Statistical Machine Learning Hilary Term 2019

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Slide credits and other course material can be found at:

http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~palamara/SML19.html

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Plug-in Classification

• Consider the 0-1 loss and the risk:

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[L(Y, f(X))\big|X = x\Big] = \sum_{k=1}^{K} L(k, f(x))\mathbb{P}(Y = k|X = x)$$

The Bayes classifier provides a solution that minimizes the risk:

$$f_{\mathsf{Bayes}}(x) = \underset{k=1,\dots,K}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \pi_k g_k(x).$$

- We know neither the conditional density g_k nor the class probability π_k !
- The plug-in classifier chooses the class

$$f(x) = \arg\max_{k=1,\dots,K} \widehat{\pi}_k \widehat{g}_k(x),$$

- where we plugged in
 - estimates $\widehat{\pi}_k$ of π_k and $k = 1, \ldots, K$ and
 - estimates $\hat{g}_k(x)$ of conditional densities,
- Linear Discriminant Analysis is an example of plug-in classification.

Summary: Linear Discriminant Analysis

 LDA: a plug-in classifier assuming multivariate normal conditional density g_k(x) = g_k(x|μ_k, Σ) for each class k sharing the same covariance Σ:

 $X|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma),$

$$g_k(x|\mu_k, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_k)\right).$$

LDA minimizes the squared Mahalanobis distance between x and μ
_k, offset by a term depending on the estimated class proportion π
_k:

$$\begin{split} f_{\mathsf{LDA}}(x) &= \underset{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \log \widehat{\pi}_k g_k(x | \widehat{\mu}_k, \widehat{\Sigma}) \\ &= \underset{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \underbrace{\left(\log \widehat{\pi}_k - \frac{1}{2} \widehat{\mu}_k^\top \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_k \right) + \left(\widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_k \right)^\top x}_{\text{terms depending on } k \text{ linear in } x} \\ &= \underset{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\left(x - \widehat{\mu}_k \right)^\top \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k)}_{\text{squared Mahalanobis distance}} - \log \widehat{\pi}_k. \end{split}$$

LDA projections

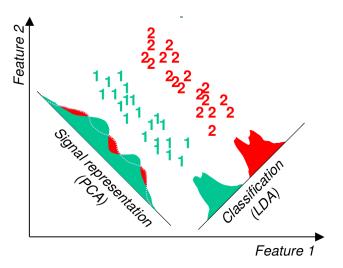
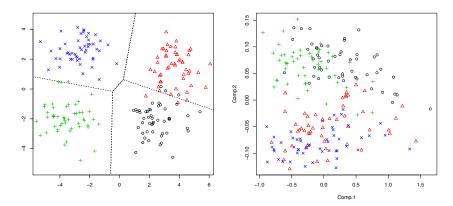


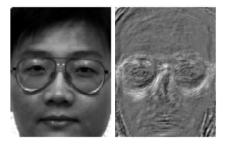
Figure by R. Gutierrez-Osuna

LDA vs PCA projections



LDA separates the groups better.

Fisherfaces



Eigenfaces vs. Fisherfaces, Belhumeur et al. 1997

Conditional densities with different covariances

Given training data with *K* classes, assume a parametric form for conditional density $g_k(x)$, where for each class

 $X|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k),$

i.e., instead of assuming that every class has a different mean μ_k with the **same** covariance matrix Σ (LDA), we now allow each class to have its own covariance matrix.

Considering $\log \pi_k g_k(x)$ as before,

$$\log \pi_k g_k(x) = \operatorname{const} + \log(\pi_k) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\log |\Sigma_k| + (x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x - \mu_k) \right) \\ = \operatorname{const} + \log(\pi_k) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\log |\Sigma_k| + \mu_k^T \Sigma_k^{-1} \mu_k \right) \\ + \mu_k^T \Sigma_k^{-1} x - \frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma_k^{-1} x \\ = a_k + b_k^T x + x^T c_k x.$$

A quadratic discriminant function instead of linear.

Quadratic decision boundaries

Again, by considering that we choose class k over k',

$$a_k + b_k^T x + x^T c_k x - (a_{k'} + b_{k'}^T x + x^T c_{k'} x)$$

= $a_{\star} + b_{\star}^T x + x^T c_{\star} x > 0$

we see that the decision boundaries of the Bayes Classifier are quadratic surfaces.

 The plug-in Bayes Classifer under these assumptions is known as the Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (QDA) Classifier.

QDA

LDA classifier:

$$f_{\mathsf{LDA}}(x) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \left\{ (x - \widehat{\mu}_k)^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k) - 2 \log(\widehat{\pi}_k) \right\}$$

QDA classifier:

$$f_{\mathsf{QDA}}(x) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \left\{ (x - \widehat{\mu}_k)^T \widehat{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k) - 2\log(\widehat{\pi}_k) + \log(|\widehat{\Sigma}_k|) \right\}$$

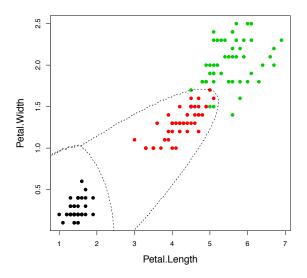
for each point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ where the plug-in estimate $\hat{\mu}_k$ is as before and $\hat{\Sigma}_k$ is (in contrast to LDA) estimated for each class k = 1, ..., K separately:

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{j: y_j = k} (x_j - \widehat{\mu}_k) (x_j - \widehat{\mu}_k)^T.$$

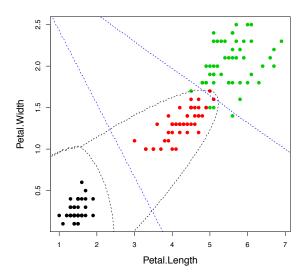
Computing and plotting the QDA boundaries.

```
##fit QDA
iris.qda <- qda(x=iris.data,grouping=ct)
##create a grid for our plotting surface
x <- seq(-6,6,0.02)
y <- seq(-4,4,0.02)
z <- as.matrix(expand.grid(x,y),0)
m <- length(x)
n <- length(y)</pre>
```

Iris example: QDA boundaries



Iris example: QDA boundaries



LDA or QDA?

- Having seen both LDA and QDA in action, it is natural to ask which is the "better" classifier.
- If the covariances of different classes are very distinct, QDA will probably have an advantage over LDA.
- Parametric models are only ever approximations to the real world, allowing **more flexible decision boundaries** (QDA) may seem like a good idea. However, there is a price to pay in terms of increased variance and potential **overfitting**.

Regularized Discriminant Analysis

In the case where data is scarce, to fit

- LDA, need to estimate $K \times p + p \times p$ parameters
- QDA, need to estimate $K \times p + K \times p \times p$ parameters.

Using LDA allows us to better estimate the covariance matrix Σ . Though QDA allows more flexible decision boundaries, the estimates of the *K* covariance matrices Σ_k are more variable.

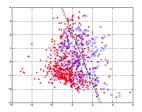
RDA combines the strengths of both classifiers by regularizing each covariance matrix Σ_k in QDA to the single one Σ in LDA

 $\Sigma_k(\alpha) = \alpha \Sigma_k + (1 - \alpha) \Sigma$ for some $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.

This introduces a new parameter α and allows for a continuum of models between LDA and QDA to be used. Can be selected by Cross-Validation for example.

Review

- In LDA and QDA, we estimate p(x|y), but for classification we are mainly interested in p(y|x)
- Why not estimate that directly? Logistic regression¹ is a popular way of doing this.

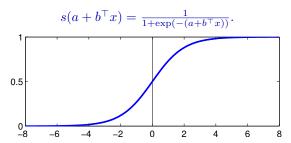


¹Despite the name "regression", we are using it for classification!

- One of the most popular methods for classification
- Linear model on the probabilities
- Dates back to work on population growth curves by Verhulst [1838, 1845, 1847]
- Statistical use for classification dates to Cox [1960s]
- Independently discovered as the perceptron in machine learning [Rosenblatt 1957]
- Main example of "discriminative" as opposed to "generative" learning
- Naïve approach to classification: we could do linear regression assigning specific values to each class. Logistic regression refines this idea and provides a more suitable model.

• Statistical perspective: consider $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$. Generalised linear model with Bernoulli likelihood and logit link:

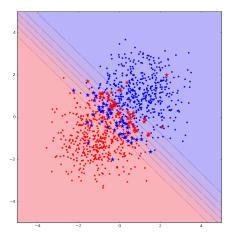
 $Y|X = x, a, b \sim \text{Bernoulli}\left(s(a + b^{\top}x)\right)$

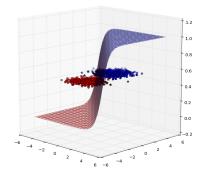


ML perspective: a discriminative classifier. Consider binary classification with 𝒴 = {+1, −1}. Logistic regression uses a parametric model on the conditional *Y*|*X*, not the joint distribution of (*X*, *Y*):

$$p(Y = y | X = x; a, b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y(a + b^{\top}x))}$$

Prediction Using Logistic Regression





Hard vs Soft classification rules

• Consider using LDA for binary classification with $\mathcal{Y} = \{+1, -1\}$. Predictions are based on linear decision boundary:

$$\begin{split} \hat{g}_{\mathsf{LDA}}(x) &= \operatorname{sign} \left\{ \log \hat{\pi}_{+1} g_{+1}(x | \hat{\mu}_{+1}, \hat{\Sigma}) - \log \hat{\pi}_{-1} g_{-1}(x | \hat{\mu}_{-1}, \hat{\Sigma}) \right\} \\ &= \operatorname{sign} \left\{ a + b^{\top} x \right\} \end{split}$$

for *a* and *b* depending on fitted parameters $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\pi}_{+1}, \hat{\pi}_{-1}, \hat{\mu}_{+1}, \hat{\mu}_{-1}, \Sigma)$.

 Quantity a + b^Tx can be viewed as a soft classification rule. Indeed, it is modelling the difference between the log-discriminant functions, or equivalently, the **log-odds ratio**:

$$a + b^{\top} x = \log \frac{p(Y = +1|X = x; \widehat{\theta})}{p(Y = -1|X = x; \widehat{\theta})}.$$

- *f*(*x*) = *a* + *b*^T*x* corresponds to the "confidence of predictions" and loss can be measured as a function of this confidence:
 - exponential loss: $L(y, f(x)) = e^{-yf(x)}$,
 - log-loss: $L(y, f(x)) = \log(1 + e^{-yf(x)}),$
 - hinge loss: $L(y, f(x)) = \max\{1 yf(x), 0\}.$

Linearity of log-odds and logistic function

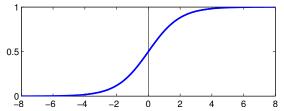
• $a + b^{\top}x$ models the **log-odds ratio**:

$$\log \frac{p(Y = +1|X = x; a, b)}{p(Y = -1|X = x; a, b)} = a + b^{\top} x.$$

• Solve explicitly for conditional class probabilities (using p(Y = +1|X = x; a, b) + p(Y = -1|X = x; a, b) = 1):

$$p(Y = +1|X = x; a, b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(a + b^{\top}x))} =: s(a + b^{\top}x)$$
$$p(Y = -1|X = x; a, b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(+(a + b^{\top}x))} = s(-a - b^{\top}x)$$

where $s(z) = 1/(1 + \exp(-z))$ is the logistic function.



Fitting the parameters of the hyperplane

How to learn a and b given a training data set $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$?

• Consider maximizing the conditional log likelihood for $\mathcal{Y} = \{+1, -1\}$:

$$p(Y = y_i | X = x_i; a, b) = p(y_i | x_i) = \begin{cases} s(a + b^\top x_i) & \text{if } Y = +1\\ 1 - s(a + b^\top x_i) & \text{if } Y = -1 \end{cases}$$

• Noting that 1 - s(z) = s(-z), we can write the log-likelihood using the compact expression:

$$\log p(y_i|x_i) = \log s(y_i(a+b^\top x_i)).$$

And the log-likelihood over the whole i.i.d. data set is:

$$\ell(a,b) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(y_i | x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log s(y_i(a + b^{\top} x_i)).$$

Fitting the parameters of the hyperplane

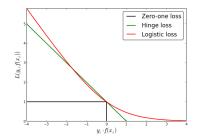
How to learn *a* and *b* given a training data set $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$?

• Consider maximizing the conditional log likelihood:

$$\ell(a,b) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(y_i | x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log s(y_i(a + b^{\top} x_i)).$$

• Equivalent to minimizing the empirical risk associated with the log loss:

$$\widehat{R}_{\log}(f_{a,b}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\log s(y_i(a+b^{\top}x_i)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(-y_i(a+b^{\top}x_i)))$$



Could we use the 0-1 loss?

• With the 0-1 loss, the risk becomes:

$$\widehat{R}(f_{a,b}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{step}(-y_i(a+b^{\top}x_i))$$

• But what is the gradient? ...

