## **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

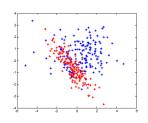
# **Linear Discriminant Analysis**

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

## **Odds-rations**

Look at log-**odds-ratio** for the two classes k and  $\ell$ 

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

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.

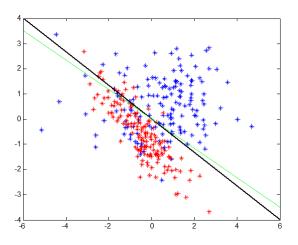
The decision boundary becomes

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

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

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

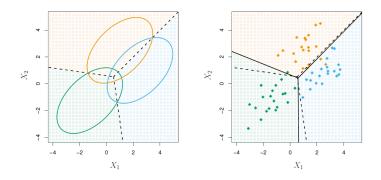
using discriminant functions (P(G = k | X = x)) with constants removed)

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

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

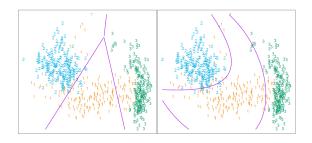
- ► Calculate plug-in estimates  $\hat{\pi}_k$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_k$  and  $\hat{\Sigma}$ .
- ▶ Calculate discriminant function  $\delta_k$ .
- Predict class belongings for all observations in training data.
- Calculate confusion matrix for training data.



## 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

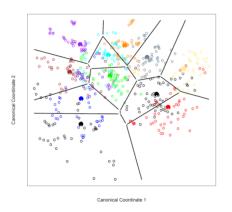
$$\hat{\Sigma}_k(\gamma) = \gamma \hat{\Sigma} + (1 - \gamma) \operatorname{diag}(\hat{\Sigma})$$

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**

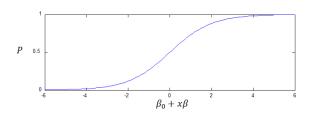
Derive expressions for the two class problem

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

▶ 
$$P(G = blue | X = x) = ?$$

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





## Likelihood

Combine this for all data points  $x_i$ 

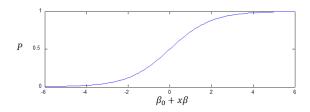
$$L(\beta_0,\beta)=\prod_{i=1}^n P(G=g_{x_i}|X=x_i)$$

Assuming independence, this is the joint probability

## Logistic regression

- ▶ Maximize the likelihood, L, wrt  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta$ 
  - $arg \max_{\beta_0,\beta} L(\beta_0,\beta)$
  - ▶ 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

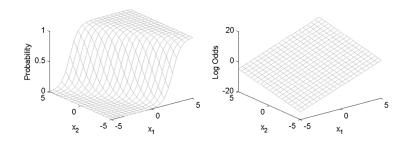
## **The Logistic Function**



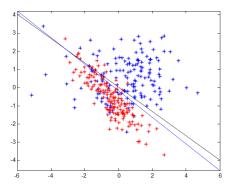
$$P(G = red | X = x) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + x\beta}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + x\beta}}$$

- ▶ 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**

$$K$$
 classes,  $K = 1, 2, ..., K$ 

$$\log \frac{P(G=1|X=x)}{P(G=K|X=x)} = \beta_{10} + x\beta_1$$

$$\log \frac{P(G=2|X=x)}{P(G=K|X=x)} = \beta_{20} + x\beta_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\log \frac{P(G=K-1|X=x)}{P(G=K|X=x)} = \beta_{(K-1)0} + x\beta_{K-1}$$

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  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta$
- 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,

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

with

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

Use cross-validation for  $\lambda$  and  $\alpha$ .



Why minus in front of  $P_{\lambda,\alpha}(\beta)$ ? Why is  $\beta_0$  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

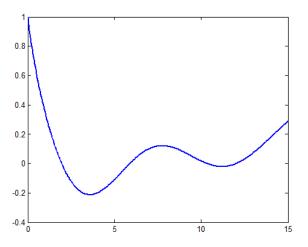
## **Basis expansion**

- 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
  - $h_m(X) = X_i^2$  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  $\{X, h_m(X)\}$

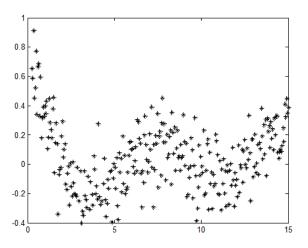
## More advanced transforms

- 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

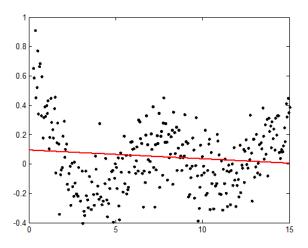
#### The Convenient Truth...



# The Inconvenient Reality...



## **Ordinary Least Squares**



#### **Basis Expansions**

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

The linear model

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

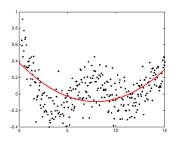
In this way we handle non-linear problems with our well known linear models

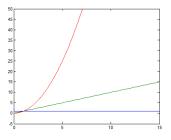
## **Basis Expansion**

#### Example

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

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

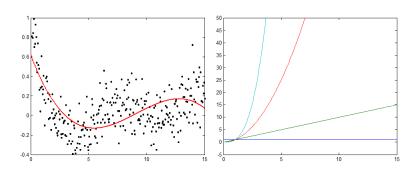




#### **Basis Expansion**

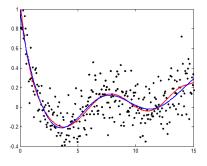
#### Third degree polynomial

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



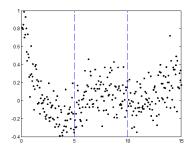
# **Basis Expansion**

8th degree polynomial



#### **Piece-wise Basis Expansion**

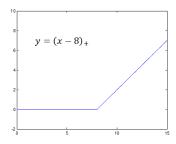
- To introduce flexibility while keeping the variance under control, we define different basis functions for different intervals of x.
- Example, divide the range of x in three parts



#### 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

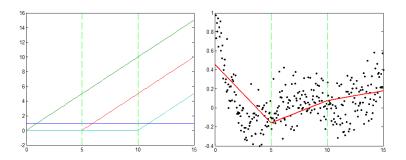
```
plot(x, max(0, x-8));
```



## **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**

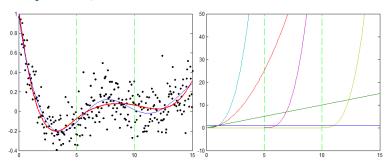
#### Splines are piece-wise polynomials

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

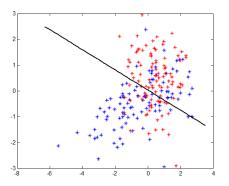
$$f(t) = b_0 + b_1 t + b_2 t^2 + b_3 t^3 + b_4 (t - 5)_+^3 + b_5 (t - 10)_+^3$$

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

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

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

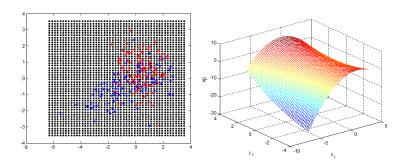
- Standard linear discriminant analysis, LDA
- ► Linear decision line



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



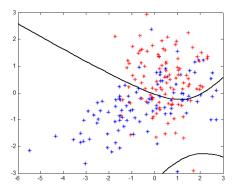
#### Calculate the grid

```
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  $\beta$ 
  - 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?