Machine Learning (CE 40717) Fall 2024

Ali Sharifi-Zarchi

CE Department Sharif University of Technology

September 22, 2024



- 1 Introduction to Classification
- 2 Discriminant Functions
- 3 Linear Classifiers
- **4** Cost Functions
- 6 Perceptron
- **6** Cross Validation
- Multi-Category Classification



- **1** Introduction to Classification
- 3 Linear Classifiers
- 4 Cost Functions

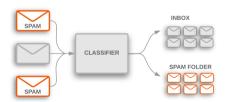
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- **6** Cross Validation
- Multi-Category Classification



Definition

- Given: Training Set
 - A dataset *D* with *N* labeled instances $D = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{N}$
 - $y^{(i)} \in \{1, ..., K\}$
- Goal: Given an input x, assign it to one of K classes.
- Real-World Examples:
 - Email Spam Detection
 - Medical Diagnosis
 - Churn Prediction



Real-World Example of Classification

Introduction to Classification

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Pima Indians Diabetes Dataset:

- **Problem**: Predict whether a patient has diabetes based on medical diagnostics.
- Context: Early detection of diabetes is critical for treatment and management.

	Number of times pregnant	Glucose	Blood Pressure	Skin Thickness	Insulin	Diabetes pedigree function	Age	BMI	Label
Patient 1	6	148	72	35	0	0.627	50	33.6	Positive
Patient 2	1	85	66	29	0	0.351	31	26.6	Negative
Patient 3	0	137	40	35	168	2.288	33	43.1	Positive
Patient 4	1	89	66	23	94	0.167	21	28.1	Negative
	•								

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Classification vs. Regression

	Aspect	Linear Regression	Linear Classification			
	Output Type	Continuous values (real numbers).	Binary or Multi-class labels			
		Continuous values (real numbers).	(e.g., 0/1, A/B/C)			
	Use Cases	Predicting house prices,	Email spam detection,			
		stock market trends.	Credit Scoring, Churn Prediction			

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Discriminant Functions in Machine Learning

Definition

- A function that assigns a score to an input vector x, to classify it into different classes.
- It maps the input \mathbf{x} to a real number $g(\mathbf{x})$, which represents the degree of confidence in assigning \mathbf{x} to a particular class.

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Discriminant Functions in Machine Learning

How it works

• Binary Classification: Two functions $g_1(\mathbf{x})$ and $g_2(\mathbf{x})$ for classes C_1 and C_2 , respectively. The class is predicted by comparing these two functions:

$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } g_1(\mathbf{x}) > g_2(\mathbf{x}) \\ 2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

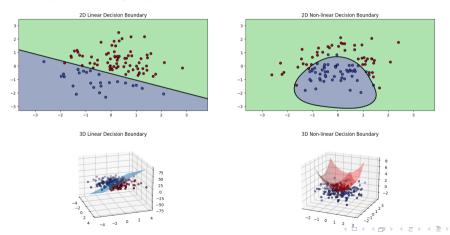
• General Case: For k-class problems, we compute $g_i(\mathbf{x})$ for every class i, and assign x to class with highest score:

$$\hat{y} = \arg\max_{i} g_i(\mathbf{x})$$

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Decision Boundary

• **Definition**: A dividing hyperplane that separates different classes in a feature space, also known as "Decision Surface".



Discriminant Functions: Two-Category

- Function: For two-category problem, we can only find a function $g: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$
 - $g_1(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x}),$
 - $g_2(\mathbf{x}) = -g(\mathbf{x})$
- **Decision Boundary**: $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$
- At first, we start by explaining two-category classification for simplicity, and then extend the concept to multi-category classification for more complex problems.

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Linear Classifiers

- **Definition**: In case of linear classifiers, decision boundaries are linear in d ($\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$), or linear in some given set of functions of x.
- Linearly separable data: Data points that can be exactly separated by a linear decision boundary.
- Why are they popular?
 - Simplicity, Efficiency, Effectiveness.

Two Category Classification

•
$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 = w_d \cdot x_d + \dots + w_1 \cdot x_1 + w_0$$

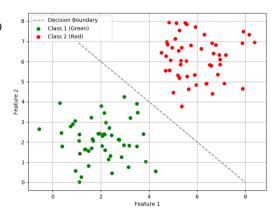
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$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1 ... x_d]$$

•
$$\mathbf{w} = [w_1 \dots w_d]$$

• w_0 : bias

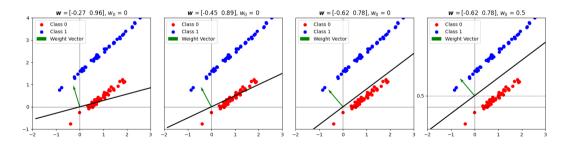
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$$\begin{cases} C_1 & \text{if } \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 \ge 0 \\ C_2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Decision Surface: $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0$



Two Category Classification Cont.

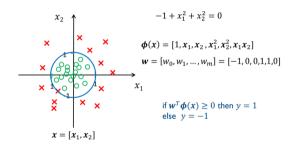
- Decision Boundary is a (d-1)-dimensional hyperplane H in the d-dimensional feature space. Some properties of H are:
 - Orientation of *H* is determined by the normal vector $[w_1 ... w_d]$ $(\frac{w}{\|w\|})$.
 - w_0 determines the location of the surface.



Non-linear decision boundary

Non-linear Decision Boundaries

- Feature Transformation: Nonlinearity is introduced by transforming features into a higherdimensional space.
- Linear in Transformed Space: The decision boundary becomes linear in the new space, but nonlinear in the original space.



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Cost Functions

Cost Functions in Linear Classifiers

- Purpose of cost functions is to measure the difference between predicted and actual class labels.
- Finding discriminant functions is framed as minimizing a cost function.
 - Based on training set $D = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$, a cost function $J(\mathbf{w})$ is defined.
 - Problem converts to finding optimal $\hat{g}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x}; \hat{\mathbf{w}})$ where

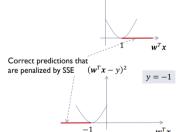
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w})$$

Sum of Squared Error Cost Function

• Sum of Squared Error (SSE) Cost Function

- **Formula**: $J(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} \hat{y}^{(i)})^2$, $\hat{y}^{(i)} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + w_0$
- SSE minimizes the magnitude of the error, which is ideal for regression but irrelevant for classification.

• If the model predicts close to the true class but not exactly 1 or -1, SSE still shows positive error, even for correct predictions.



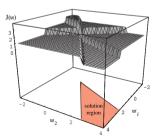
An Alternative for SSE Cost Function

- Number of Misclassifications
 - **Definition**: Measures how many samples are misclassified by the model.
 - Formula:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \text{sign}(\hat{y}^{(i)}))^2, \quad \hat{y}^{(i)} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + w_0$$

• Limitations:

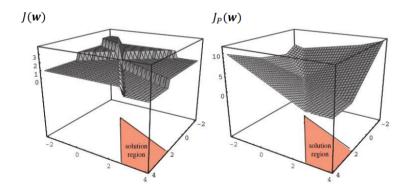
 Piecewise Constant: The cost function is non-differentiable, so optimization techniques (like gradient descent) cannot be directly applied.



Perceptron Algorithm

• The Perceptron Algorithm

• **Purpose**: A simple algorithm for binary classification, separating two classes with a linear boundary.



Perceptron Criterion

• Cost Function: The perceptron criterion focuses on misclassified points:

$$J_p(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{i \in M} y^{(i)} \, \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

where M is the set of misclassified points.

• Goal: Minimize the loss by correctly classifying all points.

Batch Perceptron

- **Batch Perceptron**: Updates the weight vector using all misclassified points in each iteration.
- **Gradient Descent**: Adjusting weights in the direction that reduces the loss:

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} J_p(\mathbf{w})$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} J_p(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{i \in M} y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

• Batch Perceptron converges in finite number of steps for linearly separable data.

Single-sample Perceptron

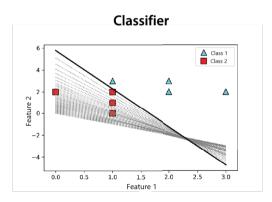
- Single Sample Perceptron: Updates the weight vector after each individual point.
- Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) Update Rule:
 - Using only one misclassified sample at a time:

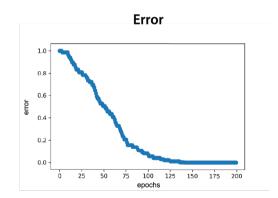
$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \eta y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

- Lower computational cost per iteration, faster convergence.
- If training data are linearly separable, the single-sample perceptron is also guaranteed to find a solution in a finite number of steps.

Example

• Perceptron changes w in a direction that corrects error.

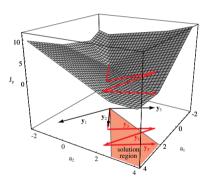






Convergence of Perceptron

- **Non-Linearly Separable Data**: When no linear decision boundary can perfectly separate the classes, the Perceptron fails to converge.
 - If data is not linearly separable, there will always be some points that the model fails to classify.
 - As a result, the algorithm keeps adjusting the weights to fix the misclassified points, causing it to never converge.
 - For the data that are not linearly separable due to noise, **Pocket Algorithm** keeps in its pocket the best **w** encountered up to now.



Pocket Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Pocket Algorithm

```
1: Initialize w
 2: for t = 1 to T do
 3:
            i \leftarrow t \mod N
            if \mathbf{x}^{(i)} is misclassified then
 4:
                  \mathbf{w}^{new} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \mathbf{v}^{(i)}
 5:
                  if E_{train}(\mathbf{w}^{new}) < E_{train}(\mathbf{w}) then
 6:
                         \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^{new}
 7:
 8:
                  end if
            end if
 9:
10: end for
```

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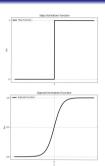


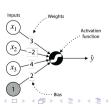
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But What Is Perceptron?

• Perceptron Unit:

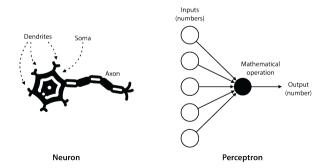
- **Basic Building Block**: A perceptron is the simplest type of artificial neuron used in machine learning.
- **Linear Classifier**: It maps input features to an output by applying a linear combination and a threshold.
- **Binary Decision**: Outputs 1 if the weighted sum of inputs exceeds the threshold, otherwise 0.
- **Components**: Inputs, weights, bias, and an activation function (often a step function).





Inspired by Biology

- Biological Motivation Behind Perceptron:
 - Inspired by Neurons: Perceptron mimics the basic function of biological neurons in the brain.
 - Input and Output, Activation Function.



Single Neuron

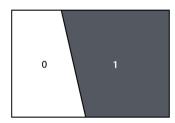
- Single Neuron as a Linear Decision Boundary
 - Mathematical Form: The output of a single neuron is computed as:

$$y = f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0)$$

where:

- **x** is the input vector.
- w is the weight vector.
- w_0 is the bias term.
- f is an activation function (e.g., step function).
- **Linear Separation**: If the activation function is a step function, the neuron defines a linear decision boundary: $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 = 0$
- **Decision Rule**: Class 1 if $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 \ge 0$, otherwise Class 2.

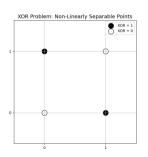
$$Class = f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0)$$



Limitations of a Single Perceptron

- What a Single Perceptron Can and Can't Do:
 - Performs Linear Separations: A single perceptron can handle linearly separable problems such as:
 - AND operation
 - OR operation

• Fails on Non-Linear Problems: A single perceptron fails to solve non-linear problems like XOR, as the data points cannot be separated by a straight line.



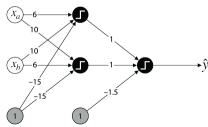
Towards Complex Decision Boundaries

• Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP):

- Adding Layers for More Complexity: An MLP consists of multiple layers of neurons that allow us to model more complex functions than a single neuron.
 - Each layer introduces new decision boundaries, making it possible to separate non-linear data.

Two-Layer Example:

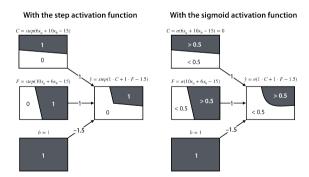
- Input Layer → Hidden Layer → Output Layer
- Hidden layer introduces non-linear transformations that enable complex decision regions.





Refining the Decision Boundary

- **New Neurons for Better Separation**: By adding more neurons to a layer, we can further refine the decision boundary to better separate complex data.
- Each additional neuron introduces new features that help the model make more accurate decisions.



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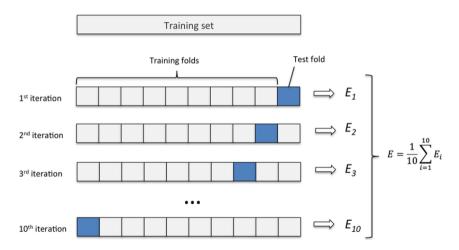
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Model Selection via Cross Validation

Cross-Validation

- **Purpose**: Technique for evaluating how well a model generalizes to unseen data.
- How It Works: Split data into k folds; train on k-1 folds and validate on the remaining fold.
- **Repeat Process**: Repeat *k* times, rotating the test fold each time. Average of all scores is the final score of the model.
- Cross-validation reduces overfitting and provides a more reliable estimation of model performance.

K-Fold Cross Validation

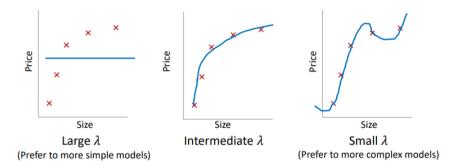


Leave-One-Out Cross-Validation (LOOCV)

- Leave-One-Out Cross-Validation (LOOCV)
 - How It Works: Uses a single data point as the validation set (k = 1) and the rest as the training set. Repeat for all data points.
 - Properties:
 - No Data Wastage: Every data point is used for both training and validation.
 - High Variance, Low Bias.
 - Computationally Expensive: Requires training the model N times for N data points, making it slow for large datasets.
 - Best for small datasets.

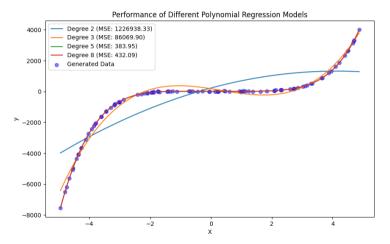


Cross-Validation for Choosing Regularization Term





Cross-Validation for Choosing Model Complexity



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Multi-Category Classification

- Solutions to multi-category classification problem:
 - Extend the learning algorithm to support multi-class.
 - First, a function g_i for every class C_i is found.
 - Second, **x** is assigned to C_i if $g_i(\mathbf{x}) > g_j(\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall i \neq j$

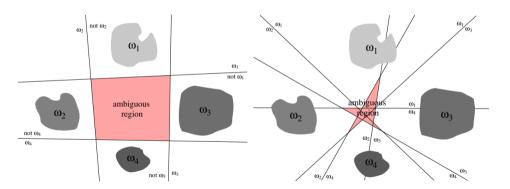
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \underset{i=1,\dots,c}{\operatorname{argmax}} g_i(\mathbf{x})$$

- Convert to a set of two-categorical problems.
 - Methods like One-vs-Rest or One-vs-One, where each classifier distinguishes between either one class and the rest, or between pairs of classes.



Multi-Category Classification: Ambiguity

• One-vs-One and One-vs-Rest conversion can lead to regions in which the classification is **undefined**.



Multi-Category Classification: Linear Machines

- **Linear Machines**: Alternative to One-vs-Rest and One-vs-One methods; Each class is represented by its own discriminant function.
- Decision Rule:

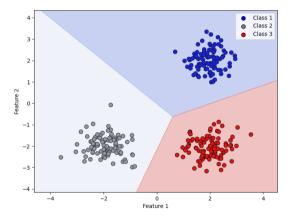
$$\hat{y} = \underset{i=1,\dots,c}{\operatorname{argmax}} g_i(\mathbf{x})$$

The predicted class is the one with the highest discriminant function value.

• **Decision Boundary**: $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = g_j(\mathbf{x})$

$$(\mathbf{w}_i - \mathbf{w}_j)^T \mathbf{x} + (w_{0i} - w_{0j}) = 0$$

Linear Machines Cont.



• The decision regions of this discriminant are **convex** and **singly connected**. Any point on the line between two points within the same region can be expressed as $\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}_A + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_B$ where $\mathbf{x}_A, \mathbf{x}_B \in C_k$.

Multi-Class Perceptron Algorithm

• Weight Vectors:

- Maintain a weight matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times K}$, where m is the number of features and K is the number of classes.
- Each column w_k of the matrix corresponds to the weight vector for class k.

$$\hat{y} = \underset{i=1,...,c}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$
$$J_p(\mathbf{W}) = -\sum_{i \in M} (\mathbf{w}_{y^{(i)}} - \mathbf{w}_{\hat{y}^{(i)}})^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

where M is the set of misclassified points.

Multi-Class Perceptron Algorithm

Algorithm 2 Multi-class perceptron

- 1: Initialize $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}_1, ..., \mathbf{w}_c], k \leftarrow 0$
- 2: while A pattern is misclassified do
- $k \leftarrow k + 1 \mod N$ 3.
- if $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ is misclassified then 4:
- 5:
- $\mathbf{w}_{\hat{y}^{(i)}} = \mathbf{w}_{\hat{y}^{(i)}} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ $\mathbf{w}_{y^{(i)}} = \mathbf{w}_{y^{(i)}} + \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ 6:
- 7: end if
- 8: end while

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