## Classification:

# Logistic regression \& discriminant analysis 

Hedibert F. Lopes \& Paulo Marques<br>Insper Institute of Education and Research<br>São Paulo, Brazil

## Outline

Logistic regression
Binary response
Generalized linear model
Maximum likelihood
default dataset
Bayesian logistic regression
spam dataset
Discriminant analysis
Discriminante rule
Bayes discriminante rule
Discriminant function
Admissibility
Decision theory and unequal costs
iris dataset
admission dataset

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## Logistic regression

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## Binary response

We are still interested in learning about $y$ via a set of predictors $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{p}$
Problem: $y$ is a qualitative binary variable ( $1 / 0$, yes/no, sucess/failure, etc).
The Default dataset (ISLR package) contains $n=10,000$ observations.

- (y) default: yes/no indicating whether the customer defaulted on their debt
- $\left(x_{1}\right)$ student: yes/no indicating whether the customer is a student
- $\left(x_{2}\right)$ balance: Average balance after making their monthly payment
- $\left(x_{3}\right)$ income: Income of customer

```
library(ISLR)
data(Default)
dim(Default)
Default[1:10,]
    default student balance income
1 No No 729.5265 44361.625
2 No Yes 817.1804 12106.135
3 No No 1073.5492 31767.139
4 No No 529.2506 35704.494
5 No No 785.6559 38463.496
6 No Yes 919.5885 7491.559
7 No No 825.5133 24905.227
8 No Yes 808.6675 17600.451
9 No No 1161.0579 37468.529
10 No No 0.0000 29275.268
```


## Logistic regression

A sample of size $n$ of responses $y_{i}$ and characteristics $x_{i}=\left(1, x_{i 1}, x_{i 2}, \ldots, x_{i p}\right)^{\prime}$, for $i=1, \ldots, n$, is collected in order to construct a classifier.

A logistic regression assumes that

$$
P\left(y_{i}=1 \mid x_{i}\right)=\frac{\exp \left\{\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i 1}+\cdots+\beta_{p} x_{i p}\right\}}{1+\exp \left\{\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i 1}+\cdots+\beta_{p} x_{i p}\right\}}=\frac{\exp \left\{x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right\}}{1+\exp \left\{x_{i} \beta\right\}},
$$

where $\beta=\left(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{p}\right)^{\prime}$.
It follows immediately that,

$$
\log \left(\frac{P\left(y_{i}=1 \mid x_{i}\right)}{P\left(y_{i}=0 \mid x_{i}\right)}\right)=x_{i}^{\prime} \beta
$$

since $P\left(y_{i}=0 \mid x_{i}\right)=1-P\left(y_{i}=1 \mid x_{i}\right)$.

## Generalized linear model

The logistic regression belongs to the broad class of generalized linear models (GLM) where responses $y_{i}$ are Gaussian, binomial, gamma, Poisson, etc.

In this case the responses (binary variables) are

$$
y_{i} \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}\left(\pi_{i}\right)
$$

where the "sucess" probabilities are individual-specific and related to predictors as

$$
\log \left(\frac{\pi_{i}}{1-\pi_{i}}\right)=x_{i}^{\prime} \beta
$$

Since, $y_{i}$ is Bernoulli, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E\left(y_{i} \mid x_{i}\right)=\pi_{i}=g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right) \\
& V\left(y_{i} \mid x_{i}\right)=\pi_{i}\left(1-\pi_{i}\right)=g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\left(1-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
g(\mu)=\frac{e^{\mu}}{1+e^{\mu}} \quad \text { and } \quad g^{-1}(\pi)=\log \left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) .
$$

## Maximum likelihood estimation

It is easy to see that

$$
p\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n} \mid \pi_{1}, \ldots, \pi_{n}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \pi_{i}^{y_{i}}\left(1-\pi_{i}\right)^{1-y_{i}}
$$

or

$$
p\left(y_{1: n} \mid x_{1: n}, \beta\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left[g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right]^{y_{i}}\left(1-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right)^{1-y_{i}} .
$$

In general, the MLE of $\beta$ is

$$
\hat{\beta}_{M L E}=\arg \max _{\beta} \prod_{i=1}^{n}\left[g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right]^{y_{i}}\left(1-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right)^{1-y_{i}}
$$

or

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{\beta}_{M L E} & =\arg \max _{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} \log \left\{g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right\}+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1-y_{i}\right) \log \left\{1-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right\} \\
& =\arg \max _{\beta} \sum_{i: y_{i}=1}^{n} \log \left\{g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right\}+\sum_{i: y_{i}=0}^{n} \log \left\{1-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## When $g(\mu)=\frac{e^{\mu}}{1+e^{\mu}}$

Score equations: In this case, to maximize the log-likelihood, we set its derivatives to zero

$$
\frac{\partial I(\beta)}{\partial \beta}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\left(y_{i}-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right)=0
$$

which are $p+1$ equations nonlinear in $\beta$.

Newton-Raphson: The NR algorithm uses the matrix of 2nd derivatives (Hessian matrix) to find $\hat{\beta}_{M L E}$

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} I(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}=-\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} x_{i}^{\prime} g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\left(1-g\left(x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)\right)
$$

Starting with $\beta^{\text {old }}$, a single Newton-Raphson update is

$$
\beta^{\text {new }}=\beta^{\mathrm{old}}-\left(\frac{\partial^{2} I(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial I(\beta)}{\partial \beta},
$$

where the derivatives are evaluated at $\beta^{\text {old }}$.

## Iteratively reweighted least squares (IRLS)

Let

$$
X^{\prime}(y-g)=\frac{\partial I(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \quad \text { and } \quad-X^{\prime} W X=\frac{\partial^{2} I(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}} .
$$

The Newton-Raphson step is thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta^{\text {new }} & =\beta^{\text {old }}+\left(X^{\prime} W X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime}(y-p) \\
& =\left(X^{\prime} W X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} W\left(X \beta^{\text {old }}+W^{-1}(y-g)\right) \\
& =\left(X^{\prime} W X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} W z
\end{aligned}
$$

which looks like weighted least squares with adjusted response

$$
z=X \beta^{\text {old }}+W^{-1}(y-g) .
$$

At each iteration we solve the weighted least squares problem:

$$
\beta^{\text {new }}=\arg \min _{\beta}(z-X \beta)^{\prime}(z-X \beta)
$$

## Model diagnostics

Pearson's residuals

$$
r_{i}=\frac{y_{i}-\hat{\pi}_{i}}{\sqrt{\hat{\pi}_{i}\left(1-\hat{\pi}_{i}\right)}}
$$

Deviance residuals

$$
d_{i}=\operatorname{sign}\left(y_{i}-\hat{\pi}_{i}\right) \sqrt{2\left[y_{i} \log \left(\frac{y_{i}}{\hat{\pi}_{i}}\right)+\left(1-y_{i}\right) \log \left(\frac{1-y_{i}}{1-\hat{\pi}_{i}}\right)\right]}
$$

Under the null hypothesis that the model is correct, if follows that

$$
\chi^{2}=\sum_{i-1}^{n} r_{i} \sim \chi_{n-p}^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad D=\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i} \sim \chi_{n-p}^{2}
$$

## Classifying a new individual

A new individual $i=n+1$ is classified as an "yes" individual or a "no" individual based on his characteristics $x_{n+1}=\left(x_{n+1,1}, \ldots, x_{n+1, p}\right)^{\prime}$ by comparing

$$
P\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad P\left(y_{n+1}=0 \mid x_{n+1}, y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right) \text {, }
$$

which are "estimated" by

$$
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right)=\frac{\exp \left\{x_{n+1}^{\prime} \hat{\beta}_{M L E}\right\}}{1+\exp \left\{x_{n+1}^{\prime} \hat{\beta}_{M L E}\right\}} .
$$

and by

$$
1-\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right),
$$

respectively.

## Default dataset

(y) default: yes/no indicating whether the customer defaulted on their debt $(x)$ balance: Average balance after making their monthly payment

There are $9667 y_{i}=0$ and $333 y_{i}=1$


## Linear and generalized linear models

```
Linear model (LM) via ordinary least squares (OLS)
\begin{tabular}{lrllrll} 
& Estimate & Std. Error & t value & \(\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)\) \\
(Intercept) & \(-7.519 \mathrm{e}-02\) & \(3.354 \mathrm{e}-03\) & -22.42 & \(<2 \mathrm{e}-16\) & \(* * *\) \\
balance & \(1.299 \mathrm{e}-04\) & \(3.475 \mathrm{e}-06\) & 37.37 & \(<2 \mathrm{e}-16{ }^{* * *}\)
\end{tabular}
Residual standard error: 0.1681 on 9998 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1226,Adjusted R-squared: 0.1225
F-statistic: }1397\mathrm{ on 1 and 9998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
Generalized linear model (GLM) via iterative weighted least squares (IWLS)
\begin{tabular}{lrrrr} 
& Estimate & Std. Error z value & \(\operatorname{Pr}(>|z|)\) \\
(Intercept) & \(-1.065 \mathrm{e}+01\) & \(3.612 \mathrm{e}-01\) & -29.49 & \(<2 \mathrm{e}-16 \quad * * *\) \\
balance & \(5.499 \mathrm{e}-03\) & \(2.204 \mathrm{e}-04\) & 24.95 & \(<2 \mathrm{e}-16 \quad * * *\)
\end{tabular}
Null deviance: 2920.6 on 9999 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 1596.5 on 9998 degrees of freedom
AIC: 1600.5
```


## R code

```
install.packages("ISLR")
library(ISLR)
data(Default)
n = nrow(Default)
attach(Default)
default.binary = rep(0,n)
default.binary[default=="Yes"]=1
lm.fit = lm(default.binary~balance)
summary(lm.fit)
glm.fit = glm(default.binary~balance,family=binomial)
summary(glm.fit)
```


## Classifying a new customer

For a new customer ( $n+1$ ) with a balance of 1000 US dollars, it follows that

$$
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x=1000\right)=\frac{\exp \{-10.6513+0.0055(1000)\}}{1+\exp \{-10.6513+0.0055(1000)\}}=0.58 \%
$$

while for a new customer with a balance of 2000 US dollars, it follows that

$$
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x=1000\right)=\frac{\exp \{-10.6513+0.0055(2000)\}}{1+\exp \{-10.6513+0.0055(2000)\}}=58.6 \% .
$$

## Fitted OLS and GLS fits



## balance as classifier

If one wants to use a cut-off probability of $50 \%$ to classify a new customer as a YES for default, then this translates into checking whether balance is below or above 1936 US dollars.


## Categorical predictor

Here we want to use the binary variable student as a predictor for the binary variable default

|  | student |  | Total |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| default | No | Yes | Total |
| No | 6850 | 2817 | 9667 |
| Yes | 206 | 127 | 333 |
| Total | 7056 | 2944 | 10000 |


|  | Estimate | Std. Error $z$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|z\|)$ |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (Intercept) | -3.50413 | 0.07071 | -49.55 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16 * * *$ |
| student.binary | 0.40489 | 0.11502 | 3.52 | $0.000431 * * *$ |

Null deviance: 2920.6 on 9999 degrees of freedom Residual deviance: 2908.7 on 9998 degrees of freedom AIC: 2912.7

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid \text { student }=\text { Yes }\right) & =0.43 \% \\
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid \text { student=No }\right) & =0.29 \%
\end{aligned}
$$

## Two predictors: balance and student



## GLS fit and prediction

|  | Estimate | Std. Error z value $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|z\|)$ |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (Intercept) | $-1.075 \mathrm{e}+01$ | $3.692 \mathrm{e}-01$ | -29.116 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ | $* * *$ |
| balance | $5.738 \mathrm{e}-03$ | $2.318 \mathrm{e}-04$ | 24.750 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ | $* * *$ |
| student.binary | $-7.149 \mathrm{e}-01$ | $1.475 \mathrm{e}-01$ | -4.846 | $1.26 \mathrm{e}-06$ | $* * *$ |

Null deviance: 2920.6 on 9999 degrees of freedom Residual deviance: 1571.7 on 9997 degrees of freedom AIC: 1577.7

Therefore,

$$
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid \text { balance }=1500, \text { student }=Y e s\right)=5.4 \%
$$

and

$$
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid \text { balance }=1500, \text { student }=\mathrm{No}\right)=10.5 \%
$$

## GLS fit



## balance as classifier

If one wants to use a cut-off probability of $50 \%$ to classify a new customer as a YES for default, then this translates into checking whether balance is below or above 1873 (1998) US dollars for students (non-students).


## Bayesian logistic regression

Like everything Bayesian, the probability of default of a new customer, $y_{n+1}$, conditionally on his/her characteristics $x_{n+1}$, is obtained by integrating out the unknown parameters $\beta$ based on its most current information assessment, that is based on its posterior distribution $p\left(\beta \mid y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right)$ :

$$
P\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right)=\int P\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, \beta\right) p\left(\beta \mid y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right) d \beta
$$

Notice that the MLE basically puts $100 \%$ of its mass at $\hat{\beta}_{\text {MLE }}$ and the above probability would approximated by

$$
\widehat{P}\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, y_{1: n}, x_{1: n}\right)=P\left(y_{n+1}=1 \mid x_{n+1}, \widehat{\beta}\right)
$$

## Bayesian logistic regression

```
install.packages("BayesLogit")
library(BayesLogit)
X = cbind(1,balance,student.binary)
bayesfit = logit(default.binary,X)
P(yn+1}=1|\mathrm{ balance }=1500,\mathrm{ student }
```



## Bayes fit



## Regularized logistic regression

Recall that the classic Gaussian elasticnet estimates $\beta$ as that

$$
\hat{\beta}=\arg \min _{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right)^{2}+\lambda\left[(1-\alpha)\|\beta\|_{2}^{2}+\alpha\|\beta\|_{1}\right],
$$

with $\alpha=1$ being the lasso penalty, and $\alpha=0$ the ridge penalty.

It can be shown that the logistic elasticnet estimates $\beta$ as

$$
\hat{\beta}=\arg \min _{\beta}-\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i} x_{i}^{\prime} \beta-\log \left(1+\exp \left\{x_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right\}\right)\right)+\lambda\left[(1-\alpha)\|\beta\|_{2}^{2}+\alpha\|\beta\|_{1}\right]
$$

## R package glmnet

Logistic LASSO:
glmnet( $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{family="binomial"}, \mathrm{alpha=1)}$
cv.glmnet (x=X, $\mathrm{y}=\mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{family="binomial"}, \mathrm{alpha=1)}$

Classifications/probabilities:
predict(out,X_0,s="lambda.min",type="class")
predict(out,X_0,s="lambda.min",type="response")

## spam dataset ${ }^{1}$

A researcher labeled 4601 of his emails as either spam or ham, say

$$
y_{i}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if email } i \text { is spam } \\ 0 & \text { if email } i \text { is ham }\end{cases}
$$

$40 \%$ of the messages were spam.

57 predictors: most frequently used words/tokens.

The goal of the study is to predict whether future emails are spam or ham using these keywoords; that is to build a customized spam filter.

[^0]
## Predictors

## Predictors: $x_{i j}$ is the relative frequency of a keyword $j$ in email $i$

| 1 make | 16 free | 31 telnet | 46 edu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 address | 17 business | 32857 | 47 table |
| 3 all | 18 email | 33 data | 48 conference |
| 4 3d | 19 you | 34415 | 49 char; |
| 5 our | 20 credit | 3585 | 50 char ( |
| 6 over | 21 your | 36 technology | 51 char |
| 7 remove | 22 font | 371999 | 52 char! |
| 8 internet | 23000 | 38 parts | 53 char\$ |
| 9 order | 24 money | 39 pm | 54 char\# |
| 10 mail | 25 hp | 40 direct | 55 cap.ave |
| 11 receive | 26 hpl | 41 cs | 56 cap.long |
| 12 will | 27 george | 42 meeting | 57 cap.tot |
| 13 people | 28650 | 43 original |  |
| 14 report | 29 lab | 44 project |  |
| 15 addresses | 30 labs | 45 re |  |

## Observed predictors for the first 4 emails

make address all 3d our over remove internet order mail receive will people report addresses free business email

meeting original project re edu table conference char; char (char[ char! char\$ char\# cap.ave cap.long cap.tot

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[1]$, | 0 | 0.00 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.778 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 3.756 | 61 | 278 |
| $[2]$, | 0 | 0.00 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.132 | 0 | 0.372 | 0.180 | 0.048 | 5.114 | 101 | 1028 |
| $[3]$, | 0 | 0.12 | 0 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0 | 0 | 0.01 | 0.143 | 0 | 0.276 | 0.184 | 0.010 | 9.821 | 485 | 2259 |
| $[4]$, | 0 | 0.00 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.137 | 0 | 0.137 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 3.537 | 40 | 191 |

## Exploratory data analysis

Predictor's sample means


## Exploratory data analysis

Predictor's coefficient of variations


## Regularized logistic regression

Ridge, elasticnet and lasso




## Regularized logistic regression

Choosing penalty parameter: Ridge, elasticnet and lasso Training size is 2300 (testing is 2301)


## Estimation

## Comparing estimated predictor's coefficients



## Estimation

Shrinkage effect


## Misclassification rates

Probability of SPAM - testing sample



Elasticnet


LASSO


Bayes


## Misclassification rates

Probability of SPAM - testing sample



## Classification tables

|  | $y=0$, yhat=0 | $y=0$, yhat=1 | $y=1$, yhat=0 | $y=1$, yhat=1 | error |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| glm | 1325 | 80 | 93 | 803 | 7.52 |
| ridge | 1345 | 60 | 128 | 768 | 8.17 |
| enet | 1349 | 56 | 94 | 802 | 6.52 |
| lasso | 1347 | 58 | 95 | 801 | 6.65 |
| bayes | 1326 | 79 | 91 | 805 | 7.39 |

False negatives: Classifying a spam $(y=1)$ as a ham False positives: Classifying a ham $(y=0)$ as a spam False discoveries: False positives over positives.

|  | false.negative | false.positive false.discovery |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| glm | 10.38 | 5.69 | 8.20 |
| ridge | 14.29 | 4.27 | 6.28 |
| enet | 10.49 | 3.99 | 5.88 |
| lasso | 10.60 | 4.13 | 6.08 |
| bayes | 10.16 | 5.62 | 8.10 |

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## Discriminant analysis

Logistic regression (LR) models $P(y=k \mid x)$ directly.

Discriminant analysis (DA) models the predictors $x$ within each class $k$ of $y$ and then uses Bayes' rule to estimate $P(y=k \mid x)$.

When the $x$ s within each class of $y$ are Gaussian, LR and DA are quite similar.

Why bother?

- LR are unstable when classes are well-separated
- LR are unstable when $n$ is small
- LR is not too popular when $k>2$


## Discriminant rule ${ }^{2}$

A discriminant rule $d$ corresponds to a division of $\mathbb{R}^{p}$ into disjoint regions $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{\kappa}$ such that $\cap_{k=1}^{\kappa}=\mathbb{R}^{p}$.

The rule $d$ is defined by
allocate $x$ to group $k$ if $x \in R_{k}$,
for $k=1, \ldots, \kappa$.
${ }^{2}$ Based on Mardia, Kent and Bibby's Multivariate Analysis, Chapter 11.

## Bayes discriminant rule

$\pi_{k}$ : probability that an observation comes from class $k$, for $j=1, \ldots, \kappa$.
$p(x \mid y=k)$ : probability density function of $x$ from class $k$, for $k=1, \ldots, \kappa$.
$P(y=k \mid x)$ : Bayes' theorem states that

$$
P(y=k \mid x)=\frac{\pi_{k} p(x \mid y=k)}{\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \pi_{j} p(x \mid y=j)}
$$

Bayes discriminant rule: Allocate observation $x$ to the population $k^{*}$ such that

$$
k^{*}=\arg \max _{k \in 1, \ldots, k} P(y=k \mid x)
$$

is maximized. Alternatively, via allocation functions

$$
\phi_{k}(x)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } \pi_{k} p(x \mid y=k)=\max _{j} \pi_{j} p(x \mid y=j) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Maximum likelihood discriminant rule: $\pi_{1}=\cdots=\pi_{\kappa}=1 / \kappa$.

## Example: 0-1 predictor

Let $x$ be a Bernoulli random variable, with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \mid y=1 \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}(1 / 2) \\
& x \mid y=2 \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}(3 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

The ML discriminant rule allocates $x$ to class 1 when $x=0$ and allocates $x$ to class 2 when $x=1$, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p(x=0 \mid y=1)=1 / 2>1 / 4=p(x=0 \mid y=2) \\
& p(x=1 \mid y=1)=1 / 2<3 / 4=p(x=1 \mid y=2)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example: Multinomial

Suppose $x$ is a multinomial random variable, with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \mid y=1 \sim \text { Multinomial }\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{\kappa}\right) \\
& x \mid y=2 \sim \text { Multinomial }\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{\kappa}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \alpha_{k}=\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} x_{k}=n
$$

The likelihood functions are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p(x \mid y=1)=\frac{n!}{x_{1}!\cdots x_{\kappa}!} \alpha_{1}^{x_{1}} \cdots \alpha_{\kappa}^{x_{\kappa}} \\
& p(x \mid y=2)=\frac{n!}{x_{1}!\cdots x_{\kappa}!} \beta_{1}^{x_{1}} \cdots \beta_{\kappa}^{x_{\kappa}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The ML discriminant rule allocates $x$ to class 1 if

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} x_{i} \log \frac{\alpha_{k}}{\beta_{k}}<0
$$

## Univariate Gaussian models

Suppose $x$ is a Gaussian random variable, with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \mid y=1 \sim N\left(\mu_{1}, \sigma_{1}^{2}\right) \\
& x \mid y=2 \sim N\left(\mu_{2}, \sigma_{2}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mu_{1}<\mu_{2}$ and $\sigma_{1}>\sigma_{2}$.
$p(x \mid y=1)>p(x \mid y=2)$ if

$$
\frac{\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{1}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_{1}}{\sigma_{1}}\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{x-\mu_{2}}{\sigma_{2}}\right)^{2}\right]\right\}>1
$$

or

$$
x^{2}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{1}^{2}}-\frac{1}{\sigma_{2}^{2}}\right)-2 x\left(\frac{\mu_{1}}{\sigma_{1}^{2}}-\frac{\mu_{2}}{\sigma_{2}^{2}}\right)+\left(\frac{\mu_{1}^{2}}{\sigma_{1}^{2}}-\frac{\mu_{2}^{2}}{\sigma_{2}^{2}}\right)<2 \log \frac{\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{1}}<0 .
$$

If $\sigma_{1}=\sigma_{2}$, then $p(x \mid y=1)>p(x \mid y=2)$ when

$$
\left|x-\mu_{2}\right|>\left|x-\mu_{1}\right|
$$

or when $x<\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) / 2$.

Example: $\mu_{1}=1, \mu_{2}=5, \sigma_{1}=6, \sigma_{2}=2.5$



Example: $\mu_{1}=1, \mu_{2}=5, \sigma_{1}=6, \sigma_{2}=6$



## Gaussian populations with common variances

- Let $(x \mid y=k)$ be the $N_{p}\left(\mu_{k}, \Sigma\right)$, for $k=1, \ldots, \kappa$ and $\Sigma>0^{3}$.
- The ML discrimination rule allocates $x$ to class $k^{*}$ such that

$$
k^{*}=\arg \min _{k \in 1, \ldots, k}\left(x-\mu_{k}\right)^{\prime} \Sigma^{-1}\left(x-\mu_{k}\right),
$$

i.e., $k^{*}$ minimzes the square of the Mahalanobis distance between $x$ and $\mu_{k}$.

- When $\kappa=2$, the rule allocates $x$ to class $k=1$ if

$$
\alpha^{\prime}(x-\mu)>0,
$$

where $\alpha=\Sigma^{-1}\left(\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}\right)$ and $\mu=\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) / 2$.

- The discriminant function for two Gaussians with the same covariance matrix is linear. Quadratic Discriminant Analysis assumes distinct covariance matrices.
${ }^{3} \Sigma>0$ if $z^{\prime} \Sigma z>0, \forall z \neq 0$.


## Discriminant function

When there are just $\kappa=2$ classes, the ML discriminant rule is defined in terms of the discriminant function

$$
h(x)=\log p(x \mid y=1)-\log p(x \mid y=2)
$$

and the ML rule takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Allocate } x \text { to class } 1 \text { if } h(x)>0 \\
& \text { Allocate } x \text { to class } 2 \text { if } h(x)<0,
\end{aligned}
$$

while the Bayes discriminant rule takes the form of
Allocate $x$ to class 1 if $h(x)>\log \pi_{2} / \pi_{1}$
Allocate $x$ to class 2 if $h(x)<\log \pi_{2} / \pi_{1}$

## Admissibility

The probability of allocating an individual to class $i$, when in fact she comes from class $j$, is given by

$$
p_{i j}=\int \phi_{i}(x) p(x \mid y=j) d x
$$

Say that one discriminant rule $d$ with probabilities of correct allocation $\left\{p_{k k}\right\}$ is as good as another rule $d^{\prime}$ with probabilities $\left\{p_{k k}^{\prime}\right\}$ if

$$
p_{k k} \geq p_{k k}^{\prime} \quad \text { for all } k=1, \ldots, \kappa
$$

Say that $d$ is better than $d^{\prime}$ if at least one of the inequalities is strict. If $d$ is a rule for which there is no better rule, say that $d$ is admissible.

Theorem: All Bayes discriminant rules (including the ML rule) are admissible.

Theorem: If populations $k=1, \ldots, \kappa$ have prior probabilities $\pi_{1}, \ldots, \pi_{\kappa}$, then no discriminant rule has a larger posterior probability of correct allocation than the Bayes rule with respect to this prior.

## Decision theory and unequal costs

The discrimination problem can be seen as a decision problem. Let

$$
K(i, j)= \begin{cases}0, & i=j, \\ c_{i j} & i \neq j .\end{cases}
$$

be a loss function representing the cost or loss incurred when an observation is allocated to class $i$ when in fact it comes from class $j$, assuming $c_{i j}>0 \forall i \neq j$.

If $d$ is a rule with allocation function $\phi_{k}(x)$, then the risk function is defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
R(d, k) & =E(K(d(x), k) \mid y=k) \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} K(j, k) \int \phi_{j}(x) p(x \mid y=k) d x=\operatorname{sum}_{j=1}^{\kappa} c_{j k} p_{j k}
\end{aligned}
$$

If prior probabilities exist then the Bayes risk can be defined by

$$
r(d, \pi)=\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \pi_{k} R(d, k)
$$

and represents the posterior expected loss.

## Theorems

Theorem 1: All Bayes discrimination rules are admissible for the risk function $R$.

Theorem 2: If the classes $k=1, \ldots, \kappa$ have prior probabilities $\pi_{1}, \ldots, \pi_{\kappa}$, then no discriminant rule has smaller Bayes risk for the risk function $R$ than the Bayes rule with respect to $\pi$.

The advantage of the decision theory approach is that it allows us to attach varying levels of importance to different sorts of errors.

For example, in medical diagnosis it might be regarded as more harmful to a patient's survival for polio to be misdiagnosed as flu than for flu to be misdiagnosed as polio.

## iris dataset

This famous (Fisher's or Anderson's) iris data set gives the measurements in centimeters of the variables sepal length and width and petal length and width, respectively, for 50 flowers from each of 3 species of iris. The species are Iris setosa, versicolor, and virginica.
iris is a data frame with 150 cases (rows) and 5 variables (columns) named Sepal.Length, Sepal.Width, Petal.Length, Petal.Width, and Species.

Anderson (1935) The irises of the Gaspe Peninsula Bulletin of the American Iris Society, 59, 2-5.

Fisher (1936) The use of multiple measurements in taxonomic problems Annals of Eugenics, 7, Part II, 179-188.

## Summary statistics

```
data(iris)
iris[c(1,51,101),]
    Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width Species
\begin{tabular}{llllll}
1 & 5.1 & 3.5 & 1.4 & 0.2 & setosa
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
51 & 7.0 & 3.2 & 4.7 & 1.4 versicolor
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
101 & 6.3 & 3.3 & 6.0 & 2.5
\end{tabular}
y = rep(0,nrow(iris))
y[iris[,5]=="setosa"]=1
y[iris[,5]=="versicolor"]=2
y[iris[,5]=="virginica"]=3
x = as.matrix(iris[,1:2])
n = nrow (x)
n1 = sum(y==1)
n2 = sum(y==2)
n3 = sum(y==3)
xbar1 = apply(x[y==1,],2,mean)
xbar2 = apply(x[y==2,],2,mean)
xbar3 = apply(x[y==3,],2,mean)
S1 = var (x[y==1,])*(n1-1)/n1
S2 = var (x[y==2,])*(n2-1)/n2
S3 = var (x[y==3,])*(n3-1)/n3
cbind(xbar1,xbar2,xbar3)
    xbar1 xbar2 xbar3
Sepal.Length 5.006 5.936 6.588
Sepal.Width 3.428 2.770 2.974
round(cbind(S1,S2,S3),3)
    Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Sepal.Length Sepal.Width
\begin{tabular}{lllllll} 
Sepal.Length & 0.122 & 0.097 & 0.261 & 0.083 & 0.396 & 0.092 \\
Sepal.Width & 0.097 & 0.141 & 0.083 & 0.096 & 0.092 & 0.102
\end{tabular}
```


## Discrimination between three species of iris



## Partition Plot



## QDA

## Partition Plot



## admission dataset ${ }^{4}$

Admission data for applicants to graduate schools in business.
Objective: Predict likelihood of admission via GPA and GMAT scores.
Admission levels: admit, notadmit, and borderline

```
url <- "http://www.biz.uiowa.edu/faculty/jledolter/DataMining/admission.csv"
admit <- read.csv(url)
dim(admit)
adm=data.frame(admit)
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
boxplot(GPA~De,data=admit)
boxplot(GMAT ~De,data=admit)
par(mfrow=c(1,1))
plot(adm$GPA, adm$GMAT, col=adm$De)
```

[^1]
## Boxplots




## Analysis



## Linear discriminant analysis

```
> m1=lda(De~}.,data=adm
> m1
Call:
lda(De ~ ., data = adm)
Prior probabilities of groups:
    admit border notadmit
0.3647059 0.3058824 0.3294118
Group means:
    GPA GMAT
admit 3.403871 561.2258
border 2.992692 446.2308
notadmit 2.482500 447.0714
Coefficients of linear discriminants:
    LD1 LD2
GPA 5.008766354 1.87668220
GMAT 0.008568593 -0.01445106
Proportion of trace:
    LD1 LD2
0.9673 0.0327
> predict(m1,newdata=data.frame(GPA=3.21,GMAT=497))
$class
[1] admit
Levels: admit border notadmit
$posterior
        admit border notadmit
1 0.5180421 0.4816015 0.0003563717
$x
    LD1 LD2
1 1.252409 0.318194
```


## Quadratic discriminant analysis

```
> m2=qda(De~ ., adm)
> m2
Call:
qda(De ~ ., data = adm)
Prior probabilities of groups:
    admit border notadmit
0.3647059 0.3058824 0.3294118
Group means:
            GPA GMAT
admit 3.403871 561.2258
border 2.992692 446.2308
notadmit 2.482500 447.0714
> predict(m2,newdata=data.frame(GPA=3.21,GMAT=497))
$class
[1] admit
Levels: admit border notadmit
$posterior
    admit border notadmit
1 0.9226763 0.0768693 0.0004544468
```


## Exploratory Graph for LDA or QDA

```
install.packages('klaR')
library(klaR)
partimat(De~.,data=adm,method="lda")
partimat(De~.,data=adm,method="qda")
```


## LDA

## Partition Plot



## QDA

## Partition Plot




[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Text from Efron and Hastie (2016) Computer Age Statistical Inference: Algorithms, Evidence, and Data Science, pages 113-115.

[^1]:    ${ }^{4}$ Example from Johannes Ledolter: https://www.biz.uiowa.edu/faculty/jledolter

