

**FIGURE 4.1.** The left plot shows some data from three classes, with linear decision boundaries found by linear discriminant analysis. The right plot shows quadratic decision boundaries. These were obtained by finding linear boundaries in the five-dimensional space  $X_1, X_2, X_1X_2, X_1^2, X_2^2$ . Linear inequalities in this space are quadratic inequalities in the original space.

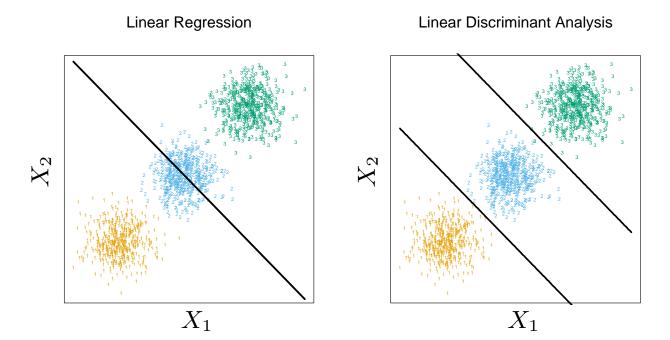


FIGURE 4.2. The data come from three classes in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and are easily separated by linear decision boundaries. The right plot shows the boundaries found by linear discriminant analysis. The left plot shows the boundaries found by linear regression of the indicator response variables. The middle class is completely masked (never dominates).

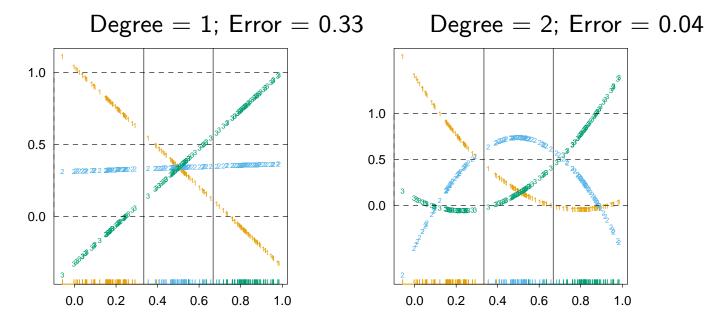
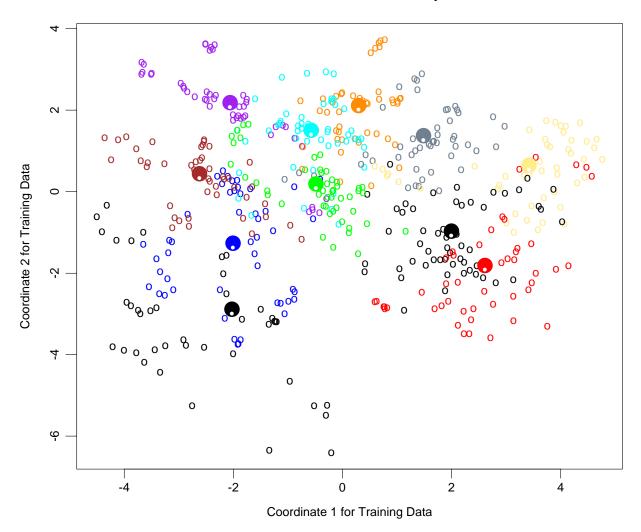
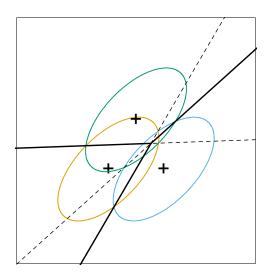


FIGURE 4.3. The effects of masking on linear regression in IR for a three-class problem. The rug plot at the base indicates the positions and class membership of each observation. The three curves in each panel are the fitted regressions to the three-class indicator variables; for example, for the blue class,  $y_{blue}$  is 1 for the blue observations, and 0 for the green and orange. The fits are linear and quadratic polynomials. Above each plot is the training error rate. The Bayes error rate is 0.025 for this problem, as is the LDA error rate.

## Linear Discriminant Analysis



**FIGURE 4.4.** A two-dimensional plot of the vowel training data. There are eleven classes with  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{10}$ , and this is the best view in terms of a LDA model (Section 4.3.3). The heavy circles are the projected mean vectors for each class. The class overlap is considerable.



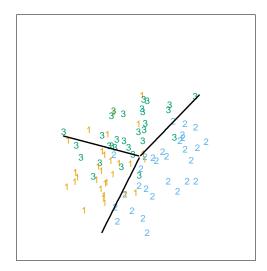
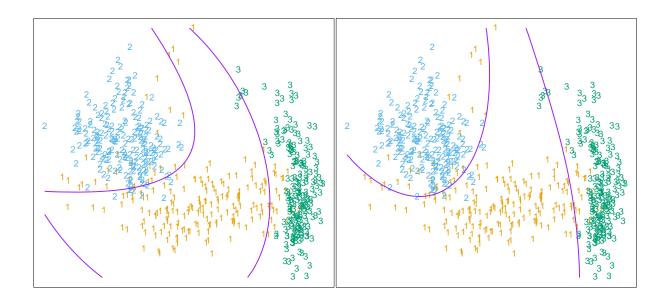
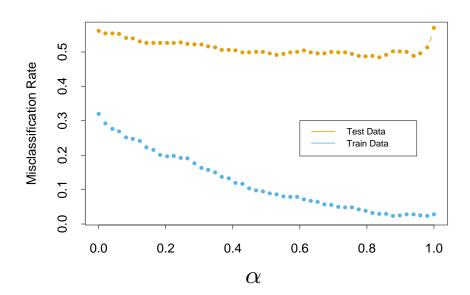


FIGURE 4.5. The left panel shows three Gaussian distributions, with the same covariance and different means. Included are the contours of constant density enclosing 95% of the probability in each case. The Bayes decision boundaries between each pair of classes are shown (broken straight lines), and the Bayes decision boundaries separating all three classes are the thicker solid lines (a subset of the former). On the right we see a sample of 30 drawn from each Gaussian distribution, and the fitted LDA decision boundaries.



**FIGURE 4.6.** Two methods for fitting quadratic boundaries. The left plot shows the quadratic decision boundaries for the data in Figure 4.1 (obtained using LDA in the five-dimensional space  $X_1, X_2, X_1X_2, X_1^2, X_2^2$ ). The right plot shows the quadratic decision boundaries found by QDA. The differences are small, as is usually the case.

## Regularized Discriminant Analysis on the Vowel Data



**FIGURE 4.7.** Test and training errors for the vowel data, using regularized discriminant analysis with a series of values of  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ . The optimum for the test data occurs around  $\alpha = 0.9$ , close to quadratic discriminant analysis.

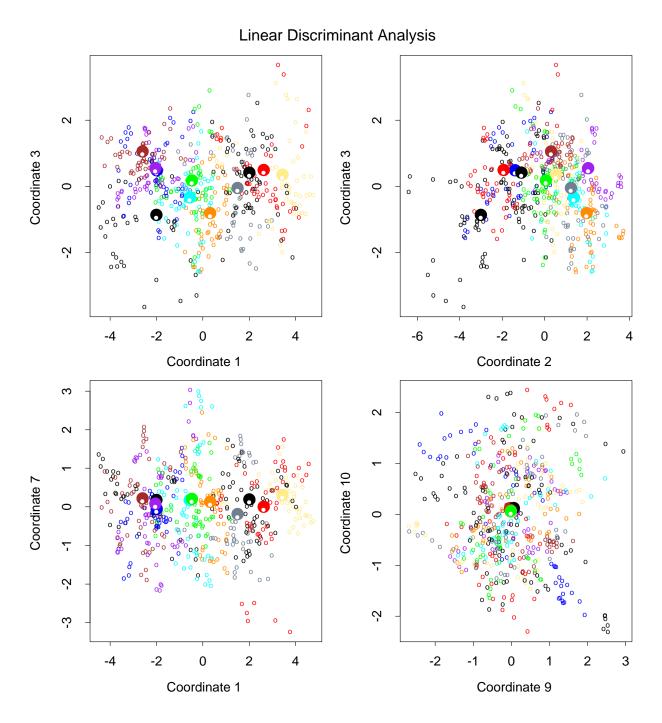


FIGURE 4.8. Four projections onto pairs of canonical variates. Notice that as the rank of the canonical variates increases, the centroids become less spread out. In the lower right panel they appear to be superimposed, and the classes most confused.

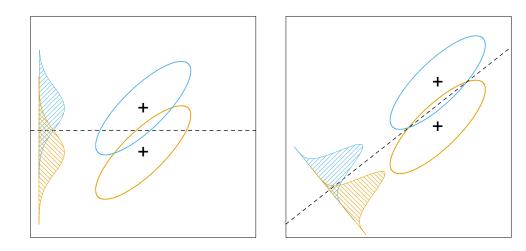


FIGURE 4.9. Although the line joining the centroids defines the direction of greatest centroid spread, the projected data overlap because of the covariance (left panel). The discriminant direction minimizes this overlap for Gaussian data (right panel).

## LDA and Dimension Reduction on the Vowel Data

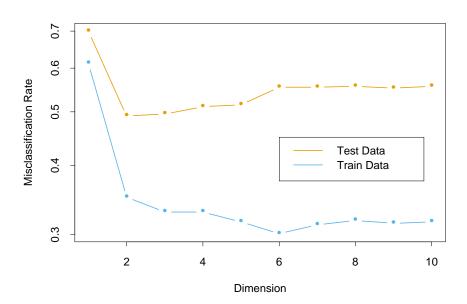
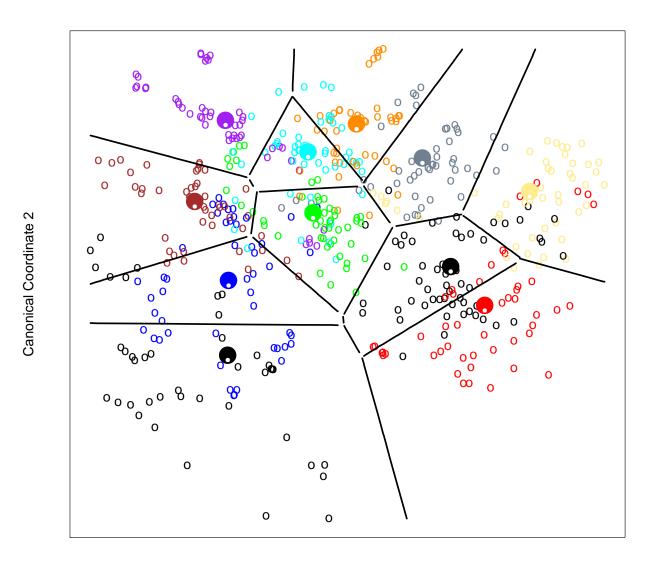


FIGURE 4.10. Training and test error rates for the vowel data, as a function of the dimension of the discriminant subspace. In this case the best error rate is for dimension 2. Figure 4.11 shows the decision boundaries in this space.

## Classification in Reduced Subspace



Canonical Coordinate 1

FIGURE 4.11. Decision boundaries for the vowel training data, in the two-dimensional subspace spanned by the first two canonical variates. Note that in any higher-dimensional subspace, the decision boundaries are higher-dimensional affine planes, and could not be represented as lines.

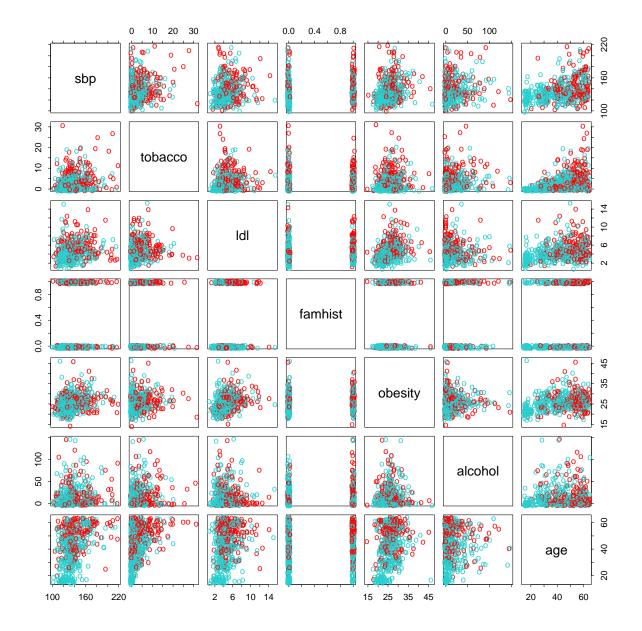
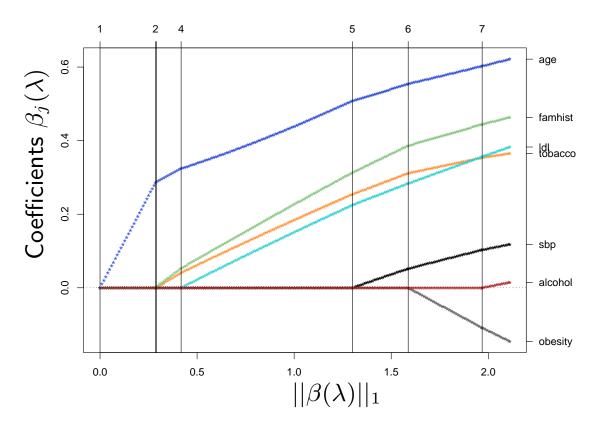


FIGURE 4.12. A scatterplot matrix of the South African heart disease data. Each plot shows a pair of risk factors, and the cases and controls are color coded (red is a case). The variable family history of heart disease (famhist) is binary (yes or no).



**FIGURE 4.13.**  $L_1$  regularized logistic regression coefficients for the South African heart disease data, plotted as a function of the  $L_1$  norm. The variables were all standardized to have unit variance. The profiles are computed exactly at each of the plotted points.

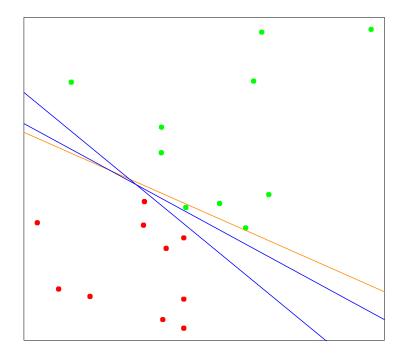


FIGURE 4.14. A toy example with two classes separable by a hyperplane. The orange line is the least squares solution, which misclassifies one of the training points. Also shown are two blue separating hyperplanes found by the perceptron learning algorithm with different random starts.

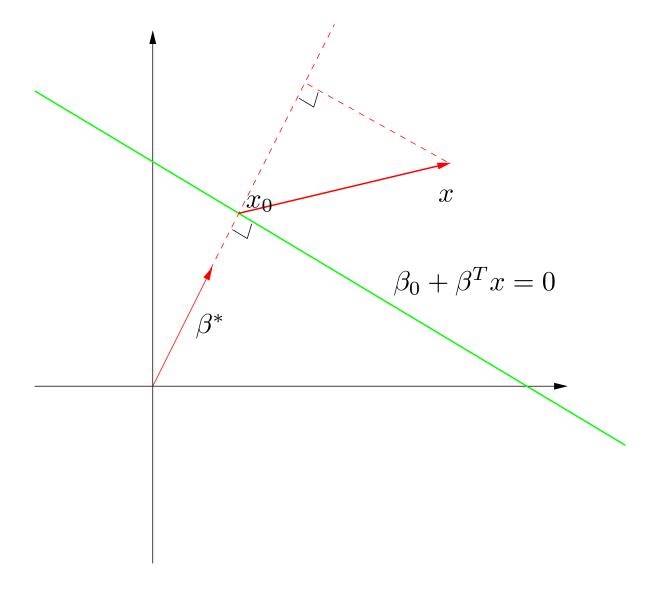


FIGURE 4.15. The linear algebra of a hyperplane (affine set).

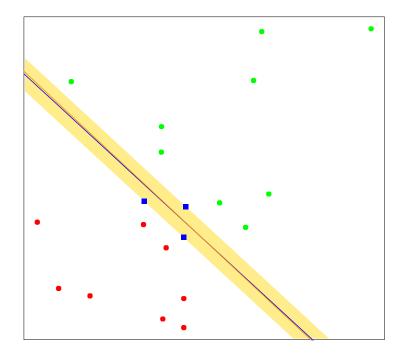


FIGURE 4.16. The same data as in Figure 4.14. The shaded region delineates the maximum margin separating the two classes. There are three support points indicated, which lie on the boundary of the margin, and the optimal separating hyperplane (blue line) bisects the slab. Included in the figure is the boundary found using logistic regression (red line), which is very close to the optimal separating hyperplane (see Section 12.3.3).