# Lecture 32: November 28

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## 32.1 Review and Outline

In the last class we discussed directed graphical models.

- 1. Conditioning on colliders
- 2. d-separation

In this lecture we will discuss classification. This is Chapter 22 of the Wasserman book.

In our past lectures we have focused on regression (linear and non-parametric), and density estimation (parametric and non-parametric). A closely related task to regression is that of classification. Formally, we observe i.i.d. data  $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$  where  $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $Y_i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ , i.e. there are k classes.

A classifier or a classification rule is simply a map  $h : \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \{1, \ldots, k\}$ , i.e. when we observe a new X we predict its category/class to be h(X).

#### 32.2 Error rates and binary classification

Broadly, the goal in classification is to find classification rules that are accurate. The true (population) error rate of a classifier h is:

$$L(h) = \mathbb{P}(h(X) \neq Y),$$

and the empirical error rate is:

$$\widehat{L}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(h(X_i) \neq Y_i).$$

A special case of classification is when we have binary outcomes, i.e.  $Y \in \{0, 1\}$ . Let

$$r(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x] = \mathbb{P}(Y = 1|X = x),$$

be the usual regression function. We can re-write this using Bayes' rule:

$$r(x) = \frac{f(x|Y=1)P(Y=1)}{f(x|Y=1)P(Y=1) + f(x|Y=0)P(Y=0)}.$$

We often denote  $P(Y = 1) = \pi$  and then we have  $P(Y = 0) = 1 - \pi$ .

The optimal classifier is known as the Bayes' classifier. It is given by:

$$h^*(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r(x) > \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For a classifier, we can define its *decision boundary*. It is generally defined as a surface that partitions the domain of X into two sets, one for each class.

The Bayes classifier has a decision boundary given by:

$$D(h^*) = \{x : P(Y = 1 | X = x) = P(Y = 0 | X = x)\}.$$

There are two other equivalent forms of the Bayes' classifier:

1.

$$h^{*}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \pi f(x|Y=1) > (1-\pi)f(x|Y=0) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

2.

$$h^{*}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } P(Y = 1 | X = x) > P(Y = 0 | X = x) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Finally, to re-visit the optimality of the Bayes rule: it is the case that for any other classification rule h, we have that:

$$L(h^*) \le L(h),$$

so the Bayes classifier minimizes the true error rate amongst all classifiers.

The main issue however is that the Bayes classifier depends on unknown quantities, i.e. the probabilities P(Y = 1|X = x) or the densities f(x|Y = 1) and so on. However, it does serve as a template to develop classifiers. Many classifiers explicitly try to approximate the Bayes rule using the training data.

Broadly, there are different strategies for classification:

- 1. Empirical Risk Minimization: Here the idea is simple, we choose a set of classifiers  $\mathcal{H}$  and try to find  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  that minimizes some estimate of L(h). Usually we use the empirical risk  $\widehat{L}(h)$ .
- 2. Regression: We estimate the regression function or P(Y = 1|X = x) and then define the classifier:

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \widehat{P}(Y=1|X=x) > 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

3. Density Estimation: We estimate  $\pi$ , f(x|Y = 0) and f(x|Y = 1) using the training data, and then use the classifier:

$$h^*(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \widehat{\pi}\widehat{f}(x|Y=1) > (1-\widehat{\pi})\widehat{f}(x|Y=0) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We will consider some of these ideas today and then continue in the next lecture.

### 32.3 Linear Discriminant Analysis

Our first classifier to consider, will be based on density estimation. First, let us hypothesize that:

$$f(x|Y = 0) \sim N(\mu_0, \Sigma)$$
  

$$f(x|Y = 1) \sim N(\mu_1, \Sigma)$$
  

$$P(Y = 1) = \pi_1.$$

In this simplified setting we can derive the form of the Bayes classifier. In particular,  $h^*(x) = 1$  if:

$$\pi_1 \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu_1)}{2}\right) > (1-\pi_1) \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu_0)}{2}\right) = (1-\pi_1) \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu_0)}{2}\right)$$

rearranging this we obtain that  $h^*(x) = 1$  if,

$$\log(\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)) - \frac{(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_1)}{2} > -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_0)}{2}.$$

We note that the decision boundary of this classifier is:

$$\log(\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)) - \frac{(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_1)}{2} = -\frac{(x-\mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_0)}{2},$$

which on re-arrangement gives:

$$\log(\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)) - \frac{\mu_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_1 + \mu_0^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_0}{2} + x^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_0) = 0,$$

which shows that the decision boundary of the classifier is linear, i.e. of the form  $\alpha_0 + \alpha^T x = 0$ , for some values  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha$ . This is why the classifier is called *linear* discriminant analysis.

We could have also, considered a setting where:

$$f(x|Y = 0) \sim N(\mu_0, \Sigma_0) f(x|Y = 1) \sim N(\mu_1, \Sigma_1) P(Y = 1) = \pi_1.$$

Under this setting the Bayes classifier will be a quadratic function of x and this is known as Quadratic Discriminant Analysis.

Going back to LDA, now that we have a form for the Bayes classifier, we can approximate the Bayes rule by estimating the various unknown quantities. Concretely, given a training data set  $\{(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$  we can estimate:

$$\widehat{\pi}_{1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i} = 1)$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_{0} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i} = 0)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i} = 0)$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_{1} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i} = 1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i} = 1).$$

These are the maximum likelihood estimators for these parameters. The MLE for  $\Sigma$  is given by:

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_{0} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i}=0)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \widehat{\mu}_{0}) (X_{i} - \widehat{\mu}_{0})^{T} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i}=0)$$

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_{1} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i}=1)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \widehat{\mu}_{1}) (X_{i} - \widehat{\mu}_{1})^{T} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i}=1)$$

$$\widehat{\Sigma} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i}=0) \widehat{\Sigma}_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(Y_{i}=1) \widehat{\Sigma}_{1}}{n}.$$

With these estimates in place we just use the rule h(x) = 1 if:

$$\log(\widehat{\pi}_1/(1-\widehat{\pi}_1)) - \frac{\widehat{\mu}_1^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_1 + \widehat{\mu}_0^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_0}{2} + x^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} (\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_0) > 0,$$

#### 32.4 Logistic Regression

A popular direct regression based classifier is a logistic regressor. Here the hypothesis is that:

$$P(Y = 1 | X = x) = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta^T x)}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta^T x)}.$$

This is a logistic function of  $\beta_0 + \beta^T x$  and has the property that it is always between [0, 1]and so represents a true probability. Notice the following properties,  $P(Y = 1|X = x) \to 1$ if  $\beta_0 + \beta^T x \to \infty$ ,  $P(Y = 1|X = x) \to 0$  if  $\beta_0 + \beta^T x \to -\infty$  and P(Y = 1|X = x) = 1/2 if  $\beta_0 + \beta^T x = 0$ 

Under the logistic hypothesis we can again derive the Bayes rule,  $h^*(x)$  is 1 if:

$$\frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta^T x)}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta^T x)} > \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta^T x)}$$

which on rearrangement gives:

$$\beta_0 + \beta^T x > 0.$$

The decision boundary for the Bayes classifier is then simply:

$$\beta_0 + \beta^T x = 0,$$

which is again a linear decision boundary. So both LDA and logistic regression are linear classifiers. In our next class, we will discuss how to fit a logistic regression, i.e. estimate  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ , and then compare logistic regression to LDA.