

Linear Methods for Classification

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MATHÉMATIQUES APPLIQUÉES - INFORMATIQUE



Statistical Analysis and Document Mining

Complementary Course, Master of Applied Mathematics in Grenoble

- 1 Classification Problems and Curse of Dimensionality
 - Previous episode: nearest-neighbour methods
 - Previous episode: high-dimensional data classification
 - Previous episode: multiple impact of high-dimensionality on statistics
 - Multinomial logistic regression
 - Baseline and softmax coding in multinomial linear regression
- 2 Generalized Linear Models
 - Previous episode: linear regression for bikeshare data set
 - Bikeshare data: Poisson regression
 - Bikeshare data: linear regression and Poisson regression
 - Generalized linear models
- 3 A Mathematical Comparison of Classification Methods
 - LDA and multinomial LR
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 - The hyper-parameter K usually chosen via cross-validation.
- ❓ **It works well in low dimensions, but suffers from the curse of dimensionality.** Verified in CC5!

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- ❓ Which is suitable for high-dimensional data: **Discriminative approaches (CM5)** or **Generative approaches (CM6)**.
 - ① K-nearest neighbors (K-NN) (CM5),
 - ② Logistic Regression (CM5),
 - ③ Linear Discriminant Analysis (CM6),
 - ④ Naive Bayes classifier (CM6).

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⚙ For more details, see [Giraud, 2021, Chapter 1].

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- ✎ **Training error:** using non-linear LS or maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), we obtain $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}_n) = \operatorname{argmax}_{c \in \mathcal{C}} p_c(\mathbf{x}_n)$ such that $\forall n \in [N]$,

$$y_n \approx \hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}_n), \text{ or equivalent, } \mathcal{L}(\hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathcal{D}) \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{1}[y_n \neq \hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}_n)] \approx 0. \quad (1)$$

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❓ **Test (generalization) error:** for any **new sample** (\mathbf{x}^*, y^*) , how we guarantee

$$y^* \approx \hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}^*), \text{ or equivalent, } \mathcal{L}(\hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}) \equiv \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, Y} [\mathbb{1}(Y \neq \hat{r}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{X}))] \approx 0? \quad (2)$$

Multinomial logistic regression

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- ❓ How to model relationship between $p_k(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{P}(Y = k|\mathbf{X})$, $k \in [K]$, and \mathbf{X} ?
- ✎ **Multinomial logistic regression (LR)** takes the form $p_K(\mathbf{X}) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} p_k(\mathbf{X})$, and models the probability that Y belongs to a particular category instead of the value of Y as follows:

$$\log\left(\frac{p_k(\mathbf{X})}{p_K(\mathbf{X})}\right) = \beta_{k0} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_{kp} x_p, \text{ or equivalent,}$$
$$p_k(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\exp(\beta_{k0} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_{kp} x_p)}{1 + \sum_{l=1}^{K-1} \exp(\beta_{l0} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_{lp} x_p)}.$$

Here, we first select a single class to serve as the baseline; without loss of generality, we select the **K th class for this role**. It holds that

$$p_K(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{l=1}^{K-1} \exp(\beta_{l0} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_{lp} x_p)}. \quad (3)$$

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Multinomial LR: baseline and softmax coding

👉 Log-odds or logit transformations using baseline coding: $p_K(\mathbf{X}) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} p_k(\mathbf{X}) = ?$,

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👉 In multinomial LR, the fitted values, log odds between any pair of classes, and other key model outputs will remain the same, regardless of coding!

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Bikeshare data set: motivation example

☞ We consider the **Bikeshare** data set. The response is **bikers**, the **number of hourly users of a bike sharing** program in Washington, DC. This response value is **neither qualitative nor quantitative**: instead, it **takes on non-negative integer values, or counts**.

⊕ Predicting **bikers** using the covariates **mnth** (month of the year), **hr** (hour of the day, from 0 to 23), **workingday** (an indicator variable that equals 1 if it is neither a weekend nor a holiday), **temp** (the normalized temperature, in Celsius), and **weathersit** (a qualitative variable that takes on one of four possible values: clear; misty or cloudy; light rain or light snow; or heavy rain or heavy snow.)

```
> head(Bikeshare)
```

	season	mnth	day	hr	holiday	weekday	workingday	weathersit	temp	atemp	hum	windspeed	casual	registered	bikers
1	1	Jan	1	0	0	6	0	clear	0.24	0.2879	0.81	0.0000	3	13	16
2	1	Jan	1	1	0	6	0	clear	0.22	0.2727	0.80	0.0000	8	32	40
3	1	Jan	1	2	0	6	0	clear	0.22	0.2727	0.80	0.0000	5	27	32
4	1	Jan	1	3	0	6	0	clear	0.24	0.2879	0.75	0.0000	3	10	13
5	1	Jan	1	4	0	6	0	clear	0.24	0.2879	0.75	0.0000	0	1	1
6	1	Jan	1	5	0	6	0	cloudy/misty	0.24	0.2576	0.75	0.0896	0	1	1

```
> mod.lm2 <- lm(
+   bikers ~ mnth + hr + workingday + temp + weathersit,
+   data = Bikeshare
+ )
> summary(mod.lm2)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = bikers ~ mnth + hr + workingday + temp + weathersit,
    data = Bikeshare)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-299.00	-45.70	-6.23	41.08	425.29

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	73.5974	5.1322	14.340	< 2e-16	***
mnth1	-46.0871	4.0855	-11.281	< 2e-16	***
mnth2	-39.2419	3.5391	-11.088	< 2e-16	***
mnth3	-29.5357	3.1552	-9.361	< 2e-16	***
mnth4	-4.6622	2.7406	-1.701	0.08895	.
mnth5	26.4700	2.8508	9.285	< 2e-16	***
mnth6	21.7317	3.4651	6.272	3.75e-10	***
mnth7	-0.7626	3.9084	-0.195	0.84530	
mnth8	7.1560	3.5347	2.024	0.04295	*
mnth9	20.5912	3.0456	6.761	1.46e-11	***
mnth10	29.7472	2.6995	11.019	< 2e-16	***
mnth11	14.2229	2.8604	4.972	6.74e-07	***

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hr1	-96.1420	3.9554	-24.307	< 2e-16	***
hr2	-110.7213	3.9662	-27.916	< 2e-16	***
hr3	-117.7212	4.0165	-29.310	< 2e-16	***
hr4	-127.2828	4.0808	-31.191	< 2e-16	***
hr5	-133.0495	4.1168	-32.319	< 2e-16	***
hr6	-120.2775	4.0370	-29.794	< 2e-16	***
hr7	-75.5424	3.9916	-18.925	< 2e-16	***
hr8	23.9511	3.9686	6.035	1.65e-09	***
hr9	127.5199	3.9500	32.284	< 2e-16	***
hr10	24.4399	3.9360	6.209	5.57e-10	***
hr11	-12.3407	3.9361	-3.135	0.00172	**
hr12	9.2814	3.9447	2.353	0.01865	*
hr13	41.1417	3.9571	10.397	< 2e-16	***
hr14	39.8939	3.9750	10.036	< 2e-16	***
hr15	30.4940	3.9910	7.641	2.39e-14	***
hr16	35.9445	3.9949	8.998	< 2e-16	***
hr17	82.3786	3.9883	20.655	< 2e-16	***
hr18	200.1249	3.9638	50.488	< 2e-16	***
hr19	173.2989	3.9561	43.806	< 2e-16	***
hr20	90.1138	3.9400	22.872	< 2e-16	***
hr21	29.4071	3.9362	7.471	8.74e-14	***
hr22	-8.5883	3.9332	-2.184	0.02902	*
hr23	-37.0194	3.9344	-9.409	< 2e-16	***
workingday	1.2696	1.7845	0.711	0.47681	
temp	157.2094	10.2612	15.321	< 2e-16	***
weathersitcloudy/misty	-12.8903	1.9643	-6.562	5.60e-11	***
weathersitlight rain/snow	-66.4944	2.9652	-22.425	< 2e-16	***

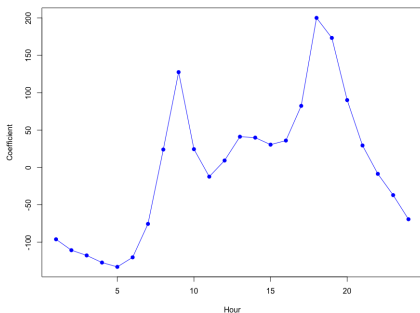
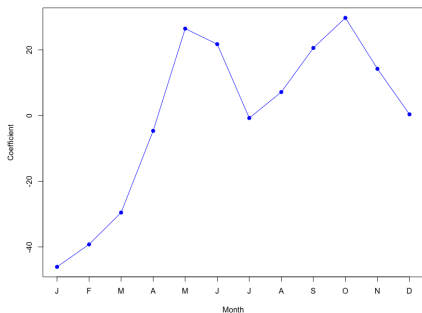
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Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 76.5 on 8605 degrees of freedom

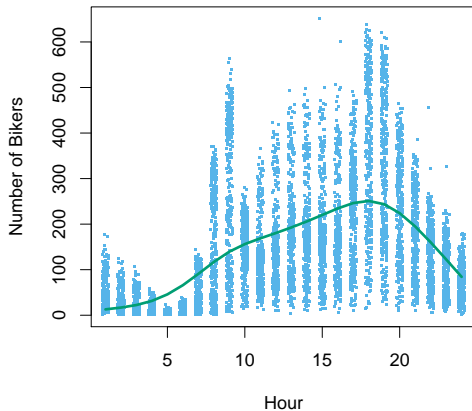
Multiple R-squared: 0.6745, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6731

F-statistic: 457.3 on 39 and 8605 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

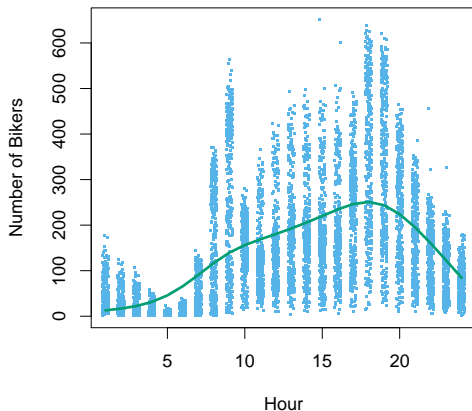


A least squares linear regression model was fit to predict bikers in the Bikeshare data set. Left: The coefficients associated with the month of the year. Bike usage is highest in the spring and fall, and lowest in the winter. Right: The coefficients associated with the hour of the day. Bike usage is highest during peak commute times, and lowest overnight [James et al., 2021, Figure 4.13]

🔍 At first glance, fitting a linear regression model to the Bikeshare seems to provide reasonable and intuitive results.



For the most part, as the **mean number of bikers increases**, so does **the variance in the number of bikers** [James et al., 2021, Figure 4.14].



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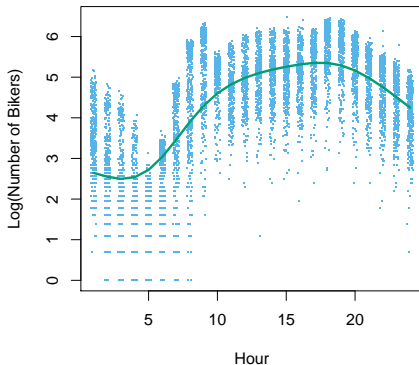
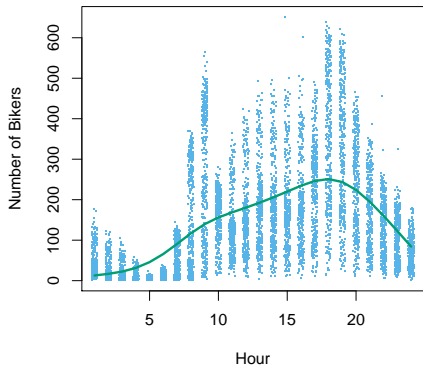
❓ At first glance, fitting a linear regression model to the **Bikeshare** seems to provide reasonable and intuitive results.

- ① **9.6% of the fitted values** in the Bikeshare data set are **negative**: that is, the linear regression model predicts a **negative number of users during 9.6% of the hours in the data set.**

Some issues

- ① **9.6% of the fitted values** in the Bikeshare data set are **negative**: that is, the linear regression model predicts a **negative number of users during 9.6% of the hours in the data set.**
- ② Since ϵ is a continuous-valued error term, response **Y is necessarily continuous-valued** (quantitative) but the **response bikers is integer-valued.**

- 3 The mean-variance relationship is a major violation of the assumptions of a linear model, which state that $Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P X_p \beta_p + \epsilon$, where ϵ is a mean-zero error term with variance σ^2 that is constant, and not a function of the covariates. For the most part, as the mean number of bikers increases, so does the variance in the number of bikers!



Previous episode: some issues for Bikeshare data set using linear regression

- 1 Transforming the response Y avoids the possibility of negative predictions, and it overcomes much of the heteroscedasticity in the untransformed data $\log(Y) = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P X_p \beta_p + \epsilon$.

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- ⚙ Transforming the mean of response $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ as in the logistic regression!

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 - Previous episode: high-dimensional data classification
 - Previous episode: multiple impact of high-dimensionality on statistics
 - Multinomial logistic regression
 - Baseline and softmax coding in multinomial linear regression
- 2 Generalized Linear Models
 - Previous episode: linear regression for bikeshare data set
 - **Bikeshare data: Poisson regression**
 - Bikeshare data: linear regression and Poisson regression
 - Generalized linear models
- 3 A Mathematical Comparison of Classification Methods
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Poisson Regression

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Poisson Regression

- ❓ Definition of Poisson distribution: Suppose that a random variable Y takes on nonnegative integer values, Poisson, *i.e.*, $Y \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. If Y follows the Poisson distribution, then

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \lambda > 0. \quad (4)$$

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👉 MLE approach: we want to maximize MLE

$$l(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_P) = \prod_{n=1}^N \frac{e^{-\lambda(x_n)} \lambda(x_n)^{y_n}}{y_n!}, \quad \lambda(x_n) = \exp(\beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P x_{np} \beta_p). \quad (6)$$

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mnth11	14.2229	2.8604	4.972	6.74e-07	***

```
> mod.pois <- glm(
+   bikers ~ mnth + hr + workingday + temp + weathersit,
+   data = Bikeshare, family = poisson
+ )
> summary(mod.pois)
```

Call:

```
glm(formula = bikers ~ mnth + hr + workingday + temp + weathersit,
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```

Deviance Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-20.7574	-3.3441	-0.6549	2.6999	21.9628

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	4.118245	0.006021	683.964	< 2e-16 ***
mnth1	-0.670170	0.005907	-113.445	< 2e-16 ***
mnth2	-0.444124	0.004860	-91.379	< 2e-16 ***
mnth3	-0.293733	0.004144	-70.886	< 2e-16 ***
mnth4	0.021523	0.003125	6.888	5.66e-12 ***
mnth5	0.240471	0.002916	82.462	< 2e-16 ***
mnth6	0.223235	0.003554	62.818	< 2e-16 ***
mnth7	0.103617	0.004125	25.121	< 2e-16 ***
mnth8	0.151171	0.003662	41.281	< 2e-16 ***
mnth9	0.233493	0.003102	75.281	< 2e-16 ***
mnth10	0.267573	0.002785	96.091	< 2e-16 ***
mnth11	0.150264	0.003180	47.248	< 2e-16 ***

mnth11	14.2229	2.8604	4.972	6.74e-07	***
hr1	-96.1420	3.9554	-24.307	< 2e-16	***
hr2	-110.7213	3.9662	-27.916	< 2e-16	***
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hr14	39.8939	3.9750	10.036	< 2e-16	***
hr15	30.4940	3.9910	7.641	2.39e-14	***
hr16	35.9445	3.9949	8.998	< 2e-16	***
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hr21	29.4071	3.9362	7.471	8.74e-14	***
hr22	-8.5883	3.9332	-2.184	0.02902	*
hr23	-37.0194	3.9344	-9.409	< 2e-16	***
workingday	1.2696	1.7845	0.711	0.47681	
temp	157.2094	10.2612	15.321	< 2e-16	***
weathersitcloudy/misty	-12.8903	1.9643	-6.562	5.60e-11	***
weathersitlight rain/snow	-66.4944	2.9652	-22.425	< 2e-16	***

hr11	0.336852	0.004720	71.372	< 2e-16	***
hr12	0.494121	0.004392	112.494	< 2e-16	***
hr13	0.679642	0.004069	167.040	< 2e-16	***
hr14	0.673565	0.004089	164.722	< 2e-16	***
hr15	0.624910	0.004178	149.570	< 2e-16	***
hr16	0.653763	0.004132	158.205	< 2e-16	***
hr17	0.874301	0.003784	231.040	< 2e-16	***
hr18	1.294635	0.003254	397.848	< 2e-16	***
hr19	1.212281	0.003321	365.084	< 2e-16	***
hr20	0.914022	0.003700	247.065	< 2e-16	***
hr21	0.616201	0.004191	147.045	< 2e-16	***
hr22	0.364181	0.004659	78.173	< 2e-16	***
hr23	0.117493	0.005225	22.488	< 2e-16	***
workingday	0.014665	0.001955	7.502	6.27e-14	***
temp	0.785292	0.011475	68.434	< 2e-16	***
weathersitcloudy/misty	-0.075231	0.002179	-34.528	< 2e-16	***
weathersitlight rain/snow	-0.575800	0.004058	-141.905	< 2e-16	***
weathersitheavy rain/snow	-0.926287	0.166782	-5.554	2.79e-08	***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 1052921 on 8644 degrees of freedom
 Residual deviance: 228041 on 8605 degrees of freedom
 AIC: 281159

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5

hr20	90.1138	3.9400	22.872	< 2e-16	***
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Multiple R-squared: 0.6745, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6731

F-statistic: 457.3 on 39 and 8605 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

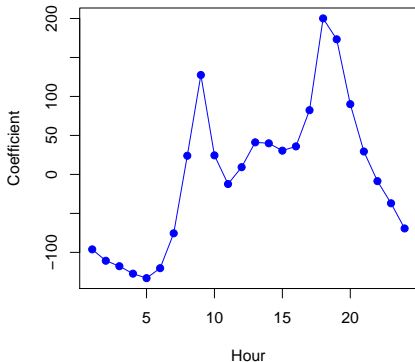
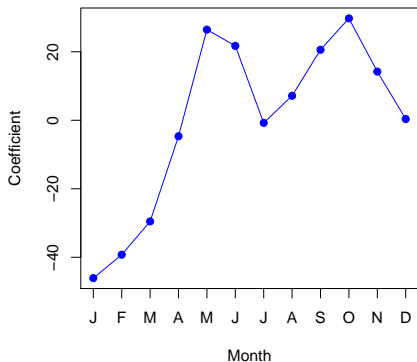
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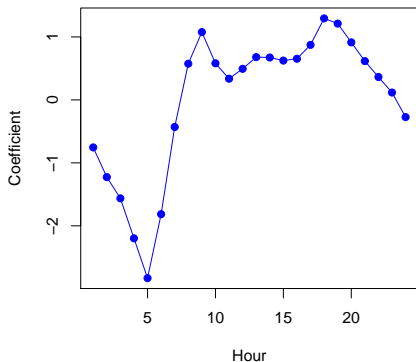
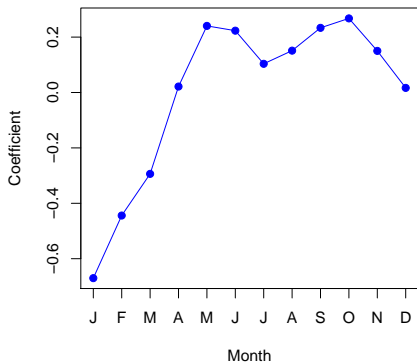
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Null deviance: 1052921 on 8644 degrees of freedom
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 AIC: 281159

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5



A least squares linear regression model was fit to predict bikers in the Bikeshare data set. Left: The coefficients associated with the month of the year. Bike usage is highest in the spring and fall, and lowest in the winter. Right: The coefficients associated with the hour of the day. Bike usage is highest during peak commute times, and lowest overnight [James et al., 2021, Figure 4.13]



A Poisson regression model was fit to predict **bikers in the **Bikeshare** data set.** Left: The coefficients associated with the month of the year. Bike usage is highest in the spring and fall, and lowest in the winter. Right: The coefficients associated with the hour of the day. Bike usage is highest during peak commute times, and lowest overnight [[James et al., 2021](#), Figure 4.15]

Important distinction: Poisson and linear regression models

- ① Coefficient associated with **workingday** is **statistically significant** under the Poisson regression model, but not under the linear regression model. **More realistic modeling!**

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- ① Coefficient associated with **workingday** is **statistically significant** under the Poisson regression model, but not under the linear regression model. **More realistic modeling!**
- ② **Mean-variance relationship:** in Poisson regression, we implicitly assume that **mean bike usage in a given hour equals the variance of bike usage during that hour** while a constant variance in linear regression model.
- ③ **Nonnegative fitted values:** there are no negative predictions using the Poisson regression model.

Outline

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HOW. $\eta(\mu) = \mu$, $\eta(\mu) = \log(\mu/(1 - \mu))$, $\eta(\mu) = \log(\mu).$

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We now make an analytical (or mathematical) comparison between Linear discriminant analysis (LDA), Quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA), naive Bayes and multinomial LR, see [[James et al., 2021](#)] for more details.

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We now make an analytical (or mathematical) comparison between Linear discriminant analysis (LDA), Quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA), naive Bayes and multinomial LR, see [James et al., 2021] for more details.

- We consider these approaches in a setting with K classes, so that **we assign an observation to the class that maximizes $\mathbb{P}(Y = k|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$** .
- Equivalently, via considering K as the baseline class, Bayes' Theorem and $\mathbf{X}|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma)$, **we aim to maximize**

$$\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) = a_k + \sum_{p=1}^P b_{kp}x_p \quad ? \quad (7)$$

- **What are the value of a_k and b_{kp} ?**

Log odds of posteriors in LDA and multinomial LR

In LDA, we maximize the following log odds of the posterior:

$$\begin{aligned}\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) &= \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k) \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = k)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K) \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = K)} \right) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k))}{\pi_K \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K))} \right) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_K} \right) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_K} \right) - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k + \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)}_{\equiv a_k} + \mathbf{x}^\top \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)}_{\equiv \mathbf{b}_k} \\&= a_k + \sum_{p=1}^P b_{kp} x_p, \text{ linear in } \mathbf{x}.\end{aligned}\tag{8}$$

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In LDA, we maximize the following log odds of the posterior:

$$\begin{aligned}\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) &= \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k) \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = k)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K) \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = K)} \right) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k))}{\pi_K \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K))} \right) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_K} \right) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_K} \right) - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k + \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)}_{\equiv a_k} + \mathbf{x}^\top \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)}_{\equiv \mathbf{b}_k} \\&= a_k + \sum_{p=1}^P b_{kp} x_p, \text{ linear in } \mathbf{x}.\end{aligned}\tag{8}$$

Recall that for multinomial LR:

$$\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) = \beta_{k0} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_{kp} x_p, \text{ linear in } \mathbf{x}.$$

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Both LDA and multinomial LR assume that the log odds of the posterior probabilities is linear in \mathbf{x} .

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Log odds of posterior probabilities in QDA and LDA

In QDA, $\mathbf{X}|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$ we maximize the following log odds of the posterior:

$$\begin{aligned}\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) &= \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k)\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|Y = k)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K)\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|Y = K)} \right) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k))}{\pi_K \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_K^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K))} \right) \\&= \log \left(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_K} \right) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_K^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_K) \\&= a_k + \sum_{p=1}^P b_{kp}x_p + \sum_{p=1}^P \sum_{q=1}^Q c_{kpq}x_px_q, \text{ quadratic in } \mathbf{x},\end{aligned}\tag{9}$$

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where a_k, b_{kp}, c_{kpq} are functions of $\pi_k, \pi_K, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_K, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_K$.

Log odds of posterior probabilities in QDA and LDA

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💡 LDA is a special case of QDA. This is not surprising, since LDA is simply a restricted version of QDA with $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 = \dots = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_K = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$.

Log odds of posterior probabilities in naive Bayes and LDA

In naive Bayes setting, $f_k(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{p=1}^P f_{kp}(x_p)$, we maximize the following log odds:

$$\begin{aligned} \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})} \right) &= \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = k) \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = k)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = K) \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = K)} \right) = \log \left(\frac{\pi_k \prod_{p=1}^P f_{kp}(x_p)}{\pi_K \prod_{p=1}^P f_{Kp}(x_p)} \right) \\ &= \underbrace{\log \left(\frac{\pi_k}{\pi_K} \right)}_{\equiv a_k} + \sum_{p=1}^P \underbrace{\log \left(\frac{f_{kp}(x_p)}{f_{Kp}(x_p)} \right)}_{\equiv g_{kp}(x_p)} = a_k + \sum_{p=1}^P g_{kp}(x_p), \text{ generalized additive model,} \quad (10) \end{aligned}$$

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⚙️ Each method makes very different assumptions: LDA assumes that the features are normally distributed with a common within-class covariance matrix, and naive Bayes instead assumes independence of the features.

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