Chapter 4: Classification

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The linear model in Ch. 3 assumes the response variable Y is quantitiative. But in many situations, the response is categorical.

In this chapter we will look at approaches for predicting categorical responses, a process known as *classification*.

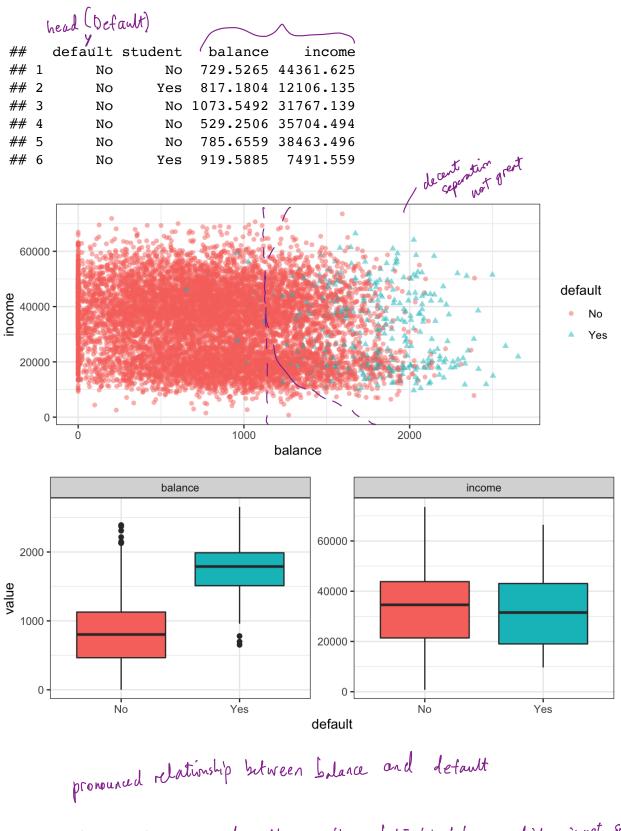
Classification problems occur often, perhaps even more so than regression problems. Some examples include

- 1. A person arrives at on ER w/ set of symptoms that could possibly be attributed to three medical conditions. Which of these three conditions does the person have?
- 2. An online banking service smust be able to determine if a transaction is fraudulent based on user's IP address, past transaction history retain
- 3. Something is in the street in front of the self-driving car you are riding in. The car must decide if it is a human a not.

As with regression, in the classification setting we have a set of training observations $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ that we can use to build a classifier. We want our classifier to perform well on the training data and also on data not used to fit the model (**test data**).

most importantly.

J We will use the Default data set in the ISLR package for illustrative purposes. We are interested in predicting whether a person will default on their credit card payment on the basis of annual income and credit card balance. yes or no => categorical predictor => classification



in most real world problems the relationship between predictor is not so clear.

1 Why not Linear Regression?

I have said that linear regression is not appropriate in the case of a categorical response. Why not?

Let's try it anyways. We could consider encoding the values of default in a quantitative repsonse variable Y

 $Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if default} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Using this coding, we could then fit a linear regression model to predict Y on the basis of **income** and **balance**. This implies an ordering on the outcome, not defaulting comes first before defaulting and insists the difference between these two outcomes is 1 unit. In practice, there is no reason for this to be true.

We could let $Y = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if default} \\ \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ $Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if default} \\ 10 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

There is no hatural reason for 0/1 encoding, but it does have an advantage;

Using the dummy encoding, we can get a rough estimate of P(default|X), but it is not guaranteed to be scaled correctly.

doesn't have to be between Oand 1. but will provide us an orderity.

Real problem: this cannot be extended to more than 2 classes. We can instead use methods specifically formulated for altegorial responses.

2 Logistic Regression

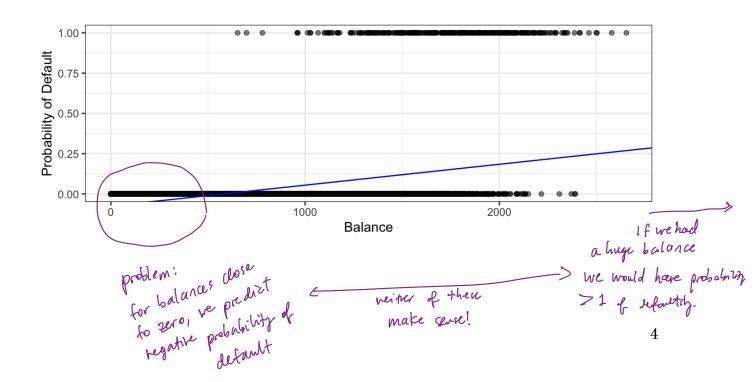
Let's consider again the default variable which takes values Yes or No. Rather than modeling the response directly, logistic regression models the *probability* that Y belongs to a particular category.

For any given value of balance, a prediction can be made for default.

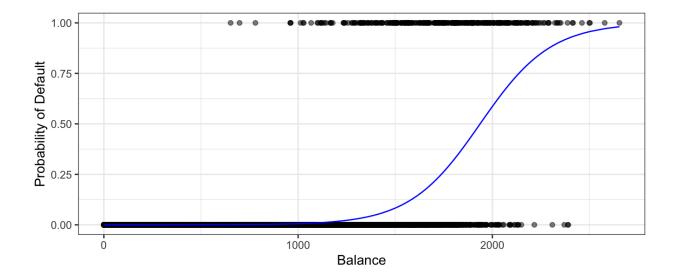
2.1 The Model

using of encoding. How should we model the relationship between p(X) = P(Y = 1|X) and X? We could use a linear regression model to represent those probabilities

$$P(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X.$$



To avoid this, we must model p(X) using a function that gives outputs between 0 and 1 for all values of X. Many functions meet this description, but in *logistic* regression, we use the *logistic* function,



After a bit of manipulation,

By taking the logarithm of both sides we see,

Recall from Ch. 3 that β_1 gives the "average change in Y associated with a one unit increase in X." In contrast, in a logistic model,

However, because the relationship between p(X) and X is not linear, β_1 does **not** correspond to the change in p(X) associated with a one unit increase in X. The amount that p(X) changes due to a 1 unit increase in X depends on the current value of X.

2.2 Estimating the Coefficients

The coefficients β_0 and β_1 are unknown and must be estimated based on the available training data. To find estimates, we will use the method of *maximum likelihood*.

The basic intuition is that we seek estimates for β_0 and β_1 such that the predicted probability $\hat{p}(x_i)$ of default for each individual corresponds as closely as possible to the individual's observed default status.

```
m1 <- glm(default ~ balance, family = "binomial", data = Default)</pre>
```

```
summary(m1)
```

```
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = default ~ balance, family = "binomial", data = Default)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
##
       Min
                 10
                      Median
                                   3Q
                                           Max
## -2.2697 -0.1465 -0.0589 -0.0221
                                        3.7589
##
## Coefficients:
##
                 Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -1.065e+01
                           3.612e-01
                                      -29.49
                                               <2e-16 ***
## balance
                5.499e-03 2.204e-04
                                       24.95
                                               <2e-16 ***
## ___
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
##
       Null deviance: 2920.6
                                       degrees of freedom
                              on 9999
## Residual deviance: 1596.5
                              on 9998 degrees of freedom
## AIC: 1600.5
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 8
```

2.3 Predictions

Once the coefficients have been estimated, it is a simple matter to compute the probability of default for any given credit card balance. For example, we predict that the default probability for an individual with balance of \$1,000 is

In contrast, the predicted probability of default for an individual with a balance of 2,000 is

2.4 Multiple Logistic Regression

We now consider the problem of predicting a binary response using multiple predictors. By analogy with the extension from simple to multiple linear regression,

Just as before, we can use maximum likelihood to estimate $\beta_0, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_p$.

```
m2 <- glm(default ~ ., family = "binomial", data = Default)
summary(m2)</pre>
```

```
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = default ~ ., family = "binomial", data = Default)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
##
      Min
                1Q
                     Median
                                  3Q
                                          Max
## -2.4691 -0.1418 -0.0557 -0.0203
                                       3.7383
##
## Coefficients:
                Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept) -1.087e+01 4.923e-01 -22.080 < 2e-16 ***
## studentYes -6.468e-01 2.363e-01 -2.738 0.00619 **
## balance
              5.737e-03 2.319e-04 24.738 < 2e-16 ***
## income
              3.033e-06 8.203e-06 0.370 0.71152
## ___
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
##
      Null deviance: 2920.6 on 9999 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 1571.5 on 9996 degrees of freedom
## AIC: 1579.5
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 8
```

By substituting estimates for the regression coefficients from the model summary, we can make predictions. For example, a student with a credit card balance of \$1,500 and an income of \$40,000 has an estimated probability of default of

A non-student with the same balance and income has an estimated probability of default of

2.5 Logistic Regression for > 2 Classes

We sometimes which to classify a response variable that has more than two classes. There are multi-class extensions to logistic regression ("multinomial regression"), but there are far more popular methods of performing this.