High-Dimensional Classification Methods for Sparse Signals and Their Applications in Gene Expression Data

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- 1. Introduction
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- High-dimensional classification arises in many contemporary statistical problems.
- Bioinformatic: disease classification using microarray, proteomics, fMRI data.



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- Bioinformatic: disease classification using microarray, proteomics, fMRI data.



- Occument or text classification: E-mail spam.
- Voice recognition, hand written recognition, etc.

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Well known classification methods include:

► ♠ Logistic Regression

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- A Logistic Regression
- Fisher discriminant analysis

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♦ Fan and Fan (2008) showed that even for Naive Bayes using all the features increases the error rate and suggested FAIR.

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♦ My Works:

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♦ Fan and etal.(2012) showed that Naive Bayes increase error rates if there is correlation among the features.

• My Works:

- I will show that even under high-correlation Naive Bayes can perform better than Fisher.
- I propose a generalized test statistic and give the condition under which it selects important features.

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Fisher discriminant rule

$$\delta_{\mathsf{F}}(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{a}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \mathbf{1} \left\{ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{a}) > 0 \right\},$$
(1)

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Fisher discriminant rule

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(1)

with corresponding misclassification error rate

$$W(\delta_F, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \bar{\boldsymbol{\Phi}} \left(\frac{(\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_d)^{1/2}}{2} \right).$$
(2)

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Naive Bayes rule

$$\delta_{NB}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{a}, D) = \mathbf{1} \left\{ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}^{\mathsf{T}} D^{-1}(\boldsymbol{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{a}) > 0 \right\}, \qquad (3)$$

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Naive Bayes rule

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whose misclassification error rate is

$$W(\delta_{NB},\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \bar{\Phi}\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}^{T} D^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}}{2(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{d}^{T} D^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} D^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{d})^{1/2}}\right).$$
 (4)

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Definition: Suppose that $\mu_d = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_s, 0, \dots, 0)^T$ is the $p \times 1$ mean difference vector where $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, j = 1, 2, \dots, s$. We say that μ_d is sparse if s = o(p). Signal is defined as

$$C_s = \mu_d^T D^{-1} \mu_d = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha_j}{\sigma_j^2}$$
 where σ_j^2 is the common variance for

feature j in the two classes.

Examples of Sparse situations in real life:

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★ Gene Expression data (Eg: p genes from Leukemia and Normal, only s of them distinguish Leukemia and Normal).

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feature j in the two classes.

Examples of Sparse situations in real life:

- ➤ Gene Expression data (Eg: p genes from Leukemia and Normal, only s of them distinguish Leukemia and Normal).
- ➤ Author Identification (Eg: two novels from two authors and there are only s few words which distinguish them).

Theorem 2.1: If $m \leq s, \mu_d^{(m)} = (\alpha, \alpha, \dots, \alpha)^T = \alpha \mathbf{1}, \alpha \neq 0$ and $\Sigma^{(m)}$ is the truncated $m \times m$ equicorrelation matrix, then we have

$$W(\delta_F, \theta^{(m)}) = W(\delta_{NB}, \theta^{(m)}),$$

where $\theta^{(m)}$ is the truncated parameter.

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$$W(\delta_F, \theta^{(m)}) = W(\delta_{NB}, \theta^{(m)}),$$

where $\theta^{(m)}$ is the truncated parameter.

We **define** $\bar{\rho}^{(m)}$ and $\rho_{\max}^{(m)}$ are equicorrelation matrices with off diagonals the mean of the correlation coefficients and largest of the absolute values of the correlation coefficients respectively.

Theorem 2.2: Suppose $\rho^{(m)}$ is an $m \times m$ correlation matrix and $\mu_d^{(m)}$ is an $m \times 1$ mean difference vector.

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$$\bar{\Phi}\left(\frac{\sqrt{(\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)})^T(D^{(m)})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)}}}{2\sqrt{\lambda_{\min}(\boldsymbol{\rho}^{(m)})}}\right) \leq W(\delta_w, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m)}) \leq \bar{\Phi}\left(\frac{\sqrt{(\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)})^T(D^{(m)})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)}}}{2\sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(\boldsymbol{\rho}^{(m)})}}\right)$$

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(**b**) Suppose, further, that $\lambda_{\min}(\rho^{(m)}) \geq \lambda_{\min}(\bar{\rho}^{(m)}) = 1 - \bar{\rho}$. Then

$$\bar{\Phi}\left(\frac{\sqrt{(\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)})^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathcal{D}^{(m)})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)}}}{2\sqrt{1-\bar{\rho}}}\right) \leq W(\delta_{\mathsf{w}},\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m)}) \leq \bar{\Phi}\left(\frac{\sqrt{(\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)})^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathcal{D}^{(m)})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_d^{(m)}}}{2\sqrt{1+(m-1)\rho_{\mathsf{max}}}}\right)$$

where w = F or w = NB for the truncated parameter $\theta^{(m)}$.

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3. Feature Selection

Goal of Feature Selection. How do i pick the best markers? Which method? Finding a needle in haystack?

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For unequal sample sizes, unequal variance, the absolute value of the two-sample t-statistic for feature j is defined as

$$T_{j} = \frac{|\bar{X}_{1j} - \bar{X}_{0j}|}{\sqrt{S_{1j}^{2}/n_{1} + S_{0j}^{2}/n_{0}}}, \quad j = 1, \dots, p.$$
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Fan and Fan (2008) gave the conditions under which the two-sample t-test can select all the important features with probability 1.

In this talk we will use the two-sample t-test as feature selection method.

3. Feature Selection

They stated their theorem as follows assuming μ_d is sparse:

Theorem 3.1: Let *s* be a sequence such that $\log(p - s) = o(n^{\gamma})$ and $\log s = o(n^{1/2-\gamma}\beta_n)$ for some $\beta_n \to \infty$ and $0 < \gamma < 1/3$. Suppose that $\min_{1 \le j \le s} \frac{|\mu_{d,j}|}{\sqrt{\sigma_{1j}^2 + \sigma_{0j}^2}} = n^{-\gamma}\beta_n$ where $\mu_{d,j}$ is the *j*th

feature mean difference. Then, for $x \sim c n^{\gamma/2}$ with c some positive constant, we have

$$P\left(\min_{j \leq s} T_j \geq x \text{ and } \max_{j > s} T_j < x
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Note that asymptotically the two-sample t-test can pick up all the important features. However we are interested in the probability of selecting all the important features in the short run.

3. Feature Selection: Simulation Results

We take $p = 4500, s = 90, n_1 = n_0 = 30, \Sigma$ is equicorrelation and μ_d equal mean difference. Simulation results for the probability of getting all the important *s* features in the first *s* and 2*s* t-statistics respectively.

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Generalized Feature Selection

Two-sample t-test depends on (approximately) normal distribution.

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Generalized Feature Selection

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Our test statistic T_j for feature j is defined as follows:

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Generalized Feature Selection

Two-sample t-test depends on (approximately) normal distribution.

Our test statistic T_i for feature *j* is defined as follows:

$$T_{j} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n_{1}} w_{1kj} - \sum_{k=1}^{n_{0}} w_{0kj}}{SE(\sum_{k=1}^{n_{1}} w_{1kj} - \sum_{k=1}^{n_{0}} w_{0kj})}$$
(6)

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where w_{ikj} , i = 0, 1, is the statistic for feature j in class i for sample k.

Our test statistic is a special case of Two-sample t-test, Wilcoxon Mann-Whitney, and Two-sample Proportion test.

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Theorem 3.2: Assume that the vector $\mu_d = \mu_1 - \mu_0$ is sparse and without loss of generality only first *s* entries are nonzero. Let *s* be a sequence such that $\log(p - s) = o(n^{\gamma})$ and $\log s = o(n^{\gamma})$ for some $0 < \gamma < 1/3$. Suppose $\min_{1 \le j \le s} |\eta_j| = n^{-\gamma} C_n$ such that $C_n/n^{\frac{3\gamma}{2}} \to c^*$. For $t \sim cn^{\frac{\gamma}{2}}$ with some constant $0 < c < c^*/2$ we have

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$$P(\min_{j \leq s} |T_j| \geq t, \text{ and } \max_{j > s} |T_j| < t) \rightarrow 1.$$

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We use validation data to determine the optimal number of features.

We take:

- ◊ *p* = 4500, *s* = 90
- \diamond Training: $n_1 = n_0 = 30$
- \diamond Validation: $n_1 = n_0 = 30$
- \diamond Testing: $n_1 = n_0 = 50$

NB dominates Fisher

ρ	$\alpha = 1$	<i>m</i> NB	<i>m</i> F	Emp. Err.NB	Emp. Err.F
0.1	Q1	31.75	9.00	0.0375	0.1200
	Median	63.00	13.00	0.0700	0.1400
	Mean	79.98	16.42	0.0693	0.1448
	Q3	122.20	23.00	0.1000	0.1700
0.5	Q1	9.00	4.00	0.0475	0.240
	Median	53.50	10.00	0.2100	0.280
	Mean	78.96	15.72	0.1852	0.267
	Q3	155.50	25.00	0.2800	0.300
Ran. Corr.	Q1	15.00	18.75	0.0100	0.0200
	Median	20.00	21.00	0.0200	0.0300
	Mean	22.46	24.55	0.0221	0.0394
	Q3	26.25	29.25	0.0300	0.0500

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Simulations for equicorrelation and equal mean difference with $p = 4500, s = 90, \rho = 0.5$. Balanced $(n_1 = n_0 = 30)$ and unbalanced $(n_1 = 30, n_0 = 60)$ respectively. The testing sample sizes are $n_1 = n_0 = 50$ for both.

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Similar simulation as the balanced except we use random correlation. We randomly generate the eigenvalues of Σ in the interval [0.5, 45.5].

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Leukemia Data (p = 7129, n = 72).

Training: $n_1 = 24$ from class ALL and $n_0 = 13$ from class AML.

Validation: $n_1 = 23$ from class ALL and $n_0 = 12$ from class AML.

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Leukemia Data (p = 7129, n = 72).

Training: $n_1 = 24$ from class ALL and $n_0 = 13$ from class AML.

Validation: $n_1 = 23$ from class ALL and $n_0 = 12$ from class AML.



For NB the optimal number of genes is 43 with min. error 2/35.

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Atopic Dermatitis (AD) Data (p = 54675, n = 72).

Training: $n_1 = 24$ from class AD and $n_0 = 15$ from class non-AD.

Validation: $n_1 = 25$ from class AD and $n_0 = 8$ from class non-AD.

Atopic Dermatitis (AD) Data (p = 54675, n = 72).

Training: $n_1 = 24$ from class AD and $n_0 = 15$ from class non-AD.

Validation: $n_1 = 25$ from class AD and $n_0 = 8$ from class non-AD.



For NB the optimal number of genes is 34 with min. error 0.03.

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5. Applications to Text Data

NASA flight data set (p = 26694, n = 4567). Training: $n_1 = 1081$, $n_0 = 1486$, Validation: $n_1 = n_0 = 500$ and Testing: $n_1 = n_0 = 500$

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5. Applications to Text Data

NASA flight data set (p = 26694, n = 4567). Training: $n_1 = 1081$, $n_0 = 1486$, Validation: $n_1 = n_0 = 500$ and Testing: $n_1 = n_0 = 500$



For NB classifier the optimal number of features selected using the validation data set is 148 with corresponding testing error rate 0.116. For Fisher using 48 with corresponding testing error > 0.20.

In this talk we considered a binary classification problem when the feature dimension p is much larger than the sample size n. The following are the main results:

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■ We have given conditions under which Naive Bayes is optimal for the population model.

■ Through theory, simulation and data analysis we have shown that Naive Bayes is practical method to use than Fisher for high-dimensional data.

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■ In designing binary classification experiments, Fisher requires full correlation structure but using equicorelation structure we can design our experiment using Naive Bayes.

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■ Through theory, simulation and data analysis we have shown that Naive Bayes is practical method to use than Fisher for high-dimensional data.

■ In designing binary classification experiments, Fisher requires full correlation structure but using equicorelation structure we can design our experiment using Naive Bayes.

■ Through simulation we characterized that the two-sample t-test can pick up all the important features as far the signal is not too low.

8. Selected Bibliography

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Thank You For Listening!

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