Statistical Learning– MATH 6333 Set 4 (Linear Methods for Classification)

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- 1. Multiple linear regression and K-NN
- 2. Logistic (binomial) regression, and multinomial regression
- 3. Log-linear (Poisson) regression, and negative binomial regression
- 4. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)
- 5. Quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA)
- 6. Naïve Bayes

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Special case for illustration

The linear classification model (classifier)

$$f_k(X) = \beta_{k,0} + \beta_{k,1}x_1 + \cdots + \beta_{k,p}x_p = X\beta_k$$

for the training data

$$\mathcal{T} = \{(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip}, y_i \text{ or } G_i) : i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$$

where

$$G \in \mathcal{G} = \{ class_1, \dots, class_K \}$$

The idea is to classify items using linear decision boundaries (affine set/hyperplane) between class_k and class_{ℓ}

$$\mathcal{B}_{k,\ell} = \{ \boldsymbol{x} : \boldsymbol{x}^T \hat{\beta}_k = \boldsymbol{x}^T \hat{\beta}_\ell \}$$

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for $k \neq \ell$ and $k, \ell = 1, \ldots, K$.

The left panel: decision boundaries are linear in X_1 and X_2 .



The right panel: decision boundaries are linear in X_1, X_2, X_1X_2, X_1^2 and X_2^2 .

The left panel: decision boundaries are linear in X_1 and X_2 .



The right panel: decision boundaries are linear in X_1, X_2, X_1X_2, X_1^2 and X_2^2 .

Example (South African Heart Disease Data)

A retrospective sample of males in a heart-disease high-risk region of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Variables						
Name	Description	Туре				
sbp	systolic blood pressure	continuous				
tobacco	cumulative tobacco (kg)	continuous				
ldl	low density lipoprotein cholesterol	continuous				
adiposity	waist circumference	continuous				
famhist	family history of heart disease	dichotomous				
	(Present, Absent)					
typea	type-A behavior	continuous				
obesity	body mass index (BMI)	continuous				
alcohol	current alcohol consumption	continuous				
age	age at onset	continuous				
chd	response, coronary heart disease	dichotomous				
	(1=yes,0=no)					

Example (Classification of iris flowers)



Setosa



Versicolor



Virginica

Goal: To classify an iris flower based on the inputs: sepal length in cm, sepal width in cm, petal length in cm, and petal width in cm. Iris data and its description are available at https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/iris

Example (Vowel Recognition (Speech) Data)

Recognition of the eleven steady state vowels of British English using the following list of words that are uttered once

Number	Vowel	Word	Number	Vowel	Word
1	i	heed	7	0	hod
2	I	hid	8	C:	hoard
3	E	head	9	U	hood
4	A	had	10	u:	who'd
5	a:	hard	11	3:	heard
6	Y	hud			

The response *y* is the vowel number and the inputs $x.1, \ldots, x.10$ are log areas calculated using speech signals.

All textbook data, including SA heart disease data and vowel recognition data, and their description are available at https://web.stanford.edu/~hastie/ ElemStatLearn/data.html

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Partitioning methods split the space of inputs into a number of disjoint sub-spaces.

Using a discriminant functions $\delta_k(x)$ for k = 1, ..., K, a classification prediction about an input x_* could be made using

 $k_* = \operatorname{argmax} \delta_k(x_*)$

and the decision boundary between $class_k$ and $class_\ell$

$$\mathcal{B}_{k,\ell} = \{ x : \delta_k(x) = \delta_\ell(x) \}$$

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for $k \neq \ell$ and $k, \ell = 1, \ldots, K$.

Example (Illustrative example - not real) For $\mathcal{G} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, let the discriminant function be

 $\delta(x) = c \times (.1 + .2x, .2 + .15x, .3 - .1x, .1 + .05x)$

for 0 < x < 1 and some constant c > 0.

For $x_* = .25$, $\delta(x_*) = c \times (.15, .2375, .275, .1125)$, thus $k_* = 3$.

Also, the decision boundary between class₁ and class₃

$$\mathcal{B}_{1,3} = \{ x : x = \frac{2}{3} \}.$$

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Two general types:

- Probability-based Classification Methods; e.g., multiple linear regression and logistic regression
- Bayes-based Classification Methods; e.g., linear and quadratic discriminant analyses, and naïve Bayes

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Example (Vowel Recognition (Speech) Data)

Technique	Error Rates	
	Training	Test
Linear regression	0.48	0.67
Linear discriminant analysis	0.32	0.56
Quadratic discriminant analysis	0.01	0.53
Logistic regression	0.22	0.51

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Probability-based Classification Methods

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(Multi-response or K-response) Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple Linear Regression

Response Y_i of item i,

$$Y_i = (I(G_i = 1), \dots, I(G_i = k), \dots, I(G_i = K))$$

= (0, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, \ldots, 0)
$$k^{th} \text{ element}$$

is an indicator that item *i* belongs to class *k*. It is a vector of indicator variables I(G = k), k = 1, ..., K.

The $N \times K$ indicator response matrix $Y = \begin{vmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y \end{vmatrix}$

Let us call column *k* of the matrix *Y* by

$$y_k := (I(G_1 = k), \dots, I(G_N = k))^T$$

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Multiple Linear Regression

The model is

$$Y = XB + \mathcal{E}$$

where

- *B* is a $(p + 1) \times K$ coefficient matrix
- X is the N × (p + 1) model matrix with ones in the first column
- \mathcal{E} is a $N \times K$ matrix noise

It is a K simultaneous regression problems of the columns

$$y_k = (I(G_1 = k), \dots, I(G_N = k))^T$$

over the inputs X to estimate the column vector β_k .

Multiple Linear Regression

Predictions of the training data X are

$$\hat{Y} = X\widehat{B} = X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

For a new input x_* (with 1 in the first entry), the prediction $\hat{f}(x_*) = (\hat{f}_1(x_*), \dots, \hat{f}_K(x_*))$ is the discriminant function $\delta(x_*) = (\delta_1(x_*), \dots, \delta_K(x_*))$ and is given by

$$\widehat{f}(x_*) = x_*^T \widehat{B}$$

where $\hat{f}_k(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{f}_k(x) = 1$ for any x.

The optimal class k_* is

$$\hat{G}(x_*) = \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in \mathcal{G}} \hat{f}_k(x_*)$$

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But that method has problems when $K \ge 3$. For example,



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Multiple Linear Regression

Still MLR is a valid method for classification, but where is the probability in it?



Multiple Linear Regression

Note that the regression function

$$E(I(G=k)|X=x) = P(G=k|X=x)$$

is the discriminant function $\delta_k(x)$ that is modeled by

$$f_k(x) = \beta_{k,0} + \beta_{k,1}x_1 + \dots + \beta_{k,p}x_p = x^T\beta_k$$

and is estimated by $\hat{f}_k(x)$, while it could be outside the interval [0, 1]. (A drawback.)

The optimal class k_* is

$$\hat{G}(x_*) = \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in \mathcal{G}} \hat{f}_k(x_*) = \operatorname{argmin}_{k \in \mathcal{G}} ||\hat{f}(x_*) - t_k^{\mathcal{T}}||$$

where the target vector t_k is a vector of 1 in the k^{th} location and zeros otherwise.

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A Preamble to Generalized Linear Regression

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A Preamble to Generalized Linear Regression

Generalized Linear Regression, takes the form

$$g(E(Y|X=x))=x^{T}\beta$$

• $g(\mu)$ is the **link** function in the mean $\mu = E(Y|X = x)$ of an exponential family distribution of [Y|X = x].

If [Y|X = x] ~ N(μ, σ²), which is an exponential family with mean μ.

► Then g is the identity link function g(µ) = µ. So the generalized linear regression is nothing but multiple linear regression:

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A Preamble to Generalized Linear Regression

If [Y|X = x] ~ Poisson(λ), which is an exponential family with mean μ = λ.

Then g is the logarithmic link function g(λ) = log(λ). So the generalized linear regression is the log-linear (Poisson) regression:

$$g(E(Y|X=x)) = \log(E(Y|X=x)) = x^T \beta$$

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That is E(Y|X = x) = P(Y = 1|X = x) = 1 - P(Y = 0|X = x).

Then g is the logit link function g(p) = logit(p) := log(^p/_{1-p}).
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- That is E(Y|X = x) = P(Y = 1|X = x) = 1 P(Y = 0|X = x).
- Then g is the logit link function g(p) = logit(p) := log(p/(1-p)).
 So the generalized linear regression is the logistic (Binomial) regression:

$$\operatorname{logit}(E(Y|X=x)) = x^{T}\beta$$

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A Preamble to Generalized Linear Regression

which is

$$logit(P(Y = 1 | X = x)) = x^T \beta$$

and is

$$\log\left(\frac{P(Y=1|X=x)}{P(Y=0|X=x)}\right) = x^{T}\beta$$

or equivalently

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

and

$$P(Y = 0|X = x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{x^T \beta}}$$

In terms of groups, G = 1 when Y = 1 and G = 2 when Y = 0.

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Multinomial (K– response or softmax) Logistic Regression

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Multinomial distribution

Recall: (Y₁, Y₂,..., Y_K) ~multinomial(n, p₁, p₂,..., p_K) has a probability function given by

$$P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_K = y_K) = \frac{n!}{y_1! y_2! \cdots y_K!} p_1^{y_1} p_2^{y_2} \cdots p_K^{y_K}$$

for
$$y_k = 0, 1, ..., n$$
, and $k = 1, 2, ..., K$; such that $\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k = 1$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k = n$.

The mean of Y_k is E(Y_k) = np_k, the variance is Var(Y_k) = np_k(1 − p_k), and the covariance is COV(Y_k, Y_ℓ) = −np_kp_ℓ for k ≠ ℓ.

If n = 1, then all of the (indicators) y_k's are equal to zero except one and only one of them that must be equal to 1.

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Logistic Regression

The model of the (softmax) logistic regression:

$$\log\left(\frac{P(G_i = \ell | X = x_i)}{P(G_i = K | X = x_i)}\right) = x_i^T \beta_\ell$$

for $\ell = 1, 2, ..., K - 1$ and i = 1, 2, ..., N. Thus,

$$p_{i,\ell} := P(G_i = \ell | X = x_i) = \frac{e^{x_i^T \beta_\ell}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{x_i^T \beta_k}}$$

for $\ell = 1, 2, ..., K - 1$ and

$$p_{i,K} := P(G_i = K | X = x_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{x_i^T \beta_k}}$$

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for *i* = 1, 2, ..., *N*.

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Logistic Regression

Thus, the $[Y_1, \ldots, Y_K | X = x_i] \sim$ multinomial $(1, p_{i,1}, p_{i,2}, \ldots, p_{i,K})$'s likelihood function of the training data is

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(\beta) &= \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{y_{i,1}! \, y_{i,2}! \cdots y_{i,K}!} \, p_{i,1}^{y_{i,1}} p_{i,2}^{y_{i,2}} \cdots p_{i,K}^{y_{i,K}} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{N} \prod_{\ell=1}^{K-1} \left(\frac{e^{x_i^T \beta_\ell}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{x_i^T \beta_k}} \right)^{y_{i,\ell}} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{x_i^T \beta_K}} \right)^{1 - \sum_{\ell=1}^{K-1} y_{i,\ell}} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{e^{x_i^T \sum_{\ell=1}^{K-1} y_{i,\ell} \beta_\ell}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{x_i^T \beta_K}} \end{split}$$

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Logistic Regression

The log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[x_i^T (\sum_{\ell=1}^{K-1} y_{i,\ell} \beta_\ell) - \log(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{x_i^T \beta_K}) \right]$$

For brevity, let K = 2 and $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$. The log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[y_i x_i^T \beta - \log(1 + e^{x_i^T \beta}) \right]$$

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Logistic Regression

Thus, the score function

$$rac{\partial \ell(eta)}{\partial eta} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - p_i) x_i^T = X^T (y - p)$$

when set equal to zero it gives a system of p + 1 nonlinear equations in $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p$, the first of which is $\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i$.

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Logistic Regression

In addition, the Hessian matrix

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T} = -\sum_{i=1}^N p_i (1 - p_i) x_i x_i^T = -X^T W X$$

where *W* is a diagonal matrix whose i^{th} diagonal entry is $p_i(1 - p_i)$. The information matrix is

$$-\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T}\Big|_{\hat{\beta}} = X^T \widehat{W} X$$

where \widehat{W} is the matrix W calculated at $\hat{\beta}$.

Based on asymptotic theorem $\hat{\beta} \sim MN_{p+1}(\beta, \frac{1}{N}(X^T\widehat{W}X)^{-1})$

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Logistic Regression

The MLE $\hat{\beta}$ is found iteratively using Newton's algorithm

$$\beta^{new} = \beta^{old} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T} \Big|_{\beta^{old}} \right)^{-1} \cdot \left. \frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \Big|_{\beta^{old}}$$
$$= \beta^{old} + (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T (y - p)$$

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Logistic Regression

The MLE $\hat{\beta}$ is found iteratively using Newton's algorithm

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= $(X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W Z$

which is referred to iterative re-weighted least squares (IRLS). Each iteration is nothing but the solution of weighted least squares

$$\beta^{new} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta}(z - X\beta)^{T} W(z - X\beta).$$

Logistic Regression

Example (SA Heart Disease) First,

	Coefficient	Std. Error	Z Score
(Intercept)	-4.130	0.964	-4.285
sbp	0.006	0.006	1.023
tobacco	0.080	0.026	3.034
ldl	0.185	0.057	3.219
famhist	0.939	0.225	4.178
obesity	-0.035	0.029	-1.187
alcohol	0.001	0.004	0.136
age	0.043	0.010	4.184

Logistic Regression

Example (SA Heart Disease) Finally,

	Coefficient	Std. Error	Z score
(Intercept)	-4.204	0.498	-8.45
tobacco	0.081	0.026	3.16
ldl	0.168	0.054	3.09
famhist	0.924	0.223	4.14
age	0.044	0.010	4.52

Logistic Regression

- 1. make a scatter plot of the data for one or two inputs.
- 2. Use glm to fit a multiple linear regression (MLR) to the data.
- 3. Plot the best fit of the MLR to the data against those one or two, probably significant, inputs; e.g, age and tobacco. What do you see?
- 4. Check out the assumptions by performing residual analyses. What do you see?
- 5. Use glm and/or glmnet to fit a logistic regression (Log-R) to the data.
- 6. Plot the best fit of the Log-R to the data against those one or two, probably significant, inputs. What do you see?

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- 6. Plot the best fit of the Log-R to the data against those one or two, probably significant, inputs. What do you see?

Logistic Regression

Example (SA Heart Disease)

- 1. make a scatter plot of the data for one or two inputs.
- 2. Use glm to fit a multiple linear regression (MLR) to the data.
- 3. Plot the best fit of the MLR to the data against those one or two, probably significant, inputs; e.g, age and tobacco. What do you see?
- 4. Check out the assumptions by performing residual analyses. What do you see?
- 5. Use glm and/or glmnet to fit a logistic regression (Log-R) to the data.
- 6. Plot the best fit of the Log-R to the data against those one or two, probably significant, inputs. What do you see?

Logistic Regression -Inference

Logistic Regression - Inference - CI

Since by asymptotic theorem

$$\hat{eta} \sim MN_{p+1}(eta, \widehat{V})$$

where $\widehat{V} = \frac{1}{N} (X^T \widehat{W} X)^{-1}$ then

 $\boldsymbol{c}^{\mathsf{T}}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim \boldsymbol{N}(\boldsymbol{c}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\mathsf{T}}\widehat{\boldsymbol{V}}\boldsymbol{c})$

Thus a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI for the log odds-ratio logit(P(Y = 1|X = x)) is

$$x^{T}\hat{\beta} \pm z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x^{T}\hat{V}x}$$

and a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI for the probability P(Y = 1|X = x) is

$$\left(\frac{\exp(x^{T}\hat{\beta}-z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x^{T}\widehat{V}x})}{1+\exp(x^{T}\hat{\beta}-z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x^{T}\widehat{V}x})},\frac{\exp(x^{T}\hat{\beta}+z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x^{T}\widehat{V}x})}{1+\exp(x^{T}\hat{\beta}+z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x^{T}\widehat{V}x})}\right)$$

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Logistic Regression - Inference - Test of Hypothesis

Wald's test:

 $H_0: A\beta = b$ versus $H_A: A\beta \neq b$

where *A* is $q \times (p+1)$ matrix of rank $q \le p+1$, and *b* is an $q \times 1$ column vector.

Using Wald's test statistics

$$W_0 = (A\hat{\beta} - b)^T (A(X^T \widehat{W} X)^{-1} A^T)^{-1} (A\hat{\beta} - b) \sim \chi_q^2$$

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Logistic Regression - Inference - Test of Hypothesis

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Logistic Regression - Inference - Test of Hypothesis

Likelihood-ratio test: (More powerful)

 $H_0: D\beta = 0$ versus $H_A: D\beta \neq 0$

where *D* is $(p + 1) \times (p + 1)$ diagonal matrix of ones and zeros to select the parameters to test being equal to zero.

Using likelihood-ratio test statistics

$$LR_0 = -2\ell(\hat{eta}_{\mathsf{restricted}}) + 2\ell(\hat{eta}_{\mathsf{full}}) \sim \chi^2_{\mathit{tr}(D)}$$

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Logistic Regression - Inference - Test of Hypothesis

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Logistic Regression

Example (SA Heart Disease) **DIY** in R

1. Carry out the following test of hypotheses

 H_0 : β_1 and $\beta_3 = 0$ versus H_A : either β_1 or $\beta_3 \neq 0$

2. Carry out the following test of hypotheses

 H_0 : β_1 and $\beta_3 = 0$ and $\beta_2 + \beta_4 = 2\beta_5$

versus

 H_A : either $\beta_1 \neq 0$ or $\beta_3 \neq 0$ or $\beta_2 + \beta_4 \neq 2\beta_5$

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Logistic Regression

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 H_A : either $\beta_1 \neq 0$ or $\beta_3 \neq 0$ or $\beta_2 + \beta_4 \neq 2\beta_5$

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Logistic Regression -Prediction

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Logistic Regression - Prediction

For prediction at x_* , the probability

$$\delta_1(x_*) = P(\hat{Y} = 1 | X = x_*) = \frac{exp(x_*^T \hat{\beta})}{1 + exp(x_*^T \hat{\beta})}$$

with a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI for the probability $P(Y = 1|X = x_*)$ is

$$\left(\frac{\exp(x_*^T\hat{\beta}-z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x_*^T\widehat{V}x_*})}{1+\exp(x_*^T\hat{\beta}-z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x_*^T\widehat{V}x_*})},\frac{\exp(x_*^T\hat{\beta}+z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x_*^T\widehat{V}x_*})}{1+\exp(x_*^T\hat{\beta}+z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{x_*^T\widehat{V}x_*})}\right)$$

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Logistic Regression - Prediction

How to choose the decision boundary?

- If $\delta_1(x_*) \ge .5$, then $\hat{G}(x_*) = 1$, otherwise $\hat{G}(x_*) = 2$. OR
- Use a cut-off point other than .5, that minimizes the mis-classification error in cross-validation or in the whole training data.

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Logistic Regression

- 1. Make some predictions using a cutoff at .5.
- 2. Try to find a better cutoff point.
- 3. Use that better cutoff point for predictions.

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L₁- Regularized Logistic Regression

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L₁-Regularized Logistic Regression

The idea is to shrink and select the inputs using standardized training data and so

$$\hat{\beta}^{L_1} = argmax_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[y_i x_i^T \beta - \log(1 + e^{x_i^T \beta}) \right] - \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$
L1-Regularized Logistic Regression

Example (SA Heart Disease)



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L1-Regularized Logistic Regression

Example (SA Heart Disease) **DIY** in R

- 1. Carry out a *L*₁-Regularized Logistic Regression using *glmnet*.
- 2. Carry out the elastic-net Logistic regression using glmnet.

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Please study the different feature of the glmnet from https: //glmnet.stanford.edu/articles/glmnet.html

Bayes-based Classification Methods

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By Bayes theorem,

$$P(G = k | X = x) = \frac{P(X = x | G = k) P(G = k)}{P(X = x)}$$
$$= \frac{P(X = x | G = k) P(G = k)}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{K} P(X = x | G = \ell) P(G = \ell)}$$
$$= \frac{f_k(x) \pi_k}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{K} f_\ell(x) \pi_\ell}$$

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even for continuous r.v. $X) = \frac{f_k(x)\pi_k}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{K} f_\ell(x)\pi_\ell}$

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(even for continuous r.v. X) = $\frac{f_k(x)\pi_k}{\sum_{\ell=1}^{K} f_\ell(x)\pi_\ell}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$

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where $\pi_k = P(G = k)$ are the prior probabilities such that $\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1$ and $f_k(x)$ is the density of X in class k.

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where $\pi_k = P(G = k)$ are the prior probabilities such that $\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1$ and $f_k(x)$ is the density of X in class k.

We use the discriminant function

$$\delta_k(x) = \log(f_k(x)\pi_k)$$

after removing constants, and

 $G(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_k \delta_k(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_k \left[\log(f_k(x)) + \log(\pi_k) \right]$

Therefore,

$$\frac{P(G=k|X=x)}{P(G=\ell|X=x)} = \frac{f_k(x)\pi_k}{f_\ell(x)\pi_\ell}$$

for any *k* and ℓ , and so

$$\log\left(\frac{P(G=k|X=x)}{P(G=\ell|X=x)}\right) = \log(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_\ell}) + \log(\frac{f_k(x)}{f_\ell(x)})$$

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The density f_k determines the method.

- Linear and quadratic discriminant analysis use normal/Gaussian distribution f_k
- Mixed discriminant analyses use a mixture of Gaussian distributions for f_k
- Naïve Bayes uses a product of probability distributions for f_k

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 f_k could be any general non-parametric density

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Linear & Quadratic Discriminant Analyses

Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

The density f_k is assumed to be a multivariate normal (Gaussian) $MN_p(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$, for k = 1, 2, ..., K. That is,

$$f_k(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x-\mu_k)}$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$.

1. If $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$ for all k, then it is linear discriminant analysis.

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2. If Σ_k depends on k, then it is quadratic discriminant analysis.

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2. If Σ_k depends on k, then it is quadratic discriminant analysis.

Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

For any k and ℓ ,

$$\frac{f_k(x)}{f_\ell(x)} = \frac{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x-\mu_k)}}{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma_\ell|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(x-\mu_\ell)}}$$
$$= \frac{|\Sigma_\ell|^{1/2}}{|\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x-\mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(x-\mu_\ell)}}$$

and

exponent =
$$-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x - \mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(x - \mu_\ell)$$

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Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

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+ $\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell)$

Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

$$exponent = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x - \mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1} (x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell) = \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T (\Sigma_\ell^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1}) (x - \mu_k)$$

Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

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Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

$$exponent = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x - \mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell) = \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T (\Sigma_\ell^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1})(x - \mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(\mu_k - \mu_\ell) + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1}(x - \mu_k)$$

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Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

$$exponent = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x - \mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1} (x - \mu_k + \mu_k - \mu_\ell) = \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_k)^T (\Sigma_\ell^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1}) (x - \mu_k) + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_k - \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_\ell) + (x - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_\ell^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_\ell)$$

Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

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Thus, in LDA

$$\frac{f_k(x)}{f_\ell(x)} = e^{x^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_\ell) - \frac{1}{2} (\mu_k + \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_\ell)}$$

Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)

In linear discriminant analysis (LDA)...

$$\log\left(\frac{P(G=k|X=x)}{P(G=\ell|X=x)}\right) = x^{T}\Sigma^{-1}(\mu_{k}-\mu_{\ell})$$
$$-\frac{1}{2}(\mu_{k}+\mu_{\ell})^{T}\Sigma^{-1}(\mu_{k}-\mu_{\ell}) + \log(\frac{\pi_{k}}{\pi_{\ell}})$$

for any k and ℓ . And the linear discriminant function is

$$\delta_k(x) = x^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k - \frac{1}{2} \mu_k^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_k + \log(\pi_k)$$

and again

$$G(x) = argmax_k \delta_k(x)$$

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What are the similarities and differences with logistic regression?

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Quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA)

Whereas in quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA)...

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for some a_k , $b_{k,i}$, and $c_{k,i,j}$ functions in the priors and parameters.

Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

Generally speaking, the decision boundary $\mathcal{B}_{k,\ell}$ is given through $\delta_k = \delta_\ell$ Thus,

 $\mathcal{B}_{k,\ell} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{p} : x^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_{k} - \mu_{\ell}) \\ - \frac{1}{2} (\mu_{k} + \mu_{\ell})^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_{k} - \mu_{\ell}) + \log(\frac{\pi_{k}}{\pi_{\ell}}) = 0 \}$

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Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

The left panel: simulated data with $(X_1, X_2) \sim N_2(\mu_k, \Sigma)$ for k = 1, 2, 3. (Contours are for 95% volume.) (- - pairwise sep.)



The right panel: decision boundaries are due to LDA in X_1 and X_2 .

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Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

How can we specify the priors π_k and identify μ_k and Σ_k for all k?

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Linear and quadratic discriminant analyses

One way is to invoke Laplace principle

$$\pi_k = \frac{1}{K}$$

Or better to empirically estimate them by

$$\hat{\pi}_k = \frac{N_k}{N}$$

where

$$N_k = \sum_{i=1}^N I(i \in class_k)$$

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The centers/means are estimated by

$$\hat{\mu}_{k} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{i \in \text{class}_{k}} x_{i}$$

The covariance matrices are estimated by

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_k = rac{1}{N_k - 1} \sum_{i \in ext{class}_k} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k) (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)^{ op}$$

In case of LDA, the covariance matrix is the pooled estimate given by

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Naïve Bayes Classifier

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Naïve Bayes Classifier

The density f_k is assumed to be a the product of density functions of p independent random variables $f_{k,i}(x_i)$, for k = 1, 2, ..., K and i = 1, 2, ..., p. That is,

$$f_k(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} f_{k,i}(x_i)$$

for $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$. In which case the discriminant function is

$$\delta_k(x) = \sum_{i=1}^p \log(f_{k,i}(x_i)) + \log(\pi_k)$$

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after removing constants.

Naïve Bayes Classifier

For NBC ...

$$\log\left(\frac{P(G=k|X=x)}{P(G=\ell|X=x)}\right) = \log(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_\ell}) + \sum_{i=1}^p \log\left(\frac{f_{k,i}(x_i)}{f_{\ell,i}(x_i)}\right)$$

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$$= a_k + \sum_{i=1}^p g_{k,i}(x_i)$$

which is a generalized additive model (GAM).

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Naïve Bayes Classifier

The densities $f_{k,i}(x_i)$ could be parametric like

- 1. $N(\mu_{k,i}, \sigma_{k,i}^2)$ or
- **2.** *Gamma*($\alpha_{k,i}, \beta_{k,i}$)
- 3. Beta $(\alpha_{k,i}, \beta_{k,i})$ for within class standardized data in which cases, the parameters need to be estimated based on the training data (using MLEs for example).
- 4. $f_{K,i}(x_i)$ could be empirically estimated as non-parametric.
 - If X_j is quantitative, then use the relative frequency histogram or better the kernel density estimator for the x_j within each class k to be f_{k,j}.
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LDA, QDA, KNN, and naïve Bayes

Example (SA Heart Disease) **DIY** in R

1. Carry out LDA and QDA using MASS.

- 2. Carry out naïve Bayes classification using *e1071*.
- 3. Carry out KNN classification using *class*.
- 4. To evaluate the performance of the classifiers: produce a confusion matrix (a table of predicted vs actual classes) for all of the previous methods. Then calculate sensitivity (% of true positive identified as positive) and specificity (% of true negative identified as negative).

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Please study the different methods in the ISL book. See also Poisson regression using R in the ISL.

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Example (Simulated data in \mathbb{R}^2)



The orange line is based on least squares which is also equivalent to LDA in that situation of two classes. It is not perfect.

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Rosenblatt's Perceptron Learning Algorithm.

 Optimal Separating Hyperplanes (a step towards support vector machines).

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Rosenblatt's Perceptron Learning Algorithm.

For
$$y = \pm 1$$
,

perceptron =sign(
$$\beta_0 + x^T \beta$$
)

 Optimal Separating Hyperplanes (a step towards support vector machines).

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From linear algebra ...

• $\beta^* = \frac{\beta}{\|\beta\|}$ is orthonormal to the separating hyperplane

$$L = \{ \boldsymbol{x} : \beta_0 + \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{0} \}$$



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Note that, signed distance of x₁ ∈ L is zero.



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Rosenblatt's Perceptron Learning Algorithm.

RPLA looks only at those misclassified points, put in a set \mathcal{M} , and minimizes the signed distances to the decision boundary



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RPLA looks only at those misclassified points, put in a set \mathcal{M} , and minimizes the signed distances to the decision boundary

• Minimize $D(\beta_0, \beta) = -\sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} y_i(\beta_0 + x_i^T \beta)$



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• Minimize $D(\beta_0, \beta) = -\sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} y_i(\beta_0 + x_i^T \beta) \ge 0$

The gradient is

$$\frac{\partial D}{\partial \beta_0} = -\sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} y_i$$



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Rosenblatt's Perceptron Learning Algorithm.

But instead of using steepest decent in which

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0} \\ \beta_{1} \end{pmatrix}_{new} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0} \\ \beta_{1} \end{pmatrix}_{old} + \eta \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} y_{i} \\ \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} y_{i} x_{i} \end{pmatrix}$$

with learning rate $\eta > 0$.

RPLA proceeds using stochastic gradient descent algorithm and sequentially visits each point in $\ensuremath{\mathcal{M}}$

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It requires an initial vector and TOL for stopping.

Solutions are not unique and depend on the initial vector.



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Example (Simulated data in \mathbb{R}^2)



The two blue lines are two RPLA solutions for two different initial vectors. To be rectified using constraints.

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Rosenblatt's Perceptron Learning Algorithm.

- If classes are linearly separable, RPLA converges in a finite number of steps, possibly large.
- ► The smaller the gaps between the points in *M* and *L*, the larger the number of steps is.
- That makes a problem that might be mitigated by basis transformation with the chance of overfitting.
- ▶ If they are not separable, it goes into an infinite cycle.

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Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

OSH maximizes the margins (signed distances M) of the slab



subject to $rac{1}{\|eta\|} y_i(eta_0+x_i^Teta)\geq M$ for $i=1,2,\ldots,N.$

• Set $\|\beta\| = \frac{1}{M}$



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Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

Then the problem becomes equivalent to the convex optimization problem

$$\min_{\beta_0,\beta}\frac{1}{2}\left\|\beta\right\|^2$$

subject to

$$y_i(\beta_0 + x_i^T\beta) \ge 1$$

for i = 1, 2, ..., N.



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Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

Step 1: is the Lagrange problem to

 $\min_{\beta_0,\beta} L_p$

where

$$L_{p} = \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^{2} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} (y_{i}(\beta_{0} + x_{i}^{T}\beta) - 1)$$

Setting derivatives equal to zero leads to

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i x_i = \beta$$

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Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

Substituting with those into L_p we get

$$L_{p} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} x_{i}^{T} x_{j}$$

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Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

 Step 2: Using Wolfe dual optimization, the problem becomes

$$\max_{\alpha_i} L_D$$

where

$$L_D = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_i \alpha_j \mathbf{y}_j \mathbf{y}_j \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

subject to (the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker conditions)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i x_i = \beta$$
$$\alpha_i \ge 0$$

and

$$\alpha_i(\mathbf{y}_i(\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T\beta) - \mathbf{1}) = \mathbf{0}$$

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for *i* = 1, 2, ..., *N*.

Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

• Here, β depend of α through the KKT conditions.

- If $y_i(\beta_0 + x_i^T\beta) 1 > 0$ then the point is not on the line and $\alpha_i = 0$.
- If y_i(β₀ + x_i^Tβ) − 1 = 0 then the point is on the line and α_i > 0 which will contribute to the values of β that will make up the decision boundary based on this support points on the slab's boundaries.
- Separation will occur according to $\hat{G}(x) = sign(\hat{\beta}_0 + x^T \hat{\beta}_1)$.

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Optimal Separating Hyperplanes.

Example (Simulated data in \mathbb{R}^2)



The blue line is the OHS and the red line is due to logistic regression.

End of Set 4