MACHINE LEARNING LINEAR AND QUADRATIC DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

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Linear decision boundaries: hyperplanes

- ▶ Suppose we have only two classes, denoted by $\mathcal{G} = \{0, 1\}$.
- ▶ Linear classification methods produce linear decision boundaries, called hyperplanes.
- ▶ In a *p*-dimensional space, a hyperplane is a flat affine subspace of dimension p-1, and it can be written, for parameters $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_p \in \mathbb{R}$, as the set

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^p$$
: $b_0 + b_1 x_1 + \cdots + b_p x_p = 0$.

▶ Suppose a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is not on the hyperplane, then

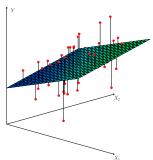
$$b_0 + b_1 x_1 + \cdots + b_p x_p > 0$$
,

tells us that it lies on the one side of the hyperplane, or with "<" on the other.

Example:

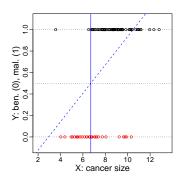
For p = 3, the hyperplane is

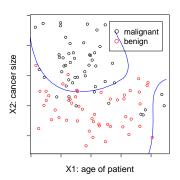
$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$
: $b_0 + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + b_3 x_3 = 0$.



Linear methods for classification

- ightharpoonup Example: direct linear regression on $\mathcal{G} = \{0,1\}$; usually not a good idea!
- Many other methods will produce linear decision boundaries.
- ▶ Decision boundaries of linear methods are linear only in the feature space.
- Augmenting the feature space by basis functions might lead to non-linear decision boundaries in the original space of (X_1, \ldots, X_p) .
- ▶ Right: the model is linear in $X_1, X_2, X_1^2, X_2^2, X_1^3, X_2^3, X_1X_2, X_1X_2^2, X_1^2X_2, X_1^2X_2^2$.
- For more than two classes, linear classification methods produce piecewise linear decision boundaries.





Linear discriminant analysis

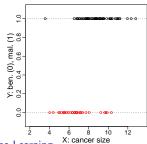
- ▶ **Setup**: Classify $Y \in \mathcal{G} = \{1, ..., q\}$ given predictors $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)$
- ▶ Idea: model the class-conditional densities g_j of $X \mid Y = j$, and the marginals $\pi_j = \Pr(Y = j), j = 1, ..., q$. Deduce $\Pr(Y \mid X)$ from Bayes' formula:

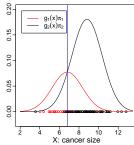
$$\Pr(Y=j\mid X=x) = \frac{\Pr(X=x\mid Y=j)\Pr(Y=j)}{\Pr(X=x)} \propto g_j(x)\pi_j.$$

- Linear discriminant analysis (LDA):
 - (1) model $g_j(x)$ by a multivariate normal distribution,

$$g_j(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} (\det \mathbf{\Sigma}_j)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_j)^T \mathbf{\Sigma}_j^{-1} (x - \mu_j)\right\};$$

(2) assume the g_j have the same covariance matrix $\Sigma_j = \Sigma$ for all j.





IDA: estimation

- Model parameters:
 - ▶ the class/prior probabilities $\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_q \in (0, 1)$; ▶ the mean vectors $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_q \in \mathbb{R}^p$;

 - the covariance matrix $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$.
- **Estimation:** From a training sample $(y_1, x_1), \dots, (y_n, x_n)$ we estimate the parameters of LDA by the usual maximum likelihood estimators

$$\widehat{\pi}_{j} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1} \{ y_{i} = j \}$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \mathbf{1} \{ y_{i} = j \}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1} \{ y_{i} = j \}}$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{\Sigma}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{q} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \widehat{\mu}_{j}) (x_{i} - \widehat{\mu}_{j})^{T} \mathbf{1} \{ y_{i} = j \}}{n - q}$$

- This is very simple and computationally fast!
- Note: Different to linear regression, we don't use the numerical value of the y_i 's but only the class!

LDA: prediction

- ▶ **Goal**: for a new input value $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$ predict its unobserved class y_0 .
- ▶ **Method**: compute the posterior class probabilities $\widehat{\Pr}(Y = j \mid X = x_0)$ and use the Bayes classifier resulting from these estimates (plug-in estimate), i.e.,

$$\widehat{y}_0 = \arg\max_{j=1,\dots,q} \widehat{\Pr}(Y=j \mid \boldsymbol{X} = x_0) = \arg\max_{j=1,\dots,q} \log \widehat{\Pr}(Y=j \mid X = x_0).$$

Note that

$$\begin{split} \log \widehat{\Pr}(Y = j \mid X = x_0) &= \log \widehat{g}_j(x_0) + \log \widehat{\pi}_j + \text{constant} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}(x_0 - \widehat{\mu}_j)^T \widehat{\pmb{\Sigma}}^{-1}(x_0 - \widehat{\mu}_j) + \log \widehat{\pi}_j + \text{constant} \\ &= x_0^T \widehat{\pmb{\Sigma}}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_j - \frac{1}{2} \widehat{\mu}_j^T \widehat{\pmb{\Sigma}}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_j + \log \widehat{\pi}_j + \text{constant}, \end{split} \tag{1}$$

where the constant includes terms that do not depend on j.

▶ Geometric interpretation: eq. (1) implies that LDA classifies x_0 in terms of the Mahalanobis distance, $d_{\widehat{\Sigma}^{-1}}(x,y) = x^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} y$, of x_0 from the centers $\widehat{\mu}_1, \dots, \widehat{\mu}_q$ (with a correction for the prior class probabilities).

LDA: decision boundaries

lacktriangle The decision boundary that separates two classes $j,m\in\{1,\ldots,q\}$ are all $x\in\mathbb{R}^p$ with

$$Pr(Y = j \mid X = x) = Pr(Y = m \mid X = x),$$

which is equivalent to

$$\log \Pr(Y = j \mid X = x) - \log \Pr(Y = m \mid X = x) = 0.$$

Replacing the probabilities by their expressions in terms of the Gaussian densities and the prior class probabilities we get the decision boundary

$$\log \frac{\pi_{j}}{\pi_{m}} - \frac{1}{2}(\mu_{j} + \mu_{m})^{T} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mu_{j} - \mu_{m}) + \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mu_{j} - \mu_{m}) = 0,$$

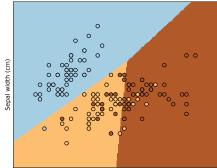
a linear equation in x.

- ▶ Hence the decisions boundaries separating any two classes j and m are hyperplanes in \mathbb{R}^p of dimension p-1.
- ▶ Thus the decision boundary that separates the q classes is piecewise linear.

Iris data set

For 150 measured plants; p = 4 predictors as response the three Iris species $\mathcal{G} = \{\text{setosa}, \text{versicolor}, \text{virginica}\}$ the plant belongs. We only use two predictors here.

```
from sklearn.discriminant_analysis import LinearDiscriminantAnalysis
iris = sklearn.datasets.load_iris()
X, y = iris.data[:, :2], iris.target  # we only keep the first two features: 'Sepal length', 'Sepal width'
lda = LinearDiscriminantAnalysis()
lda.fit(X, y)
x_min, x_max = X[:, 0].min() - .5, X[:, 0].max() + .5
y_min, y_max = X[:, 1].min() - .5, X[:, 1].max() + .5
h = .02  # step size in the mesh
xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.arange(x_min, x_max, h), np.arange(y_min, y_max, h))
Z = lda.predict(np.c_[xx.ravel()), yy.ravel()]).reshape(xx.shape)
```



Sepal length (cm)

Extensions of LDA

▶ There are many possibilities to extend LDA. The Bayes' construction

$$\Pr(Y=j\mid X=x) = \frac{\Pr(X=x\mid Y=j)\Pr(Y=j)}{\Pr(X=x)} = \frac{g_j(x)\pi_j}{\sum_{i=1}^q g_j(x)\pi_j}.$$

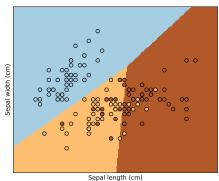
can be used with other densities g_i .

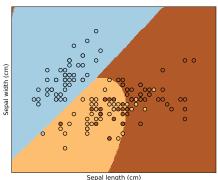
 Quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA): model g_j by multivariate normals with different covariance matrices Σ_j.

Iris data set: QDA

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```
from sklearn.discriminant_analysis import QuadraticDiscriminantAnalysis
iris = sklearn.datasets.load_iris()
X, y = iris.data[:, :2], iris.target # we only keep the first two features: 'Sepal length', 'Sepal width'
qda = QuadraticDiscriminantAnalysis()
qda.fit(X, y)
x_min, x_max = X[:, 0].min() - .5, X[:, 0].max() + .5
y_min, y_max = X[:, 1].min() - .5, X[:, 1].max() + .5
h = .02 # step size in the mesh
xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.arange(x_min, x_max, h), np.arange(y_min, y_max, h))
Z = qda.predict(np.c_[xx.ravel()], yy.ravel()]).reshape(xx.shape)
```





ength (cm) Sepal

Machine Learning

Extensions of LDA

There are many possibilities to extend LDA. The Bayes' construction

$$\Pr(Y=j\mid X=x) = \frac{\Pr(X=x\mid Y=j) \Pr(Y=j)}{\Pr(X=x)} = \frac{g_j(x)\pi_j}{\sum_{i=1}^q g_j(x)\pi_j}.$$

can be used with other densities g_i .

- Quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA): model g_j by multivariate normals with different covariance matrices Σ_j.
- ▶ Mixture models: use mixtures of Gaussians for the g_i.
- Naive Bayes: conditional independence assumption, $g_j(x) = \prod_{l=1}^p g_{j,l}(x_l)$.
- ▶ When some features are categorical, for example X_1 , we can use

$$g_j(x) = \Pr(X_1 = x_1 \mid Y = j)g_j(x_2, ..., x_p \mid x_1),$$

where $g_i(x_2,\ldots,x_p\mid x_1)$ is a density for $X_2,\ldots,X_p\mid X_1=x_1,Y=j$.

▶ Non-parametric approaches: estimate g_i non-parametrically.

Comments on LDA

- ▶ LDA is easy and fast to compute.
- ▶ LDA provides estimates of the posterior class probabilities

$$\widehat{\Pr}(Y = j \mid X = x_0) = \frac{\widehat{g}_j(x_0)\widehat{\pi}_j}{\sum_{j=1}^q \widehat{g}_j(x_0)\pi_j}.$$

- ▶ LDA usually performs well and can compete with more complex methods.
- Why? Clearly not because the normality assumption is realistic, but because a linear decision boundary is often the best the data can support and LDA is a stable estimation method.
- We don't need to have good models for the g_j to obtain a good model for the posterior: complex g_i may not be visible in the decision (see figure).

