Computational Data Analysis

Linear Classifiers and Basis Expansion

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Todays Lecture

- Recap
- Linear Discriminant Analysis
- Logistic Regression
- ▶ Basis Expansion

Recap Lecture 3

- Curse of dimensionality
- Regularization
- Multiple testing



Recap Lecture 3

Trace Plot of coefficients fit by Elastic Net (Alpha = 0.5) off 200 4 5 9 16 25 29 35 40 45 61 190 150 50 0 -50 -100 -150 3.5 3 2.5 2 1.5 1 0.5 0

```
a = .5;
[B,FitInfo] =...
    lasso(X,Y,'alpha',a,'CV',5,'Standardize',true,'MCrep',1);
lassoPlot(B,FitInfo,'PlotType','CV');
lassoPlot(B,FitInfo,'PlotType','Lambda');
```

Lambda

Linear discriminant analysis

Classification

- Based on probability of class belonging
- Linear decision boundary

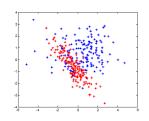
Linear Discriminant Analysis

- Classification from a probabilistic viewpoint
 - P(G=k|X=x)
 - Probability of class k, given observation x

Example:

$$P(G = \text{red}|X = [0, -1])$$
 and $P(G = \text{blue}|X = [0, -1])$

Predict that observation X = [0, -1] belongs to the class with the **highest probability**



- ▶ We need a **stochastic model** for data to calculate probabilities
- Assume that data come from different Gaussian distributions
 - Different mean
 - Same correlation structure (just for simplicity)
- Data from different classes will overlap
- A straight line will be our decision boundary

Calculating class probabilities

G(x) predicts class belonging for x,

$$G(x) = \arg\max_{k} \mathbf{P}(G = k | X = x).$$

Probablity given by Bayes theorem

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

 $f_\ell=$ distribution for class ℓ $\pi_\ell=$ a priori probability for class ℓ (estimate or best guess) Total probability, $\sum \pi_\ell=1$.

Odds-rations

Look at log-**odds-ratio** for the two classes k and ℓ

$$\log \frac{\mathbf{P}(G = k|X = x)}{\mathbf{P}(G = \ell|X = x)} = \log \frac{f_k(x)\pi_k/\sum_i f_i\pi_i}{f_{\ell(x)}\pi_\ell/\sum_i f_i\pi_i}$$
$$= \log \frac{f_k(x)}{f_{\ell}(x)} + \log \frac{\pi_k}{\pi_\ell}$$

We must make an assumption about f.

Assume that data in each class follows a multivariate normal distribution,

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

with a common covariance matrix $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$.

Linear decision boundary

$$\log \frac{\mathbf{P}(G = k|X = x)}{\mathbf{P}(G = \ell|X = x)}$$

$$= ...$$

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

Along the decision boundary we have $f_k \pi_k = f_\ell \pi_\ell$ (equal probability for both classes) and a log-odds-ratio = log 1 = 0.

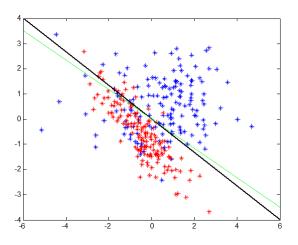
The decision boundary becomes

$$\log \frac{\pi_k}{\pi_\ell} - \frac{1}{2} (\mu_k + \mu_\ell)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_\ell) + x^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_k - \mu_\ell) = 0$$

which is linear in x - in p dimensions a **hyper plane** like,

$$a + x^T b = 0$$

LDA result



LDA on the computer

The decision rule G(x) assigns class with highest probability

$$G(x) = \arg \max_{k} \delta_k(x).$$

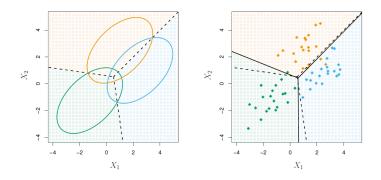
using discriminant functions (P(G = k | X = x)) with constants removed)

$$\delta_k(x) = \underline{x}^T \underline{\Sigma}^{-1} \underline{\mu}_k - \frac{1}{2} \underline{\mu}_k^T \underline{\Sigma}^{-1} \underline{\mu}_k + \underline{\log \pi_k}; \quad k = 1, ..., K$$

Use plug-in estimates for unknown parameters,

$$\hat{\pi}_k = N_k/N$$
, where N_k is number of class-k observations $\hat{\mu}_k = \sum_{g_i = k} x_i/N_k$ $\hat{\Sigma} = \sum_{K} \sum_i (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)(x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)^T/(N - K)$

More than two classes



- ► One decision line for each pair of classes
- One discriminant function for each class
 - Assign class to highest probability.

Exercise - linear discriminant analysis

We have data with four different measures from flowers of three different species (FisherIris.csv). There are 50 observations of each species. Build a linear discriminant classifier for the three species.







Iris versiocolor



lris verginica

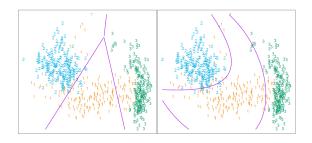
- ► Calculate plug-in estimates $\hat{\pi}_k$, $\hat{\mu}_k$ and $\hat{\Sigma}$.
- ▶ Calculate discriminant function δ_k .
- Predict class belongings for all observations in training data.
- Calculate confusion matrix for training data.



Quadratic discriminant analysis

Linear discriminant analysis assumes that the covariance structures are equal.

When we drop this restriction we get **quadratic discriminant analysis**, QDA, and the decision boundaries becomes non-linear.



Regularized discriminant analysis

It takes a lot of observations to estimate a large covariance matrix with precision. Three increasingly harsh regularizations are available

1. Make a compromise between LDA and QDA,

$$\hat{\Sigma}_k(\alpha) = \alpha \hat{\Sigma}_k + (1 - \alpha)\hat{\Sigma}$$

2. Shrink the covariance towards its diagonal

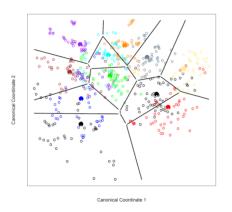
$$\hat{\Sigma}_k(\gamma) = \gamma \hat{\Sigma} + (1 - \gamma) \operatorname{diag}(\hat{\Sigma})$$

3. Shrink the covariance towards a scalar covariance structure

$$\hat{\Sigma}_k(\gamma) = \gamma \hat{\Sigma} + (1 - \gamma)\hat{\sigma}^2 I$$

Reduced rank discriminant analysis

Classification in a reduced subspace. In higher dimensional subspace, the decision boundaries are hyper-planes and can not be represented as lines. Hence, this technique is very **useful for illustrating class separation**.



We do the computations in the sub-space lecture.

LDA in Matlab

```
lda = fitcdiscr(X, y,'DiscrimType','Linear','Gamma',.5);
yhat = predict(lda,xnew);
```

Matlab supports shrinkage towards a common diagonal covariance matrix,

$$\hat{\Sigma}_k(\gamma) = \gamma \hat{\Sigma} + (1 - \gamma) \operatorname{diag}(\hat{\Sigma})$$

Logistic regression

Linear classification

- Fewer assumptions than LDA
- More robust than LDA
- Just as easy!

LDA assumptions revisited

What made LDA linear?

- Equal covariance matrices
 - Unequal covariances lead to a quadratic discriminant analysis
- Classes have Gaussian distributions

Away with the assumptions

- Never mind about covariances and distributions!
- Optimize linear log-odds function directly

▶
$$\log \frac{P(G=red|X)}{P(G=blue|X)} = \beta_0 + X\beta$$

- ► This is logistic regression
- ▶ What is a good choice of $\{\beta_0, \beta\}$?

Class probability

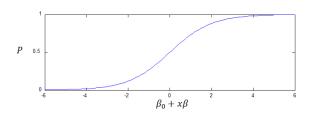
Derive expressions for the two class problem

$$ightharpoonup P(G = red | X = x) = ?$$

▶
$$P(G = blue | X = x) = ?$$

when
$$\log \frac{P_r}{P_b} = \beta_0 + x\beta$$





Likelihood

Combine this for all data points x_i

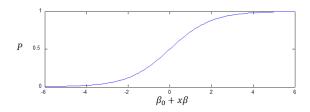
$$L(\beta_0,\beta)=\prod_{i=1}^n P(G=g_{x_i}|X=x_i)$$

Assuming independence, this is the joint probability

Logistic regression

- ▶ Maximize the likelihood, L, wrt β_0 and β
 - $arg \max_{\beta_0,\beta} L(\beta_0,\beta)$
 - ▶ Easier to maximize the log of $L(\beta_0, \beta)$
 - $I(\beta_0,\beta) = \log(L(\beta_0,\beta)) = \sum_i \mathbb{1}(x_i = \text{red})(\beta_0 + x_i\beta) \log(1 + e^{\beta_0 + x_i\beta})$
- ► The approach is known as maximum likelihood
- ► The result is called logistic regression
- The maximization can be carried out using any method for numerical optimization
 - One algorithm uses an iteratively reweighted least squares solution

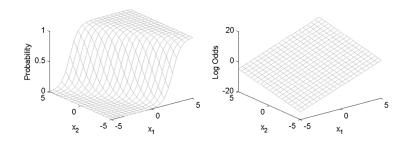
The Logistic Function



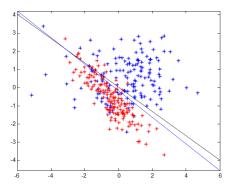
$$P(G = red | X = x) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + x\beta}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + x\beta}}$$

- ▶ Decision boundary: $P = 1/2 \rightarrow \beta_0 + x\beta = 0$
- ▶ Well inside $P \approx 1$, well outside $P \approx 0$
 - Outliers are handled gracefully
 - ► Logistic regression focuses on observations close to the boundary

The Logistic function in 2D



Logistic Regression vs LDA



Multiple Logistic Regression

$$\begin{split} & \textit{K} \text{ classes, } \textit{K} = 1, 2, ..., \textit{K} \\ & \log \frac{P(G=1|X=x)}{P(G=K|X=x)} = \beta_{10} + x\beta_1 \\ & \log \frac{P(G=2|X=x)}{P(G=K|X=x)} = \beta_{20} + x\beta_2 \\ & \vdots \\ & \log \frac{P(G=K-1|X=x)}{P(G=K|X=x)} = \beta_{(K-1)0} + x\beta_{K-1} \end{split}$$

Arbitrary which class we put in the denominator

Multiple logistic regression, cont'd

Since $P(G = K) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} P(G = i)$, we can show that

$$P(G = K|X = x) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} \exp(\beta_{i0} + x\beta_i)}$$

and then

$$P(G = k | X = x) = \frac{\exp(\beta_{k0} + x\beta_k)}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} \exp(\beta_{i0} + x\beta_i)}$$

Hence, the class probabilities does not depend on the choice of denominator in the odds-ratios.

Why Logistic Regression?

- Statistics
 - Identify variables important for separating the classes
 - Biostatistics and epidemiology
- Classification
 - Predict class belonging of new observations
 - For example spam/email or diseased/healthy
- Risk prediction
 - Estimate probability (risk) for each class
 - Fraud detection in insurance claims

Interpreting the coefficients

- ▶ We have estimated β_0 and β
- What do they mean?
 - ▶ $\log \frac{P(G=red|X)}{P(G=blue|X)} = \beta_0 + X\beta$
 - They denote the log-odds contribution of each variable

Example: Model lung cancer (yes/no) as a function of smoking (number of cigarettes per day)

- ▶ $\beta = 0.02$
- ▶ A unit increase in smoking (one extra cigarette) means an increase in lung cancer risk (odds) of $exp(0.02) \approx 1.02 = 2\%$

Regularized logistic regression

Few observations (low n) and high dimension (high p) data is a problem also for logistic regression.

One solution is an elastic net regularization of the likelihood,

$$[\beta, \beta_0] = \arg \max_{\beta_0, \beta} \left\{ \log L(\beta, \beta_0) - P_{\lambda, \alpha}(\beta) \right\}$$

$$= \arg \max_{\beta_0, \beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left[y_i (\beta_0 + \beta^T x_i) - \log(1 + e^{1 + \beta_0 + \beta^T x_i}) \right] - P_{\lambda, \alpha}(\beta) \right\}$$

with

$$P_{\lambda,\alpha}(\beta) = \lambda \left(\frac{1}{2} (1 - \alpha) ||\beta||_2^2 + \alpha ||\beta||_1 \right)$$

Use cross-validation for λ and α .



Why minus in front of $P_{\lambda,\alpha}(\beta)$? Why is β_0 not regularized?

Logistic regression in Matlab

Standard logistic regression,

```
model = fitglm(X,Y,'linear','distr','binomial');
yhat = predict(model, Xnew);
```

and elastic net regularized version,

```
[B,FitInfo] = lassoglm(X,Y,'binomial','Alpha',0.5,'CV',10);
lassoPlot(B,FitInfo,'PlotType','CV');
```

Predictions can be calculated using glmval.

Properties

- Logistic regression is more robust than LDA
 - It relies on fewer assumptions
 - When is this a bad thing when compared to LDA?
- Logistic regression handles categorical variables better than LDA
- Observations far away from the boundary are down-weighted
 - You will have a look at how this works during the exercises
- Breaks down when classes are perfectly separable
- Easy to interpret and explain
- Surprisingly often hard to beat
- ▶ Can be combined with regularization of parameters (n < p)
- Can be generalized to multi-class problems

Basis Expansion

- ► General non-linear transforms
- Cubic splines

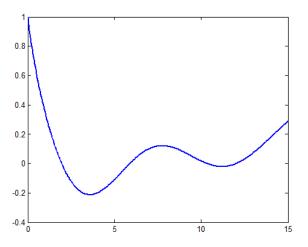
Basis expansion

- We are not limited to use our data as they are
- Linear models
 - Easy to interpret
 - First order Taylor expansion of non-linearities
 - Might be ok even for non-linear data if we have few observations
- Non-linear problem transform data and use linear model
 - $h_m(X) = X_i^2 \text{ and } h_m(X) = X_i X_k$
 - ► $h_m(X) = \log(X_j)$ or $h_m(X) = sqrt(X_j)$
 - ► $h_m(X) = \frac{X m_X}{s_X}$ (always used when using regularization)
 - ► $h_m(X_{(i)}) = i$, sort data $X_{(1)} \le X_{(2)} \le ...$ and use the rank
 - ▶ Either replacing X with $h_m(X)$ or expanding $\{X, h_m(X)\}$

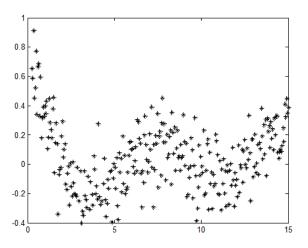
More advanced transforms

- Splines
 - We'll talk about that next
- Fourier/Wavelet transforms
 - Time series data/images
- Principal components
 - Projection along eigenvectors
 - We'll talk about that later in the course
- Moving averages
 - Possibly also delayed averages capturing time dynamics
 - Time series data

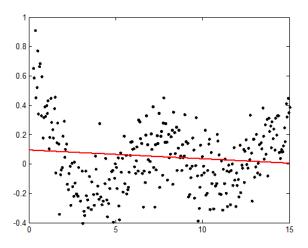
The Convenient Truth...



The Inconvenient Reality...



Ordinary Least Squares



Basis Expansions

Idea: replace variables (columns) of the data matrix, X, with transformations h(X)

The linear model

$$y = X\beta = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i x_i \to \sum_{i=1}^{M} \beta_i' h_i(X)$$

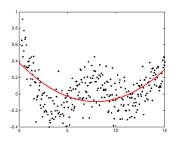
In this way we handle non-linear problems with our well known linear models

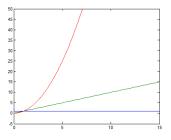
Basis Expansion

Example

```
X = [ones(n,1) \times x.^2];

y = X*(X\setminus y)
```

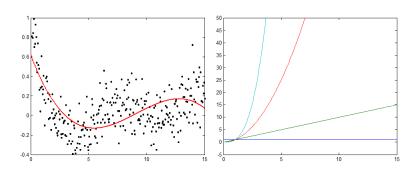




Basis Expansion

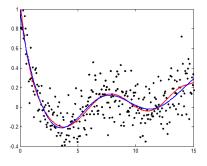
Third degree polynomial

beta = [0.6232, -0.3198, 0.0417, 0.0015]



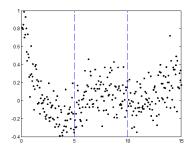
Basis Expansion

8th degree polynomial



Piece-wise Basis Expansion

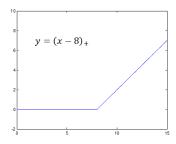
- To introduce flexibility while keeping the variance under control, we define different basis functions for different intervals of x.
- Example, divide the range of x in three parts



The hinge function

- ▶ Introducing the "hinge" function $y = (f(x))_+$
- ▶ Zero when f(x) is less than zeros, otherwise f(x)
- ► In Matlab: e.g. max(0,x)
- ► Example

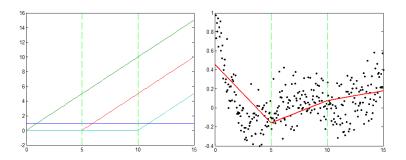
```
plot(x, max(0, x-8));
```



Piece-wise Polynomials

Lets try three different linear functions in our three intervals

```
X = [ones(n,1) \times max(0,x-5) max(0,x-10)];
```



Cubic Splines

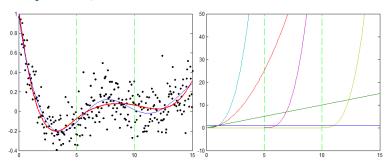
Splines are piece-wise polynomials

The basis functions are

$$X = [ones(n,1) \times x.^2 \times .^3 \max(0,x-5).^3 \max(0,x-10).^3];$$

- Or in the proper way
 - $h_0(x) = 1$
 - $h_1(x) = x$
 - $h_2(x) = x^2$
 - $h_3(x) = x^3$
 - $h_4(x) = (x-5)^3_+$
 - $h_5(x) = (x-10)^3_+$
- Cubic splines have continuous first and second derivatives at the knots.
 - I.e a smooth function

Cubic Splines, cont'd



Notice that this non-linear function was obtained with a linear model

$$X = [ones(n,1) \times x.^2 \times .^3 \max(0,x-5).^3 \max(0,x-10).^3];$$

b = $X \setminus y;$

Spline approximation is

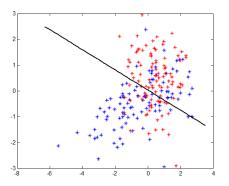
$$f(t) = b_0 + b_1 t + b_2 t^2 + b_3 t^3 + b_4 (t - 5)_+^3 + b_5 (t - 10)_+^3$$

$$t = 0:0.01:15;$$

$$T = [ones(n, 1) t t.^2 t.^3 max(0, t-5).^3 max(0, t-10).^3];$$

$$plot(t, T*b, 'r')$$

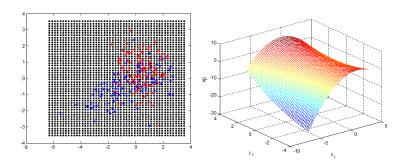
- Standard linear discriminant analysis, LDA
- ► Linear decision line



Let's try with basis expansions

```
load('synthetic 2D ol 1.mat');
[n, p] = size(X);
Xe = [XX(:,1).^2X(:,1).*X(:,2)X(:,2).^2];
lda = fitcdiscr(Xe, v);
beta = lda.Coeffs(1,2).Linear:
beta0 = lda.Coeffs(1,2).Const;
res=50:
[xx, yy] = meshgrid(linspace(-6, 3, 50), linspace(-3, 3, 50));
xxe = [xx(:), vy(:) xx(:).^2 xx(:).*vy(:) vy(:).^2];
f = xxe*beta + beta0:
ff = reshape(f, res, res);
figure(1)
plot (X(y==0,1), X(y==0,2), 'b*', X(y==1,1), X(y==1,2), 'r*');
hold on
[\sim, 11] = contour(xx, yy, ff, [0 0]);
set(l1, 'LineColor', 'k', 'LineStyle', '-', 'LineWidth', 2);
hold off
```

To plot the boundary we must classify a fine grid of points and find those that are on or near the boundary



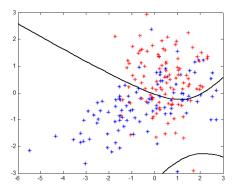
Calculate the grid

```
load('synthetic 2D ol 1.mat');
[n, p] = size(X);
Xe = [XX(:,1).^2X(:,1).*X(:,2)X(:,2).^2];
lda = fitcdiscr(Xe, v);
beta = lda.Coeffs(1,2).Linear;
beta0 = lda.Coeffs(1,2).Const;
res=50:
[xx, yy] = meshgrid(linspace(-6, 3, 50), linspace(-3, 3, 50));
xxe = [xx(:), vy(:) xx(:).^2 xx(:).*vy(:) vy(:).^2];
f = xxe*beta + beta0:
ff = reshape(f, res, res);
figure(1)
plot (X(y==0,1), X(y==0,2), 'b*', X(y==1,1), X(y==1,2), 'r*');
hold on
[\sim, 11] = contour(xx, yy, ff, [0 0]);
set(l1, 'LineColor', 'k', 'LineStyle', '-', 'LineWidth', 2);
hold off
```

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

```
load('synthetic 2D ol 1.mat');
[n, p] = size(X);
Xe = [XX(:,1).^2X(:,1).*X(:,2)X(:,2).^2];
lda = fitcdiscr(Xe, v);
beta = lda.Coeffs(1,2).Linear;
beta0 = lda.Coeffs(1,2).Const;
res=50:
[xx, yy] = meshgrid(linspace(-6, 3, 50), linspace(-3, 3, 50));
xxe = [xx(:), vy(:) xx(:).^2 xx(:).*vy(:) vy(:).^2];
f = xxe*beta + beta0:
ff = reshape(f, res, res);
figure(1)
plot (X(y==0,1), X(y==0,2), 'b*', X(y==1,1), X(y==1,2), 'r*');
hold on
[\sim, 11] = contour(xx, yy, ff, [0 0]);
set(l1, 'LineColor', 'k', 'LineStyle', '-', 'LineWidth', 2);
hold off
```

The decision boundary became non-linear in x, despite a linear classifier



Logistic regression with splines

The linear log-odds model is replaced with a flexible spline function

$$\log \frac{P(G=0|X=x)}{P(G=1|X=x)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3 + \beta_4 (x-2)_+^3 + \beta_5 (x-5)_+^3$$

- Non-linear in x, linear in β
 - Standard logistic regression problem after basis expansion
- Easy to interpret
- Gives probability for class belongings

Summary

- Linear methods are nice!
 - But natural processes are often non-linear
- Basis expansion opens for non-linear modeling of data using linear methods.
 - Data is getting more high-dimensional
 - Model selection is critical
- Splines proved flexibility with few parameters to tune

Questions?