Classification
Classification Problems

Many machine learning applications can be seen as classification problems — given a vector of $p$ “inputs” describing an item, predict which “class” the item belongs to. Examples:

- Given anatomical measurements of an animal, predict which species the animal belongs to.
- Given information on the credit history of a customer, predict whether or not they would pay back a loan.
- Given an image of a hand-written digit, predict which digit (0-9) it is.
- Given the proportions of iron, nickel, carbon, etc. in a type of steel, predict whether the steel will rust in the presence of moisture.

We assume that the set of possible classes is known, with labels $C_1, \ldots, C_K$.

We have a training set of items in which we know both the inputs and the class, from which we will somehow learn how to do the classification.

Once we’ve learned a classifier, we use it to predict the class of future items, given only the inputs for those items.
Approaches to Classification

Classification problems can be solved in (at least) three ways:

• Learn how to directly produce a class from the inputs — that is, we learn some function that maps an input vector, $x$, to a class, $C_k$.

• Learn a “discriminative” model for the probability distribution over classes for given inputs — that is, learn $P(C_k|x)$ as a function of $x$. From $P(C_k|x)$ and a “loss function”, we can make the best prediction for the class of an item.

• Learn a “generative” model for the probability distribution of the inputs for each class — that is, learn $P(x|C_k)$ for each class $k$. From this, and the class probabilities, $P(C_k)$, we can find $P(C_k|x)$ using Bayes’ Rule.

Note that the last option above makes sense only if there is some well-defined distribution of items in a class. This isn’t the case for the previous example of determining whether or not a type of steel will rust.
Loss functions and Classification

Learning $P(C_k|x)$ allows one to make a prediction for the class in a way that depends on a “loss function”, which says how costly different kinds of errors are.

We define $L_{kj}$ to be the loss we incur if we predict that an item is in class $C_j$ when it is actually in class $C_k$. We’ll assume that losses are non-negative and that $L_{kk} = 0$ for all $k$ (ie, there’s no loss when the prediction is correct). Only the relative values of losses will matter.

If all errors are equally bad, we would let $L_{kj}$ be the same for all $k \neq j$.

**Example:** Giving a loan to someone who doesn’t pay it back (class $C_1$) is much more costly than not giving a loan to someone who would pay it back (class $C_0$). So for this application we might, for example, set $L_{01} = 1$ and $L_{10} = 20$.

Note that in this example we should define the loss function to account both for monetary consequences (money not repaid, or interest not earned) and other effects that don’t have immediate monetary consequences, such as customer dissatisfaction when their loan isn’t approved.
Predicting to Minimize Expected Loss

A basic principle of decision theory is that we should take the action (here, make the prediction) that minimizes the expected loss, according to our probabilistic model.

If we predict that an item with inputs $x$ is in class $C_j$, the expected loss is

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{K} L_{kj} P(C_k|x)
$$

We should predict that this item in the class, $C_j$, for which this expected loss is smallest. (The minimum might not be unique, in which case more than one prediction would be optimal.)

If all errors are equally bad (say loss of 1), the expected loss when predicting $C_j$ is $1 - P(C_j|x)$, so we should predict the class which highest probability given $x$.

For binary classification ($K = 2$, with classes labelled by 0 and 1), minimizing expected loss is equivalent to predicting that an item is in class 1 if

$$
\frac{P(C_1|x)}{P(C_0|x)} \frac{L_{10}}{L_{01}} > 1
$$
Generative Models for Classification
Classification from Generative Models Using Bayes’ Rule

In the generative model approach to classification, we learn models from the training data for the probability or probability density of the inputs, $x$, for items in each of the possible classes, $C_k$ — that is, we learn models for $P(x|C_k)$ for $k = 1, \ldots, K$.

To do classification, we instead need $P(C_k|x)$. We can get these conditional class probabilities using Bayes’ Rule:

$$P(C_k|x) = \frac{P(C_k) P(x|C_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} P(C_j) P(x|C_j)}$$

Here, $P(C_k)$ is the prior probability of class $C_k$. We can easily estimate these probabilities by the frequencies of the classes in the training data. Alternatively, we may have good information about $P(C_k)$ from other sources (e.g., census data).

For binary classification, with classes $C_0$ and $C_1$, we get

$$P(C_1|x) = \frac{P(C_1) P(x|C_1)}{P(C_0) P(x|C_0) + P(C_1) P(x|C_1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P(C_0) P(x|C_0)}{P(C_1) P(x|C_1)}}$$
Naive Bayes Models for Binary Inputs

When the inputs are binary (ie, $x$ is a vectors of 1’s and 0’s) we can use the following simple generative model:

$$P(x|C_k) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \theta_{ki}^{x_{ki}} (1 - \theta_{ki})^{1-x_{ki}}$$

Here, $\theta_{ki}$ is the estimated probability that input $i$ will have the value 1 in items from class $k$.

The maximum likelihood estimate for $\theta_{ki}$ is simply the fraction of 1’s in training items that are in class $k$.

This is called the naive Bayes model — “Bayes” because we use it with Bayes’s Rule to do classification, and “naive” because this model assumes that inputs are independent given the class, which is something a naive person might assume, though it’s usually not true.

It’s easy to generalize naive Bayes models to discrete inputs with more than two values, and further generalizations (keeping the independence assumption) are also possible.
Binary Classification using Naive Bayes Models

When there are two classes \((C_0 \text{ and } C_1)\) and binary inputs, applying Bayes’ Rule with a naive Bayes classifier gives the following probability for \(C_1\) given \(x\):

\[
P(C_1| x) = \frac{P(C_1) \, P(x|C_1)}{P(C_0) \, P(x|C_0) + P(C_1) \, P(x|C_1)}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P(C_0) \, P(x|C_0)}{P(C_1) \, P(x|C_1)}}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a(x))}
\]

where

\[
a(x) = \log \left( \frac{P(C_1) \, P(x|C_1)}{P(C_0) \, P(x|C_0)} \right)
\]

\[
= \log \left( \frac{P(C_1)}{P(C_0)} \prod_{i=1}^{p} \left( \frac{\theta_{1i}}{\theta_{0i}} \right)^{x_i} \left( \frac{1-\theta_{1i}}{1-\theta_{0i}} \right)^{1-x_i} \right)
\]

\[
= \log \left( \frac{P(C_1)}{P(C_0)} \prod_{i=1}^{p} \frac{1-\theta_{1i}}{1-\theta_{0i}} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} x_i \log \left( \frac{\theta_{1i}/(1-\theta_{1i})}{\theta_{0i}/(1-\theta_{0i})} \right)
\]
Gaussian Generative Models

When the inputs are real-valued, a Gaussian model for the distribution of inputs in each class may be appropriate. If we also assume that the covariance matrix for all classes is the same, the class probabilities for binary classification turn out to depend on a linear function of the inputs.

For this model,

\[ P(x|C_k) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp \left( -\frac{(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_k)}{2} \right) \]

where \( \mu_k \) is an estimate of the mean vector for class \( C_k \), and \( \Sigma \) is an estimate for the covariance matrix (same for all classes).

One can show that the maximum likelihood estimate for \( \mu_k \) is the sample means of input vectors for items in class \( C_k \), and the maximum likelihood estimate for \( \Sigma \) is

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{n_k}{n} S_k \]

where \( n \) is the total number of training items, \( n_k \) is the number of training items in class \( C_k \), and \( S_k \) is the usual maximum likelihood estimate for the covariance matrix based on items in class \( C_k \).
Classification using Gaussian Models for Each Class

For binary classification, we can now apply Bayes’ Rule to get the probability of class 1 from a Gaussian model with the same covariance matrix in each class:

As for the naive Bayes model:

$$P(C_1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a(x))}$$

where

$$a(x) = \log \left( \frac{P(C_1) P(x|C_1)}{P(C_0) P(x|C_0)} \right)$$

Substituting the Gaussian densities, we get

$$a(x) = \log \left( \frac{P(C_1)}{P(C_0)} \right) + \log \left( \frac{\exp(-(x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu_1) / 2)}{\exp(-(x - \mu_0)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu_0) / 2)} \right)$$

$$= \log \left( \frac{P(C_1)}{P(C_0)} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \mu_0^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_0 - \mu_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_1 \right) + x^T \left( \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_0) \right)$$

The quadratic terms of the form $x^T \Sigma^{-1} x / 2$ cancel, producing a linear function of the inputs, as was also the case for naive Bayes models.
Discriminative Models for Classification
Logistic Regression

We see that binary classification using either naive Bayes or Gaussian generative models leads to the probability of class $C_1$ given inputs $x$ having the form

$$P(C_1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a(x))}$$

where $a(x)$ is a linear function of $x$, which can be written as $a(x) = \beta_0 + x^T \beta$.

Rather than start with a generative model, however, we could simply start with this formula, and estimate $\beta_0$ and $\beta$ from the training data. Maximum likelihood estimation for $\beta_0$ and $\beta$ is not hard, though there is no explicit formula.

This is a discriminative training procedure, that estimates $P(C_k|x)$ without estimating $P(x|C_k)$ for each class.
Probit Models

An alternative to logistic models is the *probit* model, in which we let

\[
P(C_1|x) = \Phi(a(x))
\]

where \( \Phi \) is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution:

\[
\Phi(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{a} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp(-x^2/2) \, dx
\]

This would be the right model if the class depended on the sign of \( a(x) \) plus a standard normal random variable. But this isn’t a reasonable model for most applications. It might still be useful, though.
Which is Better — Generative or Discriminative?

Even though logistic regression uses the same formula for the probability for $C_1$ given $x$ as was derived for the earlier generative models, maximum likelihood logistic regression does not in general give the same values for $\beta_0$ and $\beta$ as would be found with maximum likelihood estimation for the generative model.

So which gives better results? It depends…

If the generative model accurately represents the distribution of inputs for each class, it should give better results than discriminative training — it effectively has more information to use when estimating parameters.

However, if the generative model is not a good match for the actual distributions, using it might produce very bad results, even when logistic regression would work well. The independence assumption for naive Bayes and the equal covariance assumption for Gaussian models are often rather dubious.

Similarly, logistic regression may be less sensitive to outliers than a Gaussian generative model.
Neural Network Classification Models

We can also base a logistic (or probit) model on a non-linear function of $x$. For example, the function $f(x, w)$ computed by a multilayer perceptron network can define a model for a binary response by letting the probability for a response of $y = 1$ be

$$P(y = 1 | x, w) = \left[ 1 + \exp(-f(x, w)) \right]^{-1} = \sigma(f(x, w))$$

where $\sigma(a) = 1/(1 + e^{-a})$.

It’s easy to see that the derivative of $\sigma$ is $\sigma'(a) = \sigma(a)(1 - \sigma(a)) = \sigma(a)\sigma(-a)$. This is used when computing derivatives by backpropagation.
Logistic, Probit, or ...?

If any non-linear function of $x$ is equally allowed, the choice of the logistic form (versus probit or other form) for $P(C_1|x)$ doesn’t really matter, since any function $P(C_1|x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-a(x)))$ can be obtained with an appropriate $a(x)$. However, in practice, non-linear models are biased towards some non-linear functions more than others, so it does matter whether a logistic or probit model is being used, though not as much as when $a(x)$ must be linear.
Gaussian Process Models for Classification

A Gaussian process logistic regression model for data \((x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)\) with the \(y_i\) being binary can be expressed as

\[
\theta \sim \ldots \\
\theta \sim \text{GP}(\theta) \\
y_i \mid x_i, f \sim \text{Bernoulli} \left( 1 / (1 + \exp(-f(x_i))) \right)
\]

where \(\theta\) represent all the parameters of the Gaussian process’s covariance function.

Alternatively, we could use a probit model, with

\[
y_i \mid x_i, f \sim \text{Bernoulli} \left( \Phi(f(x_i)) \right)
\]

However, with neither of these models can we use simple matrix operations to evaluate \(P(y|x, \theta)\), or to predict a new \(y^*\) by \(P(y^*|x^*, y, x, \theta)\).
The Latent Gaussian Process

To do computations for Gaussian process classification, we need to explicitly represent the “latent variables” \( z_i = f(x_i) \).

Using matrix operations, we can compute the joint density of the latent variables and observed responses (for given \( \theta \)):

\[
P(z_1, \ldots, z_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n \mid x_1, \ldots, x_n, \theta)
= P(z_1, \ldots, z_n \mid x_1, \ldots, x_n, \theta) P(y_1, \ldots, y_n \mid z_1, \ldots, z_n)
\]

The first factor above (the prior for latent variables) is Gaussian; the second (the likelihood for these latent variables) is a simple product of Bernoulli probabilities (from a logit or probit model).
Implementing the model with Latent Variables

Two methods are commonly used for handling the latent variables:

**Approximate their posterior distribution by a Gaussian:** The prior for \( z_1, \ldots, z_n \) given \( \theta \) is Gaussian. The likelihood, \( P(y_1, \ldots, y_n \mid z_1, \ldots, z_n) \), is not, but as \( n \to \infty \) it will approach a Gaussian form. Maybe a Gaussian approximation of the posterior for \( z_1, \ldots, z_n \) will be adequate for finite \( n \).

**Sample for the latent variables using Markov chain Monte Carlo:** We use a Markov chain to sample \( z_1, \ldots, z_n \), conditional on \( \theta \) and \( x_i, \ldots, x_n \). We also sample for \( \theta \) (unless it is fixed). We them make a prediction for a test case at \( x^* \) by averaging \( P(y^* \mid x^*, z, x, \theta) \) over the sample of values we obtain for \( z \) and \( \theta \).
Illustration of a Gaussian Process Classification Model

Consider a Gaussian process classification model with one input, with covariance function $K(x, x') = 0.5^2 + 3^2 \exp(-5^2(x - x')^2)$. Below is a random sample from the latent Gaussian process at $x$ values drawn uniformly from $(0, 1)$, the resulting probabilities that $y = 1$, and values for $y$ drawn according to these probabilities: