Machine Learning Algorithms

Classification Algorithms

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Summary

We were investigating an iterative procedure of the form

$$\hat{\underline{w}}_{k} = \hat{\underline{w}}_{k-1} + \mu_{k} \underline{z}_{k}; k = 1, 2, \dots$$

• In order to find approximations of the Wiener solution.

We found that the cost function

$$R_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{x}}}^* \underline{w}_0 = \underline{r}_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{d}}^* \Longrightarrow \underline{w}_0 = \left(R_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{x}}}^*\right)^{-1} \underline{r}_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{d}}^*$$

$$g_o = \min_{\underline{w}} \mathbf{E} \left[\left| \mathbf{d} - \underline{w}^T \underline{\mathbf{x}} \right|^2 \right] = \sigma_{\mathbf{d}}^2 - \underline{r}_{\mathbf{d}\underline{\mathbf{x}}}^T R_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{x}}}^{-1} \underline{r}_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{d}}} = \sigma_{\mathbf{d}}^2 - \underline{r}_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{d}}}^H R_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{x}}}^{-1} \underline{r}_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{d}}}$$



Summary

decreases

$$g(\underline{\hat{w}}_k) < g(\underline{\hat{w}}_{k-1})$$

• if the direction for updates is of the form

$$\underline{z}_{k} = -B\nabla g(\underline{\hat{w}}_{k-1})^{H}$$
$$= -B\left(-r_{xd} + R_{xx}\underline{\hat{w}}_{k-1}^{*}\right)^{*}$$

• With B>0

 For B=I, we found the steepest descent algorithm, with convergence condition

$$0 < \mu_k \le \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}} \le \frac{2}{\lambda_i}$$



Resume: Step-size of steepest descent

As convergence condition for B=I we had

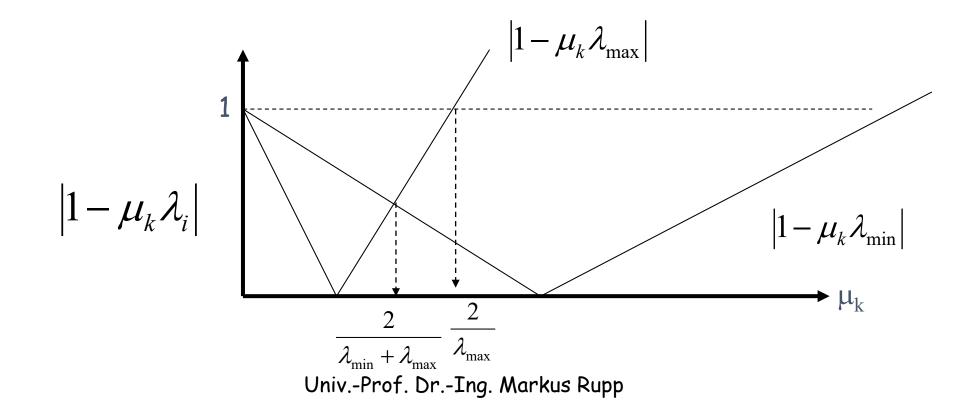
• thus

$$\begin{aligned} \left| 1 - \mu_k \lambda_i \right| < 1 \\ -1 < 1 - \mu_k \lambda_i < 1 \\ -2 < -\mu_k \lambda_i < 0 \end{aligned}$$
$$0 < \mu_k \lambda_i < 2 \Rightarrow \mu_k < \frac{2}{\lambda_i}$$



Resume: Optimal Step-size of steepest descent

Consider the smallest and the largest eigenvalue





Resume

 The steepest descent algorithm allows to <u>iteratively</u> find the minimum of a (quadratic) cost function.

$$\underline{\hat{w}}_k = \underline{\hat{w}}_{k-1} + \mu_k \left[r_{\mathbf{d}\underline{\mathbf{x}}} - R_{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\underline{\mathbf{x}}}^* \underline{\hat{w}}_{k-1} \right]; k = 1, 2, \dots$$

• Under some not too restrictive conditions we found that the algorithm converges as long as the step-size is bounded:

$$0 < \mu_k < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}} \le \frac{2}{\lambda_i}$$



Resume

• The LMS algorithm allows to <u>recursively</u> find the minimum of a (quadratic) cost function.

$$\hat{\underline{w}}_{k} = \hat{\underline{w}}_{k-1} + \mu_{k} \underline{x}_{k}^{*} \left[d_{k} - \underline{x}_{k}^{T} \hat{\underline{w}}_{k-1} \right] k = 1, 2, \dots$$

• For convergence in the mean we find the same result as for the steepest descent algorithm:

$$0 < \mu_k < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}} \le \frac{2}{\lambda_i}$$



Resume

• For convergence in the <u>mean square sense</u>, however, we find a much more restricted result:

$$P_{k} = E\left[\left(\underline{w} - \underline{\hat{w}}_{k}\right)\left(\underline{w} - \underline{\hat{w}}_{k}\right)^{H}\right] = E\left[\underline{\widetilde{w}}_{k}\,\underline{\widetilde{w}}_{k}^{H}\right] \to tr(P_{k}) \to \underline{c}_{k}$$

$$\underline{c}_{k} = B\underline{c}_{k-1} + \mu^{2}\sigma_{v}^{2}\underline{\lambda} \to \gamma_{l}\lambda_{B,l}^{k}$$

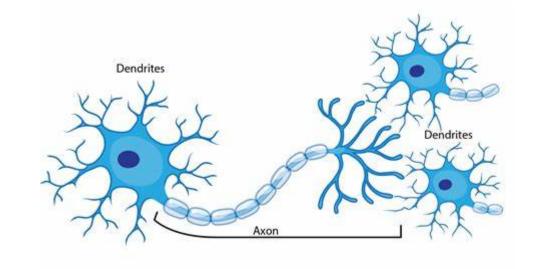
$$B = I - 2\mu\Lambda + \mu^{2}\gamma\Lambda^{2} + \mu^{2}\underline{\lambda}\underline{\lambda}^{T}$$

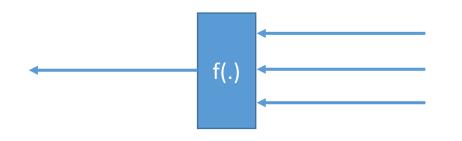
$$0 < \mu \le \frac{2}{(\gamma + 1)\operatorname{trace}(R_{\underline{\mathbf{u}}\underline{\mathbf{u}}})} \le \frac{2}{\gamma \lambda_{\max} + \operatorname{trace}(R_{\underline{\mathbf{u}}\underline{\mathbf{u}}})}$$



How does Nature do?

Consider Neuron



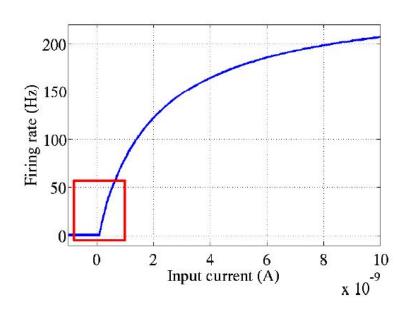


$$y_{i} = f\left(c_{0} + c_{1}x_{i,1} + \dots + c_{M}x_{i,M}\right)$$
$$= f\left(\widehat{x}_{i}^{H}\underline{c}\right)$$



Activation Functions

Xavier Glorot, Antoine Bordes, Yoshua Bengio



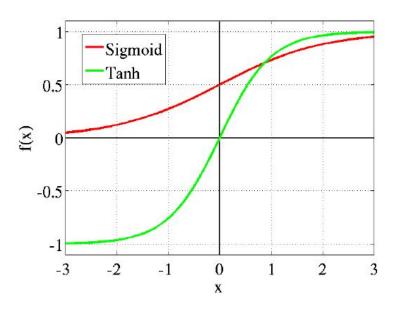


Figure 1: Left: Common neural activation function motivated by biological data. Right: Commonly used activation functions in neural networks literature: logistic sigmoid and hyperbolic tangent (tanh).

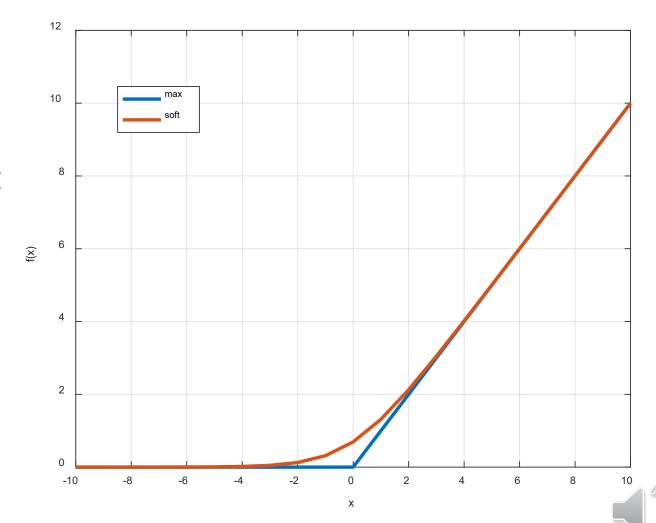


The "Hinge"

- Also known as ReLU: Rectifier Linear unit max(0,x)
- As the max(0,x) function is not differentiable, it is wise to approximate it by a smooth softdecision function:

$$soft(x) = \log(1 + e^x)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \operatorname{soft}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} = \sigma(x)$$



The "Hinge"

Let us differentiate this function

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\operatorname{soft}(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\log(1+e^x) = \frac{e^x}{1+e^x} = 1 - \frac{1}{1+e^x} = 1 - g(x) = g(-x)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\operatorname{soft}(x) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\log(1+e^x) = g(x)(1-g(x)) \ge 0$$

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^x}$$

- Note that the range of g(x) is in[0,1] and thus the function is convex
- Iterative algorithms can thus guarantee convergence



Affine Transformations

- Note that we define a classification scheme via its potential output set, e.g. {-1,1},{-A,A},{0,1}
- While it does not matter which one we prefer and the classification itself is indifferent, the algorithms for optimization may behave differently.
- We thus have to keep <u>"affine transformations</u>" in mind as a viable tool to condition the problem into an optimal way
- E.g.: $2\{0,1\}-1=\{-1,1\}$ $\frac{1}{2}\{-1,1\}+\frac{1}{2}=\{0,1\}$



Binary Classification

• Binary classification: y from {-1,1}

$$\underline{\hat{x}}_{i}^{H} \underline{\hat{c}} > 0; \quad if \quad y_{i} = +1$$

$$\underline{\hat{x}}_{i}^{H} \underline{\hat{c}} < 0; \quad if \quad y_{i} = -1$$

• or, equivalently, and more compactly

$$y_{i}\left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_{i}^{H}\underline{\widehat{c}}\right) > 0,$$

$$-y_{i}\left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_{i}^{H}\underline{\widehat{c}}\right) < 0.$$



Binary Classification

If a hyperplane can correctly separate

$$-y_i\left(\underline{\hat{x}}_i^H\underline{\hat{c}}\right) < 0$$

$$\max\left(0, -y_i\left(\underline{\hat{x}}_i^H\underline{\hat{c}}\right)\right) = 0$$

 If the hyperplane does not do a perfect job, for some value pairs, we obtain

$$\max\left(0, -y_i\left(\underline{\hat{x}}_i^H\underline{\hat{c}}\right)\right) > 0$$



Binary Classification

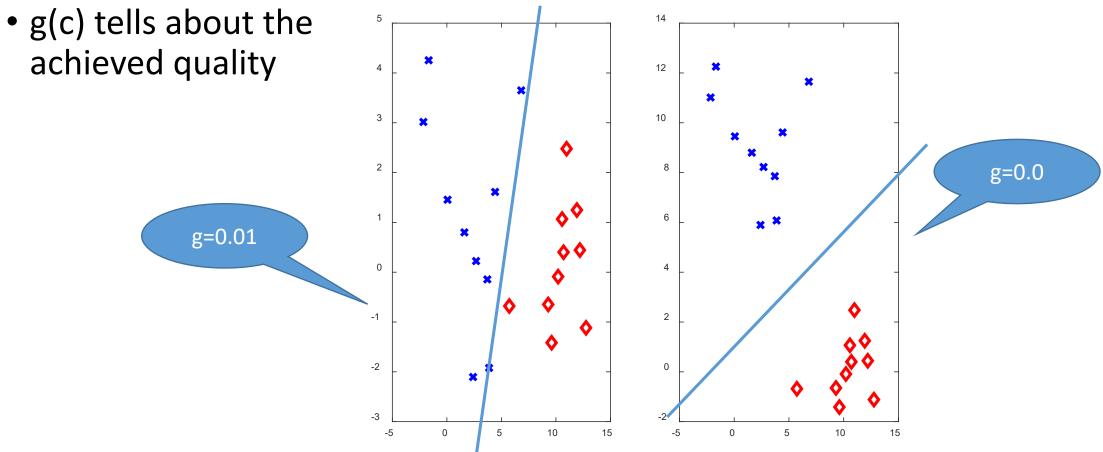
 We thus have to check for all data points that the individual results are below zero:

$$g(\underline{\hat{c}}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \max\left(0, -y_i\left(\underline{\hat{x}}_i^H \underline{\hat{c}}\right)\right)$$
$$\underline{\hat{c}}_{opt} = \arg\min_{c} g(\underline{\hat{c}})$$

- If the so found optimal \underline{c} results in a positive cost function $g(\underline{c})$, we were not successful with separating the data.
- Even so, it is nevertheless not necessarily as poor solution

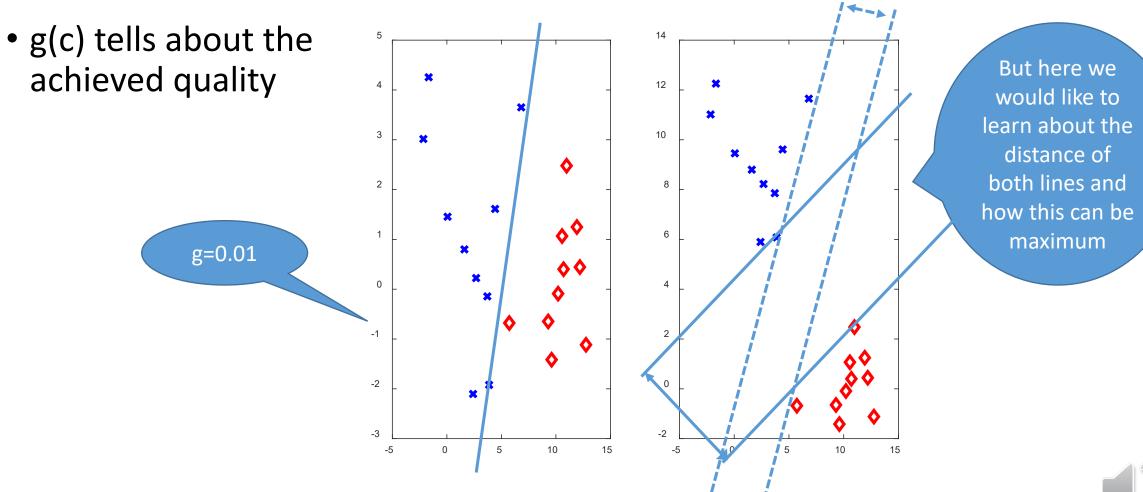


Example of almost separable





Example of almost separable



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Margin Perceptron

- By "Percepton" we denote an algorithm that finds a hyperplane that separates for a binary classification.
- By "Margin Perceptron" we denote an algorithm that finds the maximum margins in terms of two parallel hyperplanes.

- We select the most outer points that touch the margin hyperplane by "-1" and "+1", respectively.
- This is not a restriction as the solution can be scaled arbitrarily.



Margin Perceptron

• Binary classification: y from {-1,1}

$$\underline{\hat{x}}_{i}^{H} \underline{\hat{c}} \ge +1; \quad if \quad y_{i} = +1$$

$$\underline{\hat{x}}_{i}^{H} \underline{\hat{c}} \le -1; \quad if \quad y_{i} = -1$$

or, equivalently, and more compactly

$$\begin{aligned} y_i \left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_i^H \underline{\widehat{c}} \right) &\geq 1, \\ -y_i \left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_i^H \underline{\widehat{c}} \right) &\leq -1, \\ 1 - y_i \left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_i^H \underline{\widehat{c}} \right) &\leq 0. \\ \text{Univ.-Prof. Dr.-Ing. Markus Rupp} \end{aligned}$$



Margin Perceptron

• Applying the same concepts as before, we readily find:

$$g(\underline{\hat{c}}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \max\left(0, 1 - y_i\left(\underline{\hat{x}}_i^H \underline{\hat{c}}\right)\right)$$

$$\underline{\hat{c}}_{\text{opt,margin}} = \arg\min_{c} g(\underline{\hat{c}})$$

And similarly with a differentiable cost function:

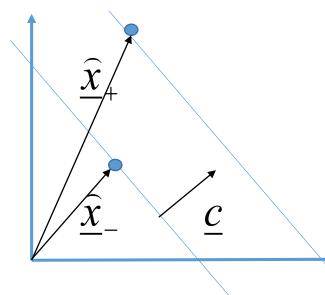
$$g(\widehat{\underline{c}}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \operatorname{soft} \left(1 - y_i \left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_i^H \widehat{\underline{c}} \right) \right)$$

$$\underline{\widehat{c}}_{\text{opt, margin}} = \arg\min_{\underline{c}} g(\underline{\widehat{c}})$$
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Maximum Margin Hyperplane

We like to maximize the distance of the two margins



Have two feature vectors on the margins

$$\underline{\widehat{x}}_{-}, \quad \underline{\widehat{x}}_{+}$$

and one vector perpendicular to the hyperplane

And obtain for the width of the "street"

$$\left(\underline{\widehat{x}}_{+} - \underline{\widehat{x}}_{-}\right)^{H} \frac{\underline{c}}{\|\underline{c}\|} = \frac{1 - (-1)}{\|\underline{c}\|} = \frac{2}{\|\underline{c}\|}$$

Note that this vector does not contain the bias term



Hard Margin VSM

Maximizing the width is equivalent to

$$\min \|\underline{c}\|$$

subject to
$$\max \left(0, 1 - y_i \left(\underline{\hat{x}}_i^H \underline{\hat{c}}\right)\right) = 0 \quad ; i = 1, 2, ..., N$$

 As we needed the support of the margin vectors, the method is called Vector Support Machine (SVM)



Modifications

- Applying the previous techniques, we can easily modify the formulation using soft cost functions and slightly different constraints.
- Original formulation only works if perfectly linearly separable.
- Problem: find the formulation that can be solved easiest and still provides a practically useful result

