Lecture 11: Classification

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Recap

- ► Linear regression
- ► Training and test error
- ANOVA

This lecture

- Classification
 - ► Logistic regression
 - ► Linear Discriminant Analysis

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- Regression involves predicting a continuous-valued response, like tumor size.
- Classification involves predicting a categorical response:
 - Cancer versus Normal
 - ► Tumor Type 1 versus Tumor Type 2 versus Tumor Type 3
- Classification problems tend to occur even more frequently than regression problems in the analysis of biomedical data.
- Just like regression,
 - Classification cannot be blindly performed in high-dimensions because you will get zero training error but awful test error;
 - Properly estimating the test error is crucial.

There are many approaches out there for performing classification.

We will mainly discuss logistic regression and LDA.

The classification task

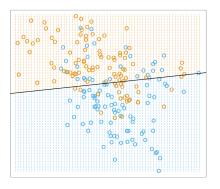
Similar to regression, the classification problem is supervised learning:



- ► The only difference is that the response *y* is a categorical variable with (in general) *K* categories.
- We mostly focus on the case of K = 2, i.e. cancer vs benign, but the ideas are the same.

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► There is really nothing preventing us from doing this: we can fit a linear regression with a categorical response!



- ▶ Consider the simple case of p = 1, a single predictor.
- ▶ Suppose that y_i can be 1 or -1 (positive or negative) with equal probability.
- ▶ In this case, no intercept is needed $(\bar{y} = 0)$ so the linear regression tries to find β that minimizes the RSS:

$$||y - x\beta||_2^2 = \sum_i (y_i - \beta x_i)^2$$

As we discussed before,

$$x_i\hat{\beta}=\hat{y}_i$$

▶ In this case, we set

$$C_i = \begin{cases} 1 & x_i \hat{\beta} > 0 \\ -1 & x_i \hat{\beta} \le 0 \end{cases}$$

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- ► This model assumes that the two classes can be separated with a line, which is somewhat unrealistic!
- ▶ Suppose $y_i = 1$
 - Suppose $\hat{y}_i = 0.1$; then $(y_i \hat{y}_i) = 0.9$

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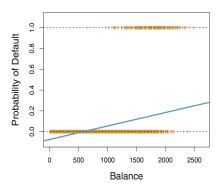
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- ▶ However, in the first case, $C_i = 1$ and in the second case, $C_i = -1$
- ► This suggest that so sum of squared errors may not be the best loss function for categorical variables!

Drawbacks of linear regression for classification

- If we code the values of y as 0 and 1 (instead of -1 and 1), then $X\hat{\beta}$ from linear regression gives an estimate of the probability $P(y=1\mid X)$, which is sensible.
- ► However, there is no guarantee that the estimated probabilities are in fact between 0 and 1!! And, in general, they are actually not!



Drawbacks of linear regression for classification

There is also a serious problem if y has more than 2 categories!

- ▶ Suppose that we are trying to predict the medical condition of a patient in the emergency room on the basis of her symptoms, and there are three possible diagnoses: stroke, drug overdose, and epileptic seizure
- We could consider a quantitative response as

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if stroke} \\ 2 & \text{if drug overdose} \\ 3 & \text{if epileptic seizure} \end{cases}$$

- ► Unfortunately, this coding implies an ordering on the outcomes, putting drug overdose in between stroke and epileptic seizure
- In practice there is no particular reason that this needs to be the case and one could choose any other equally reasonable coding

Logistic regression

- Logistic regression is the straightforward extension of linear regression to the classification setting.
- ▶ For simplicity, suppose $y \in \{0,1\}$: a two-class classification problem.
- Logistic regression assumes a parametric model

$$P(y = 1 \mid X) = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}.$$

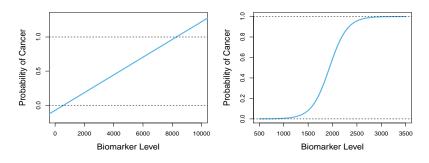
Logistic regression

Taking log and doing some algebra, we can see that

$$\log\left(\frac{P(y=1\mid X)}{1-P(y=1\mid X)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

- ▶ $\log \frac{P(y=1|X)}{1-P(y=1|X)} = \log \frac{P(y=1|X)}{P(y=0|X)}$ is the log-odds, or logit transform
- This means that logistic regression is a *linear model* in the new, transformed domain. These types of models are called generalized linear models.
- We usually fit this model using glm in R.

Logistic vs linear regression



- ► Left: linear regression.
- ► Right: logistic regression.

The ALL/AML leukemia data

We will illustrate logistic regression using gene expression data from the leukemia ALL/AML study of Golub et al. (1999). Note there are 27 ALL (code 0) and 11 AML (code 1) patients.

```
require(multtest)
data(golub)
# golub.cl
# data.frame(gene1=golub[68,],cl=golub.cl) %>%
# mutate(cl=factor(cl)) %>%
# ggplot(aes(x=cl,y=gene1)) + geom_boxplot()
# teststat = mt.teststat(golub, golub.cl)
```

Logistic regression on the leukemia data

```
mydata = data.frame(gene1=golub[68,],cl=golub.cl) %>%
  mutate(cl=factor(cl))
leukemia_lr = glm(cl~gene1,data=mydata,family = 'binomial')
# summary(leukemia_lr)
```

Logistic regression on the leukemia data

What we get from summary(leukemia_lr):

- Call
- Deviance residuals are a measure of model fit. This part of output shows the distribution of the deviance residuals for individual cases used in the model.
- ► Coefficients, their standard errors, the z-statistic, and the associated p-value. gene1 is statistically significant.
- ► The logistic regression coefficients give the change in the log odds of the outcome for a one unit increase in the predictor variable.
 - ► For every one unit change in gene1, the log odds of class 1 (versus class 0) increases by 3.1335.

Prediction on new data

Suppose we have the expression of gene1 measured on some new patients. Can we predict the type of leukemia (ALL or AML)?

 Recall that the Bayes classifier suggests assigning observation i to class h for which

$$p_h(x) = P(Y = h \mid X = x)$$

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▶ However, as we discussed, calculating $p_h(x)$ is in general difficult!

One approach for making this problem easier is to use the Bayes theorem to write

$$p_h(x) = P(Y = h \mid X = x) = \frac{\pi_h f_h(x)}{\sum_{l=1}^{H} \pi_l f_l(x)}$$

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Here

- \bullet $\pi_h = P(Y = h)$ is the prior probability
- ▶ $f_h(x) = P(X = x \mid Y = h)$ is the density function of X for an observation coming from class h
- \triangleright $p_h(x)$ is the posterior density of y given the data x

To use the Bayes theorem

$$p_h(x) = P(Y = h \mid X = x) = \frac{\pi_h f_h(x)}{\sum_{l=1}^{H} \pi_l f_l(x)}$$

we need to estimate π_h and f_h :

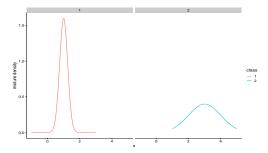
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we need to estimate π_h and f_h :

- ▶ π_h is often easy to estimate: if we have a random sample, $\hat{\pi}_h = 1/n \sum_i I(Y_i = h)$
- ▶ However, estimating f_h can be very challenging, especially in high dimensions
- \triangleright One solution is to assume a parametric form for f_h

▶ In LDA, we assume $f_h(x)$ is the normal density, $N(\mu_h, \sigma_h)$.



► This is equivalent to assuming that our data is generated from a mixture of normal distributions.

$$X \sim \sum_{h=1}^{H} \pi_h \phi(\mu_h, \sigma_h).$$

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- With this assumption, the decision boundary only depends on means μ_h and is always linear (hence the name)

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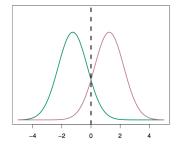
$$x\frac{\mu_h}{\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu_h^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log(\pi_h)$$

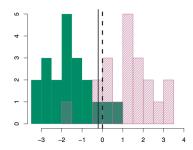
▶ If we further assume that H=2 and $\pi_1=\pi_2=0.5$, then the decision boundary is

$$\frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2}$$

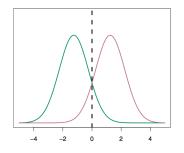
which is clearly linear!

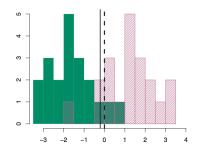
LDA for p=1





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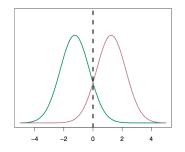


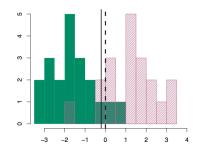
▶ To make this work, we need to estimate the parameters. The ML estimates are given by $\hat{\pi}_h = n_h/n$ and

$$\hat{\mu}_h = \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i:y_i = h} x_i$$
 $\hat{\sigma}_h^2 = \frac{1}{n - H} \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i:y_i = h} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_h)^2$

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LDA for p = 1





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▶ The picture is very similar if H > 2... or if p > 1

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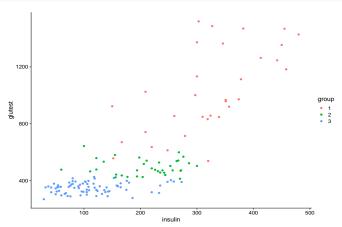
The diabetes data

```
diabetes = read_csv("data/diabetes.csv")
diabetes
```

```
## # A tibble: 144 x 7
         id relwt glufast glutest steady insulin group
##
##
      <dbl> <dbl>
                  <dbl>
                           <dbl> <dbl>
                                           <dbl> <dbl>
##
         1 0.81
                       80
                             356
                                     124
                                              55
                                                     3
         3 0.94
                      105
                             319
                                     143
                                             105
##
##
         5 1
                      90
                             323
                                     240
                                             143
##
         7 0.91
                      100
                             350
                                     221
                                             119
                                                     3
##
         9 0.99
                      97
                             379
                                     142
                                              98
##
         11 0.9
                       91
                             353
                                     221
                                              53
##
         13 0.96
                       78
                              290
                                     136
                                             142
##
         15 0.74
                       86
                             312
                                     208
                                              68
                                                     3
##
        17 1.1
                       90
                             364
                                     152
                                              76
                                                     3
                                                     3
## 10
         19 0.83
                       85
                              296
                                     116
                                              60
    ... with 134 more rows
```

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```
diabetes$group %<>% factor
ggdb = ggplot(mapping = aes(x = insulin, y = glutest)) +
  geom_point(aes(colour = group), data = diabetes)
ggdb
```

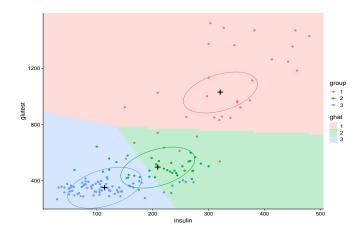


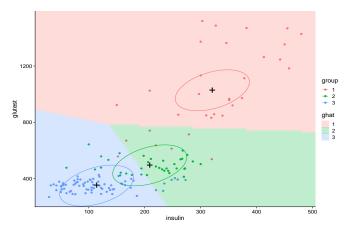
```
library("MASS")
diabetes_lda = lda(group ~ insulin + glutest, data = diabetes)
# diabetes_lda
```

```
ghat = predict(diabetes_lda)$class
table(ghat, diabetes$group)

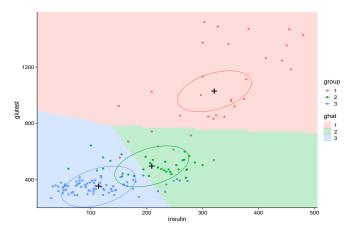
##
## ghat 1 2 3
## 1 25 0 0
## 2 6 24 6
## 3 1 12 70
mean(ghat != diabetes$group)

## [1] 0.1736111
```





Why is the boundary between the prediction regions for group 1 and 2 not perpendicular to the line between the cluster centers?



How confident would you be about the predictions in those areas of the 2D plane that are far from all of the cluster centers?

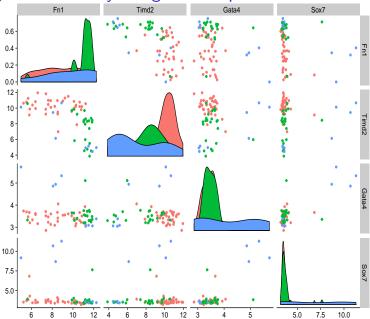
Hiiragi mouse embryo single cell expression data

library("Hiiragi2013"); library("GGally"); library("dplyr")

anno

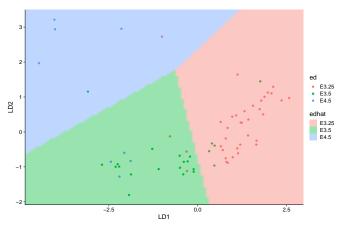
```
## PROBEID SYMBOL GENENAME
## 1 1426642_at Fn1 fibronectin 1
## 2 1418765_at Timd2 T cell immunoglobulin and mucin domain containing 2
## 3 1418864_at Gata4 GATA binding protein 4
## 4 1416564 at Sox7 SRY (sex determining region Y)-box 7
```

Hiiragi mouse embryo single cell expression data



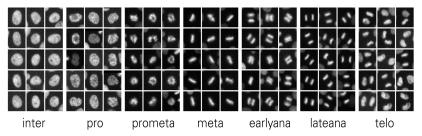
LDA classification regions for Embryonic.day

```
## LD1 LD2
## Fn1 -0.2 -0.4
## Timd2 0.5 0.0
## Gata4 -0.1 -0.6
## Sox7 -0.7 0.5
```



Morphological phenotyping

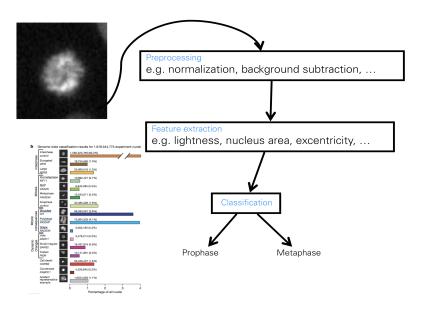
Provide Human Annotation to a small set of cells:





Which mitotic phase is this? Can we do this automatically?

Automatic classification workflow in reality



Summary

- ► Logistic regression
- ► Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
- Question: when will LDA fail? What to do then?