# Lecture 12

# Classification

Readings: Zelterman, 2015, Chapter 10.1-10.4; Izenman, 2008 Chapter 8.1-8.4; ISLR, 2021 Chapter 9; Johnson & Wichern 2007, Chapter 11

DSA 8070 Multivariate Analysis

Classification

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Background

Binary Linear

Support Vecto Machines

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# **Agenda**



Background

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Binary Linear Classification

Support Vector Machines

### Classification

Data:

$$\{\boldsymbol{X}_i, Y_i\}_{i=1}^n,$$

where  $Y_i$  is the class information for the  $i_{th}$  observation  $\Rightarrow Y$  is a qualitative variable

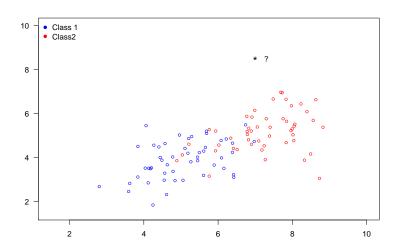
 Classification aims to classify a new observation (or several new observations) into one of those classes

Quantity of interest:  $P(Y = k_{th} \text{ category} | X = x)$ 

In this lecture we will focus on binary linear classification

# **Toy Example**

Wish to classify a new observation  $x_i = (x_{1i}, x_{2i})$ , denoted by (\*), into one of the two groups (class 1 or class 2)



### Classification



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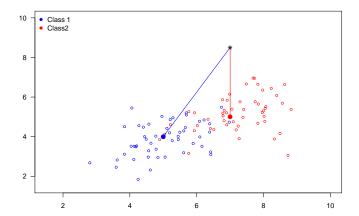
### Toy Example Cont'd

We can compute the distances from this new observation  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  to the groups, for example,

$$d_1 = \sqrt{(x_1 - \mu_{11})^2 + (x_2 - \mu_{12})^2},$$
  

$$d_2 = \sqrt{(x_1 - \mu_{21})^2 + (x_2 - \mu_{22})^2}.$$

We can assign x to the group with the smallest distance







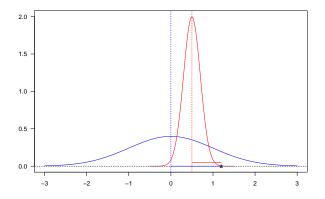
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### **Variance Corrected Distance**

In this one-dimensional example,  $d_1 = |x - \mu_1| > |x - \mu_2|$ . Does that mean x is "closer" to group 2 (red) than group 1 (blue)?



We should take the "spread" of each group into account.

$$\tilde{d}_1 = |x - \mu_1|/\sigma_1 < \tilde{d}_2 = |x - \mu_2|/\sigma_2$$





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# **General Covariance Adjusted Distance: Mahalanobis Distance**

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The Mahalanobis distance [Mahalanobis, 1936] is a measure of the distance between a point x and a multivariate distribution of X:

$$D_M(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sqrt{(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})},$$

where  $\mu$  is the mean vector and  $\Sigma$  is the variance-covariance matrix of X

One can use the Mahalanobis distance, by computing the Mahalanobis distance between an observations  $x_i$  and the "center" of the  $k_{th}$  population  $\mu_k$ , to carry out classification

Assume  $X_1 \sim \text{MVN}(\mu_1, \Sigma)$ ,  $X_2 \sim \text{MVN}(\mu_2, \Sigma)$ , that is,

$$\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \Sigma$$

• Maximum Likelihood of group membership:

Group 1 if 
$$\ell(x, \mu_1, \Sigma) > \ell(x, \mu_2, \Sigma)$$

Linear Discriminant Function:

Group 1 if 
$$(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} x - \frac{1}{2} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_1 + \mu_2) > 0$$

Minimize Mahalanobis distance:

Group 1 if 
$$(x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_1) < (x - \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_2)$$

All the criteria above are equivalent in terms of classification



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### **Priors and Misclassification Costs**



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In addition to the observed characteristics of units  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , other considerations of classification rules are:

# Prior probability:

If one population is more prevalent than the other, chances are higher that a new unit came from the larger population. Stronger evidence would be needed to allocate the unit to the population with the smaller prior probability.

### Costs of misclassification:

It may be more costly to misclassify a seriously ill subject as healthy than to misclassify a healthy subject as being ill.

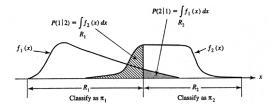
# **Classification Regions and Misclassifications**

• The probability of misclassifying an object into  $\pi_2$  when it belongs in  $\pi_1$  is

$$P(2|1) = \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R}_2|\pi_1)$$

• The probability of misclassifying an object into  $\pi_1$  when it belongs in  $\pi_2$  is

$$P(1|2) = \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R}_1 | \pi_2)$$



Source: Figure 11.3 from Applied Multivariate Statistical Analysis, 6th Ed (Johnson & Wichern). Visualization is for p=1 variable.





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Then probabilities of the four possible outcomes are:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbb{P}(\text{correctly classified as } \pi_1) &= \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R}_1 | \pi_1) \mathbb{P}(\pi_1) = P(1 | 1) p_1 \\ \mathbb{P}(\text{incorrectly classified as } \pi_1) &= \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R}_1 | \pi_2) \mathbb{P}(\pi_2) = P(1 | 2) p_2 \\ \mathbb{P}(\text{correctly classified as } \pi_2) &= \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R}_2 | \pi_2) \mathbb{P}(\pi_2) = P(2 | 2) p_2 \\ \mathbb{P}(\text{incorrectly classified as } \pi_2) &= \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R}_2 | \pi_1) \mathbb{P}(\pi_1) = P(2 | 1) p_1 \\ \end{array}$$

 Classification rules are often evaluated in terms of the expected cost of misclassification (ECM):

ECM = 
$$c(2|1)P(2|1)p_1 + c(1|2)P(1|2)p_2$$
,

and we seek rules that minimize the ECM

# Classification Rule and Special Cases of Minimum ECM Regions

The regions  $\mathcal{R}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_2$  that minimize the ECM are defined by the values of x for which

$$\mathcal{R}_1: \frac{f_1(\boldsymbol{x})}{f_2(\boldsymbol{x})} > \left(\frac{c(1|2)}{c(2|1)}\right) \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)$$

$$\mathcal{R}_2: \frac{f_1(\boldsymbol{x})}{f_2(\boldsymbol{x})} < \left(\frac{c(1|2)}{c(2|1)}\right) \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)$$

• if 
$$p_1 = p_2 : \frac{f_1(x)}{f_2(x)} > \frac{c(1|2)}{c(2|1)} \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}_1$$
, otherwise  $\mathcal{R}_2$ 

• if 
$$c(1|2) = c(2|1) : \frac{f_1(x)}{f_2(x)} > \frac{p_2}{p_1} \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}_1$$
, otherwise  $\mathcal{R}_2$ 

• if 
$$c(1|2) = c(2|1)$$
 and  $p_1 = p_2 : \frac{f_1(x)}{f_2(x)} > 1 \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}_1$ , otherwise  $\mathcal{R}_2$ 

### Classification



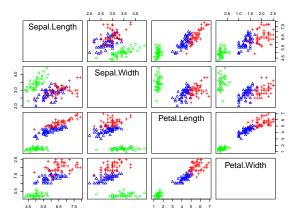
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### **Example: Fisher's Iris Data**

4 variables (sepal length and width and petal length and width), 3 species (setosa, versicolor, and virginica)



**Task:** Classify flowers into different species based on lengths and widths of sepal and petal



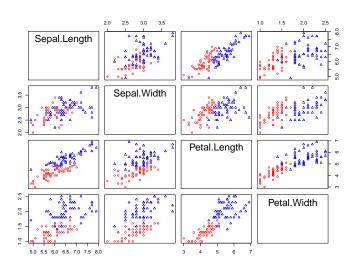
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### Fisher's Iris Data Cont'd

Let's focus on the latter two classes (versicolor, and virginica)



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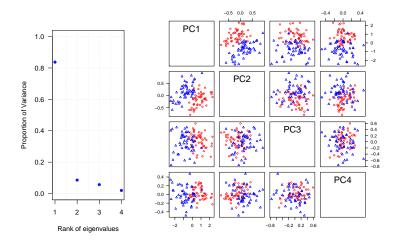
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### Fisher's iris Data Cont'd

To further simplify the matter, let's focus on the first two PCs of  $\boldsymbol{X}$ 



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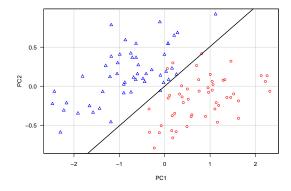
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$$P(Y = k | \boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{P(Y = k)P(\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}|Y = k)}{P(\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x})} = \frac{\pi_k f_k(\boldsymbol{x})}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k f_k(\boldsymbol{x})}.$$

Assuming  $f_k(x) \sim \text{MVN}(\mu_k, \Sigma)$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$  and use  $\hat{\pi}_k = \frac{n_k}{n} \Rightarrow$  it turns out the resulting classifier is linear in x

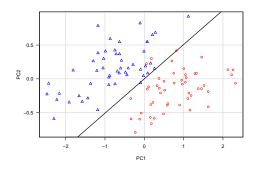




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### **Classification Performance Evaluation**



fit.LDA
versicolor virginica
versicolor 47 3
virginica 1 49

Misclassification rate:  $\frac{3+1}{47+3+1+49}$  = 0.04





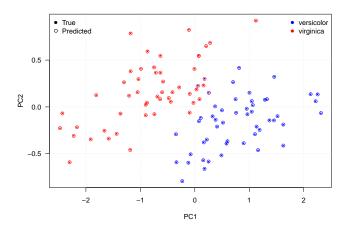
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# **Logistic Regression Classifier**

**Main idea:** Model the logit  $\log \left( \frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)} \right)$  as a linear function in x (PC1 and PC2 in this case)



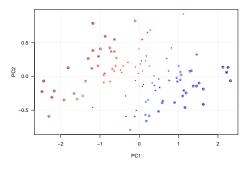


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# **Logistic Regression Classifier Cont'd**



logisticPred
versicolor virginica
versicolor 48 2
virginica 1 49

Misclassification rate:  $\frac{2+1}{48+2+1+49} = 0.03$ 





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# **Linear Discriminant Analysis Versus Logistic Regression**

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For a binary classification problem, one can show that both linear discriminant analysis (LDA) and logistic regression are linear classifiers. The difference is in how the parameters are estimated:

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- Logistic regression uses the conditional likelihood based on P(Y|X = x)
- LDA uses the full likelihood based on multivariate normal assumption on X
- Despite these differences, in practice the results are often very similar

# **Quadratic Discriminant Analysis**

In linear discriminant analysis, we **assume**  $\{f_k(x)\}_{k=1}^K$  are normal densities and  $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$ , therefore we obtain a linear classifier.

What if  $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$ ?  $\Rightarrow$  we get quadratic discriminant analysis

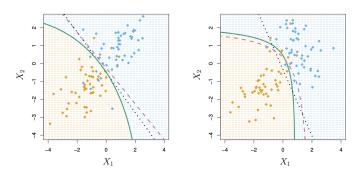


Figure courtesy of An Introduction of Statistical Learning by G. James et al. pp. 154



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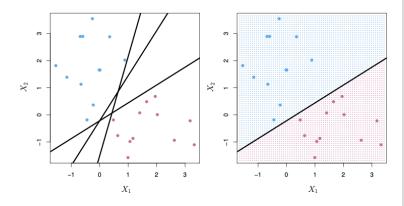
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# **An Algorithmic Approach to Classification**

Find a hyperplane that "best" separates the classes in feature space

- what we mean by "separateness"?
- what is the feature space?



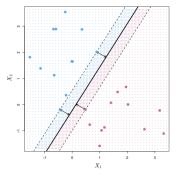


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# **Maximal Margin Classifier**

**Main idea**: among all separating hyperplanes, find the one that creates the biggest gap ("margin") between the two classes



doing so leads to the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{split} & \mathsf{maximzie}_{\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2} \mathbf{M} \\ & \mathsf{subject to} \ \sum_{j=1}^2 \beta_j^2 = 1, \\ & y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}) \geq M, \\ & i = 1, \cdots, n \end{split}$$

This problem can be solved efficiently using techniques from quadratic programming



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# **Supper Vector Classifier**

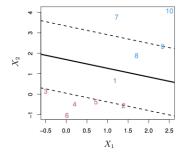
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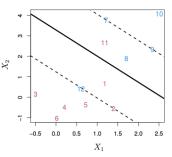
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- Sometimes the data can not be separated by a line
- data can be noisy which leads to unstable maximal-margin classifier

The support vector classifier maximizes a "soft" margin

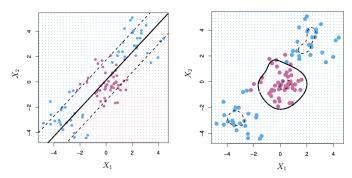




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# **Beyond Linear Classifier**



- A linear boundary can fail to separate classes
- Can expand the feature space by including transformations, e.g.,  $X_1^2, X_2^2, X_1X_2, \cdots \Rightarrow$  gives non-linear decision boundaries in the original feature space
- However, polynomials basis can be unstable, a more general way to introduce non-linearities is through the use of kernels, e.g.,  $f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \hat{\alpha}_i \exp(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^p (x_j x_{ij})^2)$



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# SVM Vesus Logistic Regression (LR) and LDA



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- When classes are (nearly) separable, SVM does better than LR and LDA
- Use LR to estimate class probabilities as SVM is a non-probabilistic classifier
- For nonlinear boundaries, kernel SVMs are popular

### **Summary**

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- In this lecture we learned about:
  - Some classical classifiers for performing classification
  - How to assess the efficacy of a classifier
  - Support vector machines (SVMs)

### R functions to know

- lda/qda from the MASS library
- svm from the e1071 library

In the next lecture, we will learn about Cluster Analysis