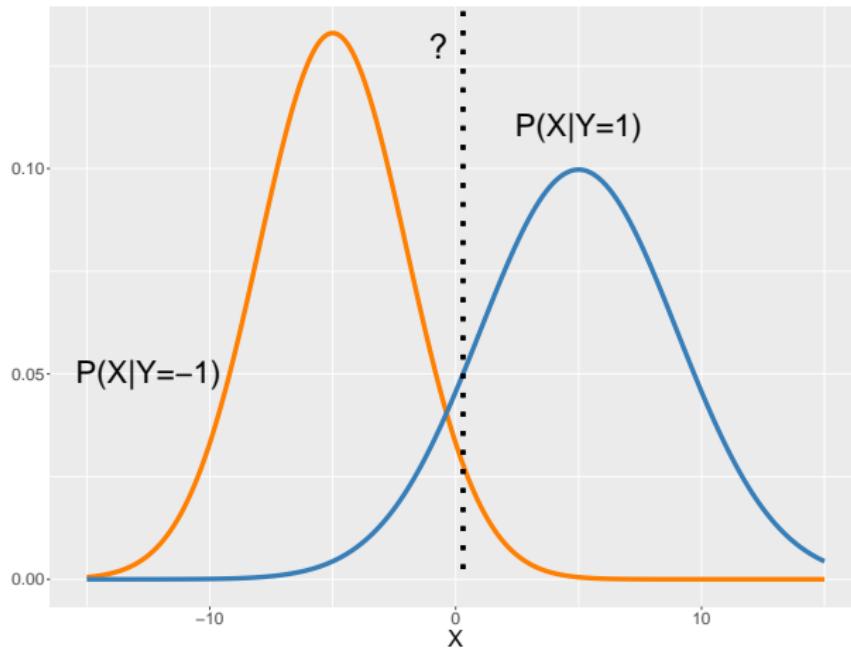
Classification in Terms of Distributions

Our training data is drawn from a mixture of distributions, where $P(\mathbf{X}|Y = c)$ is a distribution of the class c .



Classification in Terms of Distributions

Question: how to partition data so that the misclassification probability is small?



Bayes' Rule

$$P(Y|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\text{Posterior}}{\text{Evidence}} = \frac{\text{Likelihood} \cdot \text{Class Prior}}{P(\mathbf{X})}$$

Idea: Classify \mathbf{x} to a class with the highest posterior probability:

$$h_B(\mathbf{x}) := \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(Y = y | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}).$$

This is equivalent to:

$$h_B(\mathbf{x}) \propto \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = y) P(Y = y).$$

The method is often called the *Bayes* classifier.

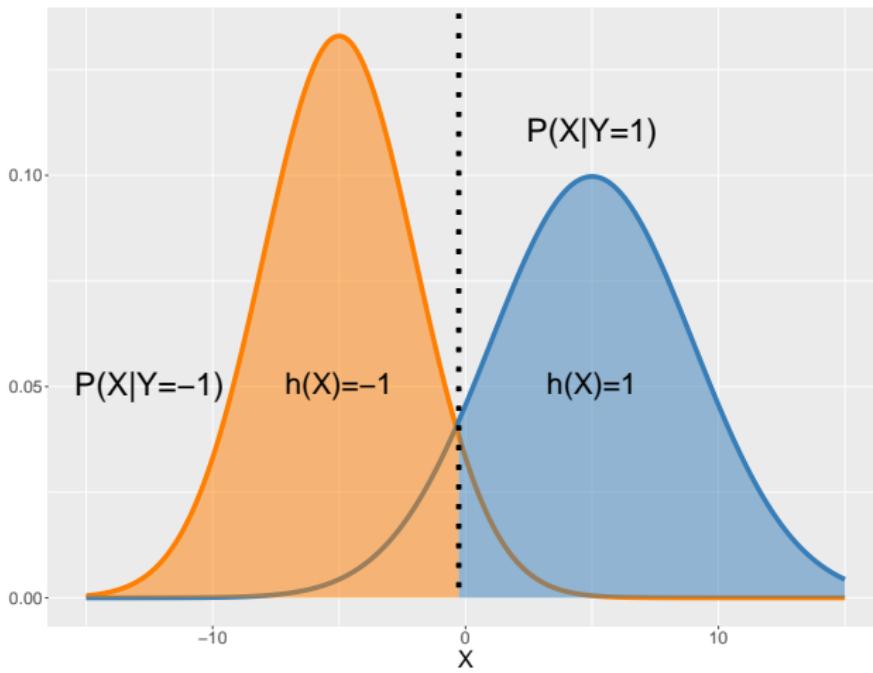
Bayes Classifier in the Binary Case

In the binary case ($\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, +1\}$), the Bayes classifier is usually defined in the following way:

$$h_B(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } P(Y = +1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) \geq P(Y = -1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}); \\ -1, & \text{if } P(Y = +1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) < P(Y = -1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}). \end{cases}$$

Particular Case: Maximum Likelihood Estimator

If we assume that priors are equal ($P(Y = +1) = P(Y = -1)$), the Bayes classifier separates the class distributions as follows:



Bayes Classifier Is Optimal

Theorem

Suppose $P(Y)$ and $P(\mathbf{X}|Y)$ are given. Then the Bayes classifier yields the minimum of the misclassification error.

Exercise: Prove this theorem.

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- 1 $P(h(\mathbf{X}) \neq Y) = \int P(h(\mathbf{X}) \neq Y | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) dP(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$. Then, what is the value of $P(h_B(\mathbf{X}) \neq Y | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$?

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Exercise: Prove this theorem.

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- 2 $P(h_B(\mathbf{x}) \neq Y | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = 1 - \max_{c \in \mathcal{Y}} P(Y = c | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$. Does this prove the theorem?

Bayes Classifier: Discussion

In practice, we don't have any information about data distribution.

- Can we estimate $P(Y)$?

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- Can we estimate $P(\mathbf{X}|Y)$?
 - Hmm... Not clear. Maybe we need to make additional assumptions.

Additional Assumptions

- *Assumption 1:* Observations from a class $c \in \mathcal{Y}$ are normally distributed $[\mathbf{X}|Y = c] \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_c)$.
 - Remember the formula of the multivariate normal distribution.

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$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_c)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_c)}.$$

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- *Assumption 2:* The covariance matrices of the classes are equal:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 = \cdots = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_K = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}.$$

Linear Discriminant Analysis

Due to the logarithm properties, the Bayes classifier can be written as follows:

$$h_B(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{c \in \mathcal{Y}} [\ln P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = c) + \ln P(Y = c)].$$

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Taking into account Assumption 1 and Assumption 2, we derive the algorithm called *Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)*:

$$h_{LDA}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{c \in \mathcal{Y}} \delta_c(\mathbf{x}),$$

$$\delta_c(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}_c^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_c^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_c + \ln P(Y = c);$$

δ_c is usually called the *discriminant function*.

LDA in the Binary Case

In the binary case, the decision rule can be also written as:

$$h_{LDA}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } \delta_{+1} - \delta_{-1} \geq 0; \\ -1, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $\delta_{+1} - \delta_{-1}$ is:

$$(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{+1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{-1})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} - \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_{+1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{-1})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_{+1} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_{-1}) + \ln \frac{P(Y = +1)}{P(Y = -1)}.$$

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- How many parameters we need to estimate?

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- Why it is called "linear"?
- How many parameters we need to estimate?
- What happens when Assumption 1, 2 are violated?

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where $\delta_{+1} - \delta_{-1}$ is:

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LDA in the Binary Case

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- What is the time complexity to predict a label for new \mathbf{x} ?