# Statistics 452: Statistical Learning and Prediction

Chapter 4, Part 2: Linear Discriminant Analysis Classifier

Brad McNeney

# Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) Classifier

### Logistic Regression vs LDA Classifieer

- ▶ Logistic regression models Pr(Y = 1|X = x) = p(x).
  - More generally, polytomous regression models Pr(Y = k|X = x).
- LDA models Pr(X = x | Y = k), which relates to Pr(Y = k | X = x) via Bayes' rule:

$$Pr(Y=k|X=x) = \frac{Pr(X=x|Y=k)Pr(Y=k)}{\sum_{j} Pr(X=x|Y=j)Pr(Y=j)}.$$

## Notation and Terminology

Notation:  $f_k(X) = Pr(X = x | Y = k)$ ,  $\pi_k = Pr(Y = k)$ ,  $p_k(x) = Pr(Y = k | X = x)$ , so that

$$p_k(x) = \frac{f_k(x)\pi_k}{\sum_j f_j(x)\pi_j}.$$

- ▶ Terminology:
  - $\blacktriangleright$   $\pi_k$  is the *prior* probability of class k
  - $\triangleright$   $p_k(x)$  is the *posterior* probability of class k given data x.

## **Bayes Classifier**

- We saw in Chapter 2 that the classifier with the lowest error rate is the one that chooses the class with the highest posterior probability.
- ▶ If we have good estimates,  $\hat{p}_k(x)$ , we can choose the class with the highest **estimated** posterior probability.
- Estimate  $p_k(x)$  by estimating
  - $\blacktriangleright$   $\pi_k$ : If training sample is a population random sample, use the sample proportions.
  - ▶  $f_k(x)$ : LDA model is parametric, so we estimate  $f_k$  by estimating its parameters.

## LDA Classifier: Model for $f_k(x)$ when p = 1

- Assume  $f_k(x)$  is normal with mean  $\mu_k$  and variance  $\sigma_k^2$ .
  - ▶ Then estimating  $f_k$  amounts to estimating  $\mu_k$  and  $\sigma_k^2$ .
  - ▶ Further assume  $\sigma_k$  is the same for all k and let  $\sigma$  denote this common value.
- ► For a particular *x*, the class with highest posterior probability is the one with highest value of

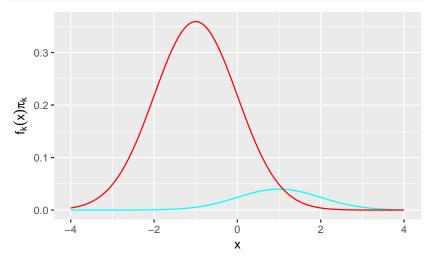
$$\delta_k(x) = x \frac{\mu_k}{\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu_k^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log \pi_k.$$

### Example

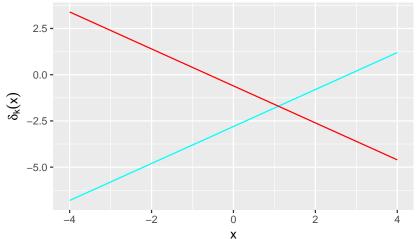
▶ Suppose two classes,  $\pi_1 = 0.1$ ,  $\pi_2 = 0.9$ ,  $\mu_1 = 1$ ,  $\mu_2 = -1$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ .

```
mu1<-1; mu2<-(-1); sigma<-1; pi1<-0.1;pi2<-0.9
x <-seq(from=-4,to=4,length=100)
f1 <- dnorm(x,mean=mu1,sd=sigma)
f2 <- dnorm(x,mean=mu2,sd=sigma)
delta <- function(x,mu,sigma,pi) {
    x*mu/sigma^2 - mu^2/(2*sigma^2) + log(pi)
}
delta1 <- delta(x,mu1,sigma,pi1)
delta2 <- delta(x,mu2,sigma,pi2)
dd <- data.frame(x=x,f1=f1,f2=f2,delta1=delta1,delta2=delta2)</pre>
```

```
library(tidyverse)
ggplot(dd,aes(x=x))+
  geom_line(aes(y=f1*pi1),color="cyan")+
  geom_line(aes(y=f2*pi2),color="red") +
  labs(y=expression(f[k](x)*pi[k]))
```







### **Decision Boundary**

- ▶ The point where the  $\delta_k$  lines cross is the decision boundary.
- Can show that the boundary is

$$\frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2} + \frac{\sigma^2 \log(\pi_2/\pi_1)}{\mu_1 - \mu_2}.$$

In this example the boundary is  $(1+(-1))/2 + \log(.9/.1)/2 \approx 1.1$ 

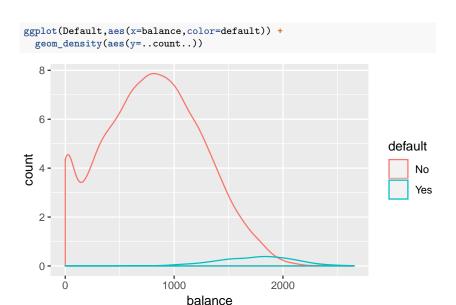
 $(mu1 + mu2)/2 + sigma^2*log(pi2/pi1)/(mu1-mu2)$ 

## [1] 1.098612

#### Estimated Distributions

- ▶ Replace means and variance in  $\delta_k(x)$ 's with estimates (equation 4.15 of text) to get the discriminant functions  $\hat{\delta}_k$ .
- ▶ Illustrate with Default data.

```
library(ISLR)
data(Default)
```



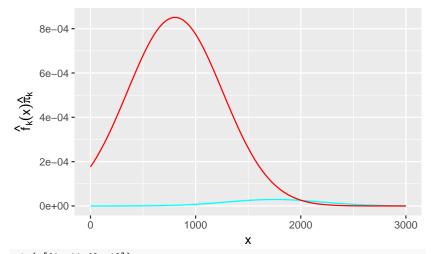
#### Software Note

- ▶ Specifying color=default groups the data by default.
- ▶ The density geom plots the estimated densities  $\hat{f}_k(x)$  by default, but also computes the variable ...count..., which for group k is  $\hat{f}_k(x)n_k$ .
- ▶ We are interested in  $\hat{f}_k(x)\hat{\pi} = \hat{f}_k(x)n_k/n$ , so count is proportional to what we want to plot.

#### Estimated Densities and Discriminant Functions

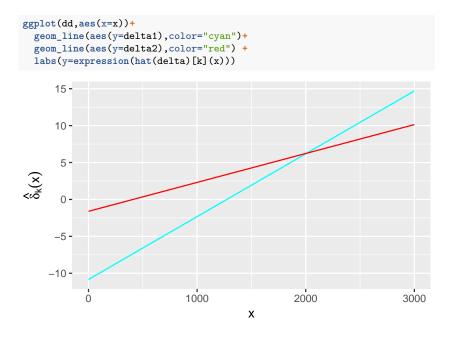
```
n <- nrow(Default): K <- 2
pi1 <- with(Default, mean(default=="Yes")); pi2 <- 1-pi1
defBalance <- with(Default,balance[default=="Yes"])</pre>
nodefBalance <- with(Default,balance[default=="No"])</pre>
mu1 <- mean(defBalance)</pre>
mu2 <- mean(nodefBalance)
sigma <- sqrt((sum((defBalance-mu1)^2) + sum((nodefBalance-mu2)^2))/(n-K))</pre>
with(Default,range(balance))
## [1] 0.000 2654.323
x <- seq(from=0,to=3000,length=100)
f1 <- dnorm(x,mean=mu1,sd=sigma)
f2 <- dnorm(x,mean=mu2,sd=sigma)
delta1 <- delta(x,mu1,sigma,pi1)</pre>
delta2 <- delta(x,mu2,sigma,pi2)</pre>
dd <- data.frame(x=x,f1=f1,f2=f2,delta1=delta1,delta2=delta2)
```

```
ggplot(dd,aes(x=x))+ geom_line(aes(y=f1*pi1),color="cyan")+
  geom_line(aes(y=f2*pi2),color="red") +
  labs(y=expression(hat(f)[k](x)*hat(pi)[k]))
```



min(x[f1\*pi1>f2\*pi2])

## [1] 2030.303



## Decision Boundary for Default Data

```
(mu1 + mu2)/2 + sigma^2*log(pi2/pi1)/(mu1-mu2)
## [1] 2008.584
```

#### LDA Classifier in R

```
library (MASS)
11 <- lda(default ~ balance, data=Default)</pre>
preds <- predict(11)</pre>
head(preds$posterior)
##
            Nο
                        Yes
## 1 0.9972130 0.002786981
## 2 0.9958358 0.004164240
## 3 0.9865931 0.013406929
## 4 0.9988882 0.001111757
## 5 0.9963955 0.003604464
## 6 0.9933487 0.006651334
head(preds$class)
## [1] No No No No No No
## Levels: No Yes
```

# LDA Classifier for p > 1

- Same basic idea of classifying based on highest posterior probabilities.
- ▶ Generalize the model for  $f_k(X)$  from a Gaussian distribution to a *multivariate* Gaussian distribution.
- ▶ The mean in class k is now a vector  $\mu_k$  and the variance is a matrix  $\Sigma$ .
- ▶ Details on the multivariate density and the resulting  $\delta_k(x)$  are given on page 143 of the text.

## LDA Classifier Using all Default Data

```
11 <- lda(default ~ student + balance + income, data=Default)
preds <- predict(11)
head(preds$posterior)</pre>
```

```
## No Yes
## 1 0.9967765 0.003223517
## 2 0.9973105 0.002689531
## 3 0.9852914 0.014708600
## 4 0.9988157 0.001184329
## 5 0.9959768 0.004023242
## 6 0.9957918 0.004208244
```

#### Predictions vs True Default Status

► Tabulating predictions and true default status gives the following "confusion matrix":

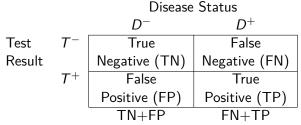
```
Default <- data.frame(Default,predicted = preds$class)
xtabs( ~ predicted + default, data=Default)</pre>
```

```
## default
## predicted No Yes
## No 9645 254
## Yes 22 79
```

- (Slight difference with results in text.)
- ▶ 9724 correctly predicted, 276 incorrectly predicted, so error rate is 2.76%.
- ▶ But 254/333, or 76% of defaulters missed.

#### Classification Error Rates

- Terminology is from diagnostic testing in medicine.
  - ▶ E.G., pap smear to screen for cervical cancer
- ▶ The test can be positive  $(T^+)$  or negative  $(T^-)$ , and an individual may have the disease  $(D^+)$  or not  $(D^-)$ :



 Replace test with prediction and true disease classification with true classification.

### Sensitivity, Specificity, True- and False-Positive Rates

- ► The observed true positive rate (TPR) is the proportion of D<sup>+</sup> who are TP, or TP/(TP+FN).
  - ▶ TP/(TP+FN) is an estimate of  $P(T^+ \mid D^+)$ , known as the sensitivity of the test.
  - ▶ Sensitivity is only 79/333 or 23.7% for Default data.
- ► The observed true negative rate is the proportion of D<sup>-</sup> who are TN, or TN/(TN+FP).
  - ▶ TN/(TN+FP) is an estimate of the true negative rate  $P(T^- \mid D^-)$ , known as the *specificity* of the test. Specificity is 9645/9667 or 99.8% for Default data.
  - ▶ The complement, FP/(TN+FP), is an estimate of the false positive rate (FPR)  $P(T^+ \mid D^-)$ . FPR is 22/9667 or 0.2% for Default data.

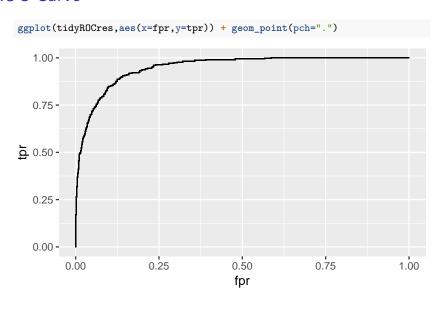
# Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curves

- ▶ The classification of a subject with  $X = x_0$  as  $T^+$  or  $T^-$  is made by comparing the posterior probability  $Pr(T^+|X=x_0)$  to a threshold t=1/2; e.g., >t classify as  $T^-$ .
- ▶ Lowering the threshold will increase the number of  $T^+$ , and hence the TPR,  $P(T^+ \mid D^+)$ , and the FPR,  $P(T^+ \mid D^-)$ .
- ► The ROC curve is a plot plot of the TPR versus FPR as we vary t.
  - ► Try to get a sense of the trade-off between true- and false-positive rates, and possibly choose an "optimal" t.

## ROC for LDA Classifier on Default Example

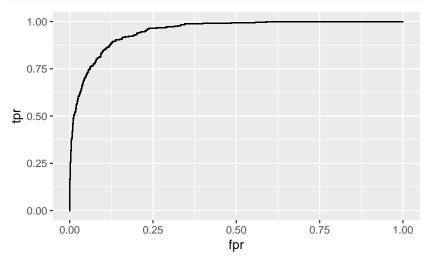
```
library(AUC) # for the roc() function; install.packages("AUC") to install
library(broom) # for the tidy() function
posteriorYes <- preds$posterior[,"Yes"]
trueYes <- # require a binary factor with 1=Yes
   (Default$default=="Yes") %>% as.numeric() %>% factor()
ROCres <- roc(posteriorYes,trueYes)
tidyROCres <- tidy(ROCres)</pre>
```

### **ROC Curve**



### **ROC Curve for Logistic Regression**

```
lfit <- glm(default ~ .,data=Default,family=binomial())
posteriorYesLogistic <- fitted(lfit)
ROClogist <- tidy(roc(posteriorYesLogistic,trueYes))
ggplot(ROClogist,aes(x=fpr,y=tpr)) + geom_point(pch=".")</pre>
```



### **ROC** Interpretation

## 3 0.0457 0.125 0.880

- ► The points on the plot represent the FPR/TPR combinations for each threshold.
- The ideal test threshold would yield a TPR of one and a FPR of zero, and so would appear in the upper-left corner of the ROC plot.
  - We usually select the threshold that is closest to the upper-left corner.
  - No obvious "best" threshold in this example. Perhaps the threshold that gives TPR of about 0.875 and FPR of about 0.125.

### Re-classify

Sensitivity is much better (about 87.7%).

► Many more false-positives (1209)

# Area Under Curve (AUC)

- ► The area under the ROC curve is a measure of the overall performance of the classifier.
- ▶ If TPR jumps to near one with FPR remaining low, the performance is good.
  - ▶ This would give AUC near 1.
- ▶ A poor classifier would do no better than the null classifier, which for threshold t randomly assigns  $t \times 100\%$  to be the success category and has AUC=1/2.

auc(ROCres)

## [1] 0.9495202

# Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (QDA)

- ▶ Back to the p = 1 case.
- ▶ If we let the variances differ by class k, then it can be shown that the Bayes classifier assigns an observation with X = x to the class with the largest

$$\delta_k(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu_k)^2}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2} \log \sigma_k^2 + \log \pi_k,$$

which is a quadtratic function of x.

▶ See the text, page 149, for the multivariate version.

### QDA for the Default Data

```
qq <- qda(default ~ student + income + balance, data=Default)
preds <- predict(qq)
Default <- data.frame(Default,predicted = preds$class)
xtabs( ~ predicted + default, data=Default)</pre>
```

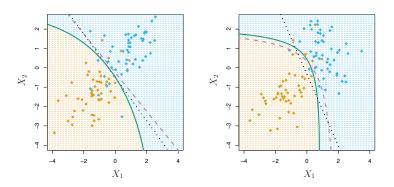
```
## default
## predicted No Yes
## No 9645 254
## Yes 22 79
```

Same as LDA for these data.

### QDA vs LDA: Bias vs Variance

- ▶ When should we assume the K classes have a common variance matrix?
- ► LDA has fewer parameters and so lower variance.
  - ▶ When *p* is large relative to *n*, the number of parameters in QDA can become large, and variance of the posterior probabilities large.
- On the other hand, if the variances really are different, the LDA posterior probabilities can be biased.
- Recommendation from the text: If the training data set is large, use QDA. If not, use LDA.

## QDA vs LDA: Decision Boundaries



► Text, Figure 4.9: p = 2, Bayes (purple dashed), LDA (black dotted), QDA (green solid).

### Comparison of Classification Methods

- Performance depends on the nature of the true decision boundary (curve that separates the two classes).
- One can show that logistic regression leads to linear decision boundaries, just like LDA
  - Difference is in how the methods estimate the parameters of the boundaries.
  - Oftern give very similar results, as in the Default data.
- QDA gives quadratic boundaries.
- ► The KNN classifier is non-parametric and so there are no restrictions on the decision boundary.
- ▶ Performance depends on the nature of the true decision boundary.