Linear methods of classification

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Orthogonal vector to hyperplane

Theorem 1

Vector w is orthogonal to hyperplane $w^Tx + w_0 = 0$

Proof. Consider arbitrary $x_A, x_B \in \{x : w^T x + w_0 = 0\}$:

$$w^T x_A + w_0 = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$w^T x_B + w_0 = 0 (2)$$

By substracting (2) from (1), obtain $w^T(x_A - x_B) = 0$, so w is orthogonal to hyperplane.

Distance from point to hyperplane

Theorem 2

Distance from point x to hyperplane $w^Tx + w_0 = 0$ is equal to $\frac{w^Tx + w_0}{\||w_0\||}$.

Proof. Project x on the hyperplane, let the projection be p and complement h = x - p, orthogonal to hyperplane. Then

$$x = p + h$$

Since p lies on the hyperplane,

$$w^{T}p + w_{0} = 0$$

Since h is orthogonal to hyperplane and according to theorem 1

$$h=rrac{w}{||w||},\ r\in\mathbb{R}$$
 - distance to hyperplane.

Distance from point to hyperplane

$$x = p + r \frac{w}{\|w\|}$$

After multiplication by w and addition of w_0 :

$$w^{T}x + w_{0} = w^{T}p + w_{0} + r\frac{w^{T}w}{\|w\|} = r\|w\|$$

because $w^T p + w_0 = 0$ and $||w|| = \sqrt{w^T w}$. So we get, that

$$r = \frac{w^T x + w_0}{\|w\|}$$

Comments:

- From one side of hyperplane $r > 0 \Leftrightarrow w^T x + w_0 > 0$
- From the other side $r < 0 \Leftrightarrow w^T x + w_0 < 0$.
- Distance from hyperplane to origin 0 is $\frac{w_0}{\|w\|}$. So w_0 accounts for hyperplane offset.

Binary linear classifier geometric interpretation

Binary linear classifier:

$$\widehat{y}(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(w^T x + w_0\right)$$

divides feature space by hyperplane $w^T x + w_0 = 0$.

- $w^T x + w_0$ is the score of positive class vs. negative.
 - proportional to distance to hyperplane

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Multiclass classification with binary classifiers

- Task make C-class classification using many binary classifiers.
- Approaches:
 - one-versus-all
 - for each c = 1, 2, ... C train binary classifier on all objects and output $\mathbb{I}[y_n = c]$,
 - ullet assign class, getting the highest score in resulting C classifiers.

one-versus-one

- for each $i,j \in [1,2,...C]$, $i \neq j$ learn on objects with $y_n \in \{i,j\}$ with output y_n
- assign class, getting the highest score in resulting C(C-1)/2 classifiers
- Ambuguity may occur.

Linear classifier

- Classification among classes 1,2,...C.
- Use C discriminant functions $g_c(x) = w_c^T x + w_{c0}$
- Decision rule:

$$\widehat{y}(x) = \arg\max_{c} g_{c}(x)$$

• Decision boundary between classes y = i and y = j is linear:

$$(w_i - w_j)^T x + (w_{i0} - w_{j0}) = 0$$

Decision regions are convex¹.

¹why? prove that.

Binary linear classifier

• For two classes $y \in \{+1, -1\}$ classifier becomes

$$\widehat{y}(x) = \begin{cases} +1, & w_{+1}^T x + w_{+1,0} > w_{-1}^T x + w_{-1,0} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This decision rule is equivalent to

$$\widehat{y}(x) = \operatorname{sign}(w_{+1}^T x + w_{+1,0} - w_{-1}^T x + w_{-1,0}) =$$

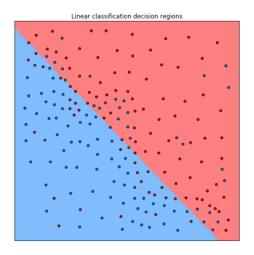
$$= \operatorname{sign}\left(\left(w_{+1}^T - w_{-1}^T\right) x + \left(w_{+1,0} - w_{-1,0}\right)\right)$$

$$= \operatorname{sign}\left(w^T x + w_0\right)$$

for $w = w_{+1} - w_{-1}$, $w_0 = w_{+1,0} - w_{-1,0}$.

- Decision boundary $w^T x + w_0 = 0$ is linear.
- Multiclass case can be solved using multiple binary classifiers with one-vs-all, one-vs-one or error correcting codes schemes.

Example: linear decision region



Margin of binary linear classifier

$$M(x,y) = g_{y}(x) - g_{-y}(x) = w_{y}^{T}x + w_{y,0} - w_{-y}^{T}x - w_{-y,0}$$

$$= [w_{y} - w_{-y}]^{T}x + [w_{y,0} - w_{-y,0}]$$

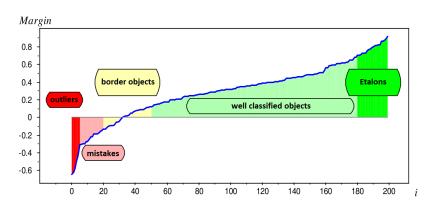
$$= y ([w_{+1} - w_{-1}]^{T}x + [w_{+1,0} - w_{-1,0}])$$

$$= y (w^{T}x + w_{0})$$

- Margin=score, how well classifier predicted true y for object x.
- M(x, y|w) > 0 <=> object x is correctly classified as y
 - signs of $w^Tx + w_0$ and y coincide
- $|M(x,y|w)| = |w^Tx + w_0|$ confidence of decision
 - proportional to distance from x to hyperplane $w^T x + w_0 = 0$.

Margin

Objects, ordered by margin



Redefinitions

• Add w_0 to $w = [w_1, ... w_D]^T$:

$$w = [w_0, w_1, ... w_D]^T$$

• Add constant feature $x_0 \equiv 1$ to $x = [x^1, ... x^D]^T$:

$$x = [1, x^1, ... x^D]^T$$

Binary linear classifier becomes:

$$\widehat{y}(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(w^T x\right)$$

• Margin becomes:

$$M(x, y|w) = w^T xy$$

Weights optimization

- Margin=score, how well classifier predicted true y for object x.
- Task: select such w to increase $M(x_n, y_n|w)$ for all n.
- Formalization:

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathcal{L}\left(M(x_{n},y_{n}|w)\right)\to\min_{w}$$

• Misclassification rate optimization:

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$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathbb{I}[M(x_n,y_n|w)<0]\to\min_{w}$$

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is not recommended:

- discontinious function, can't use numerical optimization!
- continous margin is more informative than binary error indicator.

Misclassification rate optimization:

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathbb{I}[M(x_n,y_n|w)<0]\to\min_{w}$$

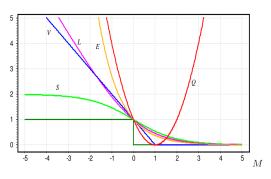
is not recommended:

- discontinious function, can't use numerical optimization!
- continous margin is more informative than binary error indicator.
- If we select loss function $\mathcal{L}(M)$ such that $\mathbb{I}[M] \leq \mathcal{L}(M)$ then we can optimize upper bound on misclassification rate:

MISCLASSIFICATION RATE
$$=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathbb{I}[M(x_n,y_n|w)<0]$$

 $\leq \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathcal{L}(M(x_n,y_n|w))=L(w)$

Common loss functions



$$Q(M) = (1 - M)^{2}$$

$$V(M) = (1 - M)_{+}$$

$$S(M) = 2(1 + e^{M})^{-1}$$

$$L(M) = \log_{2}(1 + e^{-M})$$

$$E(M) = e^{-M}$$

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Gradient

• For any function f(x), depending from $x = (x_1, ...x_D)^T$ gradient

$$\nabla f(x) := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_D} \end{pmatrix}$$

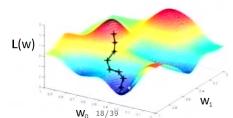
• If function f(x, y) depends on other variables y gradient ∇_x considers only derivatives with respect to x:

$$abla_x f(x,y) := \left(egin{array}{c} rac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \ rac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \ \dots \ rac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_D} \end{array}
ight)$$

• Optimization task to obtain the weights:

$$L(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(w^{T} x_{i} y_{i}) \rightarrow \min_{w}$$

- For convex $\mathcal{L}(u)$ L(w) will also be convex => method will converge to global optimum from any starting conditions.
- Gradient descend iterative movement in direction of $-\nabla_w F(w)$.
- Example for $w = (w_0, w_1)^T$:



INPUT:

 η : parameter, controlling the speed of convergence stopping rule

ALGORITHM:

initialize w_0 randomly WHILE stopping rule is not satisfied: $w_{n+1} \leftarrow w_n - \eta \nabla_w L(w_n)$ $n \leftarrow n+1$

RETURN W_n

Any computational issues for big data?

INPUT:

 $\eta\colon \operatorname{parameter}$, controlling the speed of convergence stopping rule

ALGORITHM:

initialize w_0 randomly WHILE stopping rule is not satisfied:

$$w_{n+1} \leftarrow w_n - \eta \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_w \mathcal{L}(x_i, y_i | w_n)$$

 $n \leftarrow n+1$

RETURN Wn

Gradient calculation requires O(N) operations!

Stochastic gradient descent optimization

INPUT:

 $\eta\colon \operatorname{parameter}$, controlling the speed of convergence stopping rule

ALGORITHM:

```
initialize w_0 randomly WHILE stopping rule is not satisfied: randomly sample I = \{i_1, ... i_K\} from \{1, 2, ... N\} w_{n+1} \leftarrow w_n - \eta \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in I} \nabla_w \mathcal{L}(x_i, y_i | w_n) n \leftarrow n + 1
```

RETURN Wn

Stochastic gradient descent optimization

• Main idea: for random subsample $I = \{i_1, ... i_K\}$, called minibatch,

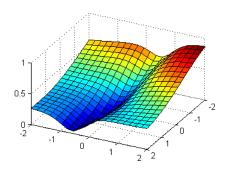
$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathcal{L}(x_i,y_i|w)\approx\frac{1}{K}\sum_{i\in I}\mathcal{L}(x_i,y_i|w),\quad K\ll N$$

- Original method used K=1.
- K>1 gives smoother gradient. $\frac{1}{K}\sum_{i\in I}\nabla_{w}\mathcal{L}(x_{i},y_{i}|w_{n})$ can still be computed in O(1) because processors internally perform vector arithmetics.
- SGD converges almost surely when $\eta_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ at an appropriate rate.
- In practice η =small const or $\eta_n = \frac{1}{n}$
- Indices generation: before each pass through the training set, it is randomly shuffled and then passed sequentially.

- Possible stopping rules:
 - $|w_{n+1} w_n| < \varepsilon$
 - $|L(w_{n+1}) L(w_n)| < \varepsilon$
 - $n > n_{max}$
- For regression GD and SGD are also applicable: $\mathcal{L}(M(x_n, y_n|w))$ replace with $\mathcal{L}(w^Tx_n y_n)$.

Recommendations for use

- Convergence is faster for normalized features
 - feature normalization solves the problem of «elongated valleys»



Tracking convergence of SGD

- Estimation of $L(w_n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(x_i, y_i | w_n)$ on each iteration takes O(N) and is impractical.
- ullet For series $z_1,...z_N$ exponentially smoothed series is obtained by

$$\begin{cases} s_1 = z_1 & \alpha \in (0,1) \text{ - hyperparameter} \\ s_{n+1} = \alpha z_{n+1} + (1-\alpha)s_n & \text{recalculation takes } O(1) \end{cases}$$

Example: original (red) and exp-smoother (blue) time series:



Tracking convergence of SGD

Exponential smoothing of loss enables loss reestimation in O(1):

$$\begin{split} L_0^{smooth} &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(M(x_i, y_i | w_0)) \\ L_{n+1}^{smooth} &= \alpha \mathcal{L}(M(x_i, y_i | w_0)) + (1 - \alpha) L_n^{smooth} \end{split}$$

Discussion of SGD

Advantages

- Simple
- Works online
- A small subset of learning objects may be sufficient for accurate estimation

Discussion of SGD

Advantages'

- Simple
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Drawbacks

- Optimization using 2nd order derivatives converges faster.
- Needs selection of η_n :
 - too big: divergence
 - too small: very slow convergence
- When $\mathcal{L}(u)$ has horizontal asymptotes (e.g. sigmoid), may «get stuck» for large values of $w^T x_i$.
- If $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$ is convex => convergence to global min from any starting point.
- If $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$ is non-convex => convergence to different local min, depending on starting point.

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Regularization

• Insert additional requirement for regularizer $R(\beta)$ to be small:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}\left(M(x_n, y_n|w) + \lambda R(\beta) \to \min_{\beta}$$

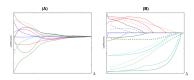
- $\lambda > 0$ hyperparameter.
- $R(\beta)$ penalizes complexity of models.

$$R(\beta) = ||\beta||_1$$
 L_1 regularization $R(\beta) = ||\beta||_2^2$ L_2 regularization

- Not only accuracy matters for the solution but also model simplicity!
- λ controls complexity of the model: $\uparrow \lambda \Leftrightarrow \text{complexity} \downarrow$.

Comments

• Dependency of β from λ for L_2 (A) and L_1 (B) regularization:



- L₁ can be used for automatic feature selection.
- λ is usually found using cross-validation on exponential grid, e.g. $[10^{-6}, 10^{-5}, ... 10^{5}, 10^{6}]$.
- It's always recommended to use regularization because
 - it gives smooth control over model complexity.
 - reduces ambiguity for multiple solutions case.

L_1 regularization

- $||w||_1$ regularizer will do feature selection.
- Consider

$$L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(M(x_n, y_n | w)) + \lambda \sum_{d=1}^{D} |w_d|$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \mathcal{L}(M(x_n, y_n | w)) + \lambda \operatorname{sign} w_i$$

$$\lambda \operatorname{sign} w_i \to 0 \text{ when } w_i \to 0$$

- If $\lambda > \max_{w} \left| \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} \mathcal{L}\left(M(x_{n}, y_{n} | w)\right) \right|$, then it becomes optimal to set $w_{i} = 0$
- For higher λ more weights become zero.

L₂ regularization

$$L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(M(x_n, y_n | w)) + \lambda \sum_{d=1}^{D} w_d^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \mathcal{L}(M(x_n, y_n | w)) + 2\lambda w_i$$

$$2\lambda w_i \to 0 \text{ when } w_d \to 0$$

- ullet Strength of regularization o 0 as weights o 0.
- So L_2 regularization will not set weights exactly to 0.

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Binary classification

Linear classifier:

$$score(\omega_1|x) = w^T x$$

• +relationship between score and class probability is assumed:

$$p(\omega_1|x) = \sigma(w^T x)$$

where
$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$$
 - sigmoid function

Binary classification: estimation

Using the property $1 - \sigma(z) = \sigma(-z)$ obtain that

$$p(y = +1|x) = \sigma(w^Tx) \Longrightarrow p(y = -1|x) = \sigma(-w^Tx)$$

So for $y \in \{+1, -1\}$

$$p(y|x) = \sigma(y\langle w, x \rangle)$$

Therefore ML estimation can be written as:

$$\prod_{i=1}^N \sigma(\langle w, x_i \rangle y_i) \to \max_w$$

Loss function for 2-class logistic regression

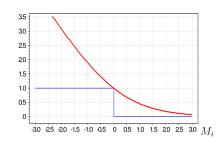
For binary classification
$$p(y|x) = \sigma(\langle w, x \rangle y)$$
 $w = [\beta'_0, \beta],$ $x = [1, x_1, x_2, ... x_D].$

Estimation with ML:

$$\prod_{i=1}^n \sigma(\langle w, x_i \rangle y_i) \to \max_w$$

which is equivalent to

$$\sum_{i}^{n} \ln(1 + e^{-\langle w, x_i \rangle y_i}) \to \min_{w}$$



It follows that logistic regression is linear discriminant estimated with loss function $\mathcal{L}(M) = \ln(1 + e^{-M})$.

Multiple classes

Multiple class classification:

$$\begin{cases} score(\omega_1|x) = w_1^T x \\ score(\omega_2|x) = w_2^T x \\ \dots \\ score(\omega_C|x) = w_C^T x \end{cases}$$

+relationship between score and class probability is assumed:

$$p(\omega_c|x) = softmax(w_c^T x | x_1^T x, ... x_C^T x) = \frac{exp(w_c^T x)}{\sum_i exp(w_i^T x)}$$

Multiple classes

Weights ambiguity:

 w_c , c = 1, 2, ... C defined up to shift v:

$$\frac{exp((w_c - v)^T x)}{\sum_i exp((w_i - v)^T x)} = \frac{exp(-v^T x)exp(w_c^T x)}{\sum_i exp(-v^T x)exp(w_i^T x)} = \frac{exp(w_c^T x)}{\sum_i exp(w_i^T x)}$$

To remove ambiguity usually $v = w_C$ is subtracted.

Estimation with ML:

$$\begin{cases} \prod_{n=1}^{N} softmax(w_{y_n}^T x_n | x_1^T x, ... x_C^T x) \rightarrow \max_{w_1, ... w_C - 1} \\ w_C = \mathbf{0} \end{cases}$$

Summary

- Linear classifier classifier with linear discriminant functions.
- Binary linear classifier: $\hat{y}(x) = \text{sign}(w^T x + w_0)$.
- Perceptron, logistic, SVM linear classifiers estimated with different loss functions.
- Weights are selected to minimize total loss on margins.
- Gradient descent iteratively optimizes L(w) in the direction of maximum descent.
- Stochastic gradient descent approximates $\nabla_w L$ by averaging gradients over small subset of objects.
- Regularization gives smooth control over model complexity.
- L₁ regularization automatically selects features.