

## CS 559 Machine Learning Linear Classification

Yue Ning Department of Computer Science Stevens Institute of Technology

## Plan for today



Generative vs Discriminative Classification

Linear Discriminant Analysis

The Perceptron Algorithm

Naive Bayes Classifier

Model Selection

#### Review of last lecture



- ► Linear regression: L2 loss, L1 loss; Ridge regression (L2 regularization), Lasso regression;
- Gradient descent algorithms: BGD, SGD, mini-batch GD;
- Features: non-monotonicity, saturation, interactions between features;
- Maximum Likelihood estimator;
- Model selection: under-fitting, over-fitting, bias-variance;
- ► The curse of dimensionality

#### Classification



Classification task: finding a function f that classifies examples into given set of categories  $\{C_1, C_2, ..., C_k\}$ 

$$\mathbf{x}$$
  $\rightarrow$  function  $f$   $\rightarrow y \in \{C_1, C_2, ..., C_k\}$ 

A classification example:

$$\rightarrow \boxed{ function \ f} \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \text{``Cat'}$$

#### Decision Theory for Classification



Decision theory, when combined with probability theory, allows us to make optimal decisions in situations involving uncertainty.

- ► Training data: input values X and target values y
- ▶ Inference stage: use the training data to learn a model for  $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$
- Decision stage: use the given posterior probabilities to make optimal class assignments.

#### Generative Methods



- Solve the inference problem of estimating the class-conditional densities  $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$  for each class  $C_k$
- ▶ Infer the prior class probabilities  $p(C_k)$
- ▶ Use Bayes' theorem to find the class posterior probabilities:

$$p(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)p(C_k)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

where

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k} p(\mathbf{x}|C_{k})p(C_{k})$$

 Use decision theory to determine class membership for each new input x

#### Discriminative Methods

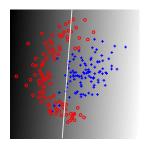


- Solve directly the inference problem of estimating the class posterior probabilities  $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$
- ▶ Discriminative Functions: Find a function f(x) which maps each input directly onto a class label. Probabilities play no role here.
- Use decision theory to determine class membership for each new input x

## Binary Classification



Task: Assign each data point to one of two classes.



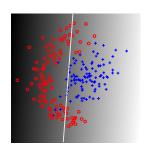
#### Examples:

- Is there a face in this image?
- Will this neuron spike in response to this stimulus?
- Based on this brain-scan, does this patient have a given disease or not?
- Will this customer buy this product or not?
- Is this person likely to be a democrat/republican?

# Binary Classification



Task: Assign each data point to one of two classes.



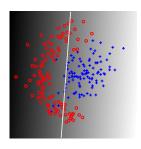
#### Examples:

- ▶ Is there a face in this image?
- ► Will this neuron spike in response to this stimulus?
- Based on this brain-scan, does this patient have a given disease or not?
- Will this customer buy this product or not?
- Is this person likely to be a democrat/republican?

Notation: we have data  $D = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$ , with  $y_n = 1$  if  $x_n$  belongs to class 1 and  $y_n = -1$  if  $x_n$  belongs to class -1.

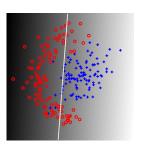
#### Linear Discriminant Functions

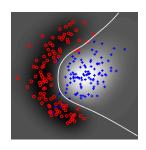




#### Linear Discriminant Functions

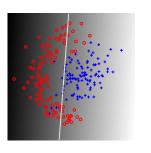


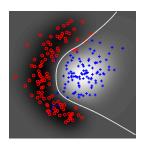




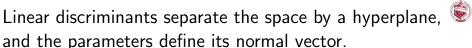
#### Linear Discriminant Functions







Of course, linear algorithms can be used together with nonlinear feature spaces or nonlinear basis functions in order to solve nonlinear classification problems!





▶ Decision function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \omega_{o}$ 

# Linear discriminants separate the space by a hyperplane, and the parameters define its normal vector.



- ▶ Decision function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \omega_o$
- Classification:

if 
$$f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$$
 say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class 1 if  $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class -1

▶ The decision-surface has equation  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , and is a hyperplane of dimensionality D - 1.

# Linear discriminants separate the space by a hyperplane, and the parameters define its normal vector.



- ▶ Decision function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \omega_o$
- Classification:

if 
$$f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$$
 say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class 1  
if  $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class -1

- ▶ The decision-surface has equation  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , and is a hyperplane of dimensionality D 1.
- ▶ w is the normal vector to the hyperplane, and points into the positive class or negative class.

# Linear discriminants separate the space by a hyperplane, and the parameters define its normal vector.



- ▶ Decision function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \omega_o$
- Classification:

if 
$$f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$$
 say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class 1 if  $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class -1

- ▶ The decision-surface has equation  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , and is a hyperplane of dimensionality D 1.
- ▶ w is the normal vector to the hyperplane, and points into the positive class or negative class.
- $\triangleright$   $\omega_o$  determines the location of the decision-surface

# Linear discriminants separate the space by a hyperplane, and the parameters define its normal vector.

- ▶ Decision function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + \omega_{o}$
- Classification:

if 
$$f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$$
 say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class 1 if  $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  say  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to class -1

- ▶ The decision-surface has equation  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , and is a hyperplane of dimensionality D-1.
- **w** is the normal vector to the hyperplane, and points into the positive class or negative class.
- $\triangleright$   $\omega_o$  determines the location of the decision-surface
- $ightharpoonup |f(\mathbf{x})|$  is proproptional to the perpendicular distance to the decision-surface (with factor 1 if  $||\mathbf{w}|| = 1$ ).

## Linear Discriminant Functions-Geometrical Properties



Decision boundary:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o = 0$$

Let  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$  be two points which lie on the decision boundary

$$f(\mathbf{x}_1) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_1 + \omega_o = 0, f(\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_2 + \omega_o = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^{T} (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) = 0$$

w represents the orthogonal direction to the decision boundary.

# Linear Discriminant Functions-Geometrical Properties Cont.



$$\mathbf{w}^{*T} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^T}{||\mathbf{w}||}$$

- $\mathbf{w}^{*T}(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_0)$  is the projection of  $(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$  onto the w\* direction
- ► Thus.

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\mathbf{w}^T}{||\mathbf{w}||}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{||\mathbf{w}||}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{||\mathbf{w}||}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \omega_0) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{||\mathbf{w}||} \end{split}$$

when 
$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$
,  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{||\mathbf{w}||} = \frac{\omega_0}{||\mathbf{w}||}$ 

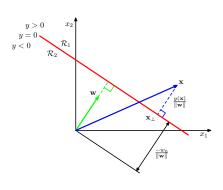
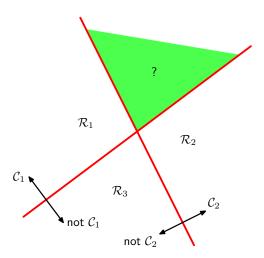


Figure: Signed orthogonal distance of the origin from the decision

## Linear Discriminant Functions: Multiple classes



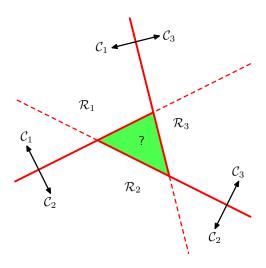
<u>one-versus-the-rest</u>: K-1 classifiers each of which solves a two-class problem of separating points of  $C_k$  from points not in that class.



#### Linear Discriminant Functions: Multiple classes



one-versus-one:  $\frac{K(K-1)}{2}$  binary discriminant functions, one for every possible pair of classes.



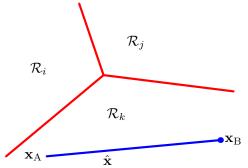
#### Linear Discriminant Functions: Multiple classes



► <u>Solution</u>: consider a single K-class discriminant comprising K linear functions of the form

$$f_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x} + w_{k0}$$

- ▶ Assign a point **x** to class  $C_k$  if  $f_k(\mathbf{x}) > f_j(\mathbf{x}) \forall j \neq k$
- ► The decision boundary between class  $C_k$  and class  $C_j$  is given by:  $f_k(\mathbf{x}) = f_j(\mathbf{x}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{w}_k \mathbf{w}_j)^T \mathbf{x} + (w_{k0} w_{j0}) = 0$



# Multiple algorithms and methods



Mis-classification rate  $C(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \delta[f(\mathbf{x}_n) = y_n]$  (i.e. average number of errors) difficult to optimize over  $\mathbf{w}$ , and might have multiple solutions.

## Multiple algorithms and methods



- Mis-classification rate  $C(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \delta[f(\mathbf{x}_n) = y_n]$  (i.e. average number of errors) difficult to optimize over  $\mathbf{w}$ , and might have multiple solutions.
- ▶ Many algorithms can be derived by replacing *C* by another cost-function which can be optimized.

## Multiple algorithms and methods



- Mis-classification rate  $C(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \delta \left[ f(\mathbf{x}_n) = y_n \right]$  (i.e. average number of errors) difficult to optimize over  $\mathbf{w}$ , and might have multiple solutions.
- Many algorithms can be derived by replacing C by another cost-function which can be optimized.
- ► Linear classification algorithms include Least-square classification, Fisher's linear Discriminant, Logistic regression, Support Vector Machines and Rosenblatts' perceptron.



• We have to fit the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  to data.



- We have to fit the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  to data.
- ▶ Simply do a linear regression from  $\mathbf{x}$  to y by minimizing the sum-of-squared errors  $\sum_{n} (f(\mathbf{x}_n) y_n)^2$ .



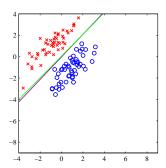
- We have to fit the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  to data.
- ▶ Simply do a linear regression from  $\mathbf{x}$  to y by minimizing the sum-of-squared errors  $\sum_{n} (f(\mathbf{x}_n) y_n)^2$ .
- $\mathbf{w}_{reg} = \left(\sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top}\right)^{-1} \sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} y_{n}$



- We have to fit the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  to data.
- ▶ Simply do a linear regression from  $\mathbf{x}$  to y by minimizing the sum-of-squared errors  $\sum_{n} (f(\mathbf{x}_n) y_n)^2$ .
- $\mathbf{w}_{reg} = \left(\sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top}\right)^{-1} \sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} y_{n}$
- Q: In what situations might this be a bad idea?

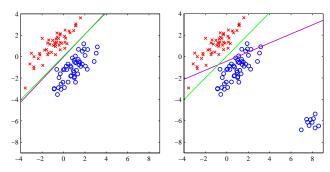


- We have to fit the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  to data.
- ▶ Simply do a linear regression from  $\mathbf{x}$  to y by minimizing the sum-of-squared errors  $\sum_{n} (f(\mathbf{x}_n) y_n)^2$ .
- $\mathbf{w}_{reg} = \left(\sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top}\right)^{-1} \sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} y_{n}$
- Q: In what situations might this be a bad idea?





- We have to fit the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  to data.
- ▶ Simply do a linear regression from  $\mathbf{x}$  to y by minimizing the sum-of-squared errors  $\sum_{n} (f(\mathbf{x}_n) y_n)^2$ .
- $\mathbf{w}_{reg} = \left(\sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top}\right)^{-1} \sum_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n} y_{n}$
- Q: In what situations might this be a bad idea?



Bishop PRML Figure 4.4



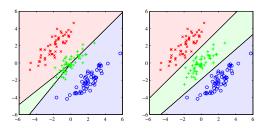


Figure: Left: using a least-squares discriminant; Right: using logistic regression

Bishop PRML Figure 4.5

## Classification via projection



A linear function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  assuming in 2D, projects each point  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$  to a line parallel to  $\mathbf{w}$ :

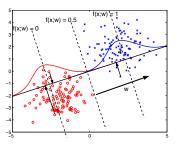
$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{point in } \mathcal{R}^d & \text{projected point in } \mathcal{R} \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & z_1 = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 & z_2 = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2 \\ \dots & \dots \\ \mathbf{x}_n & z_n = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n \\ \end{array}$$

▶ We can study how well the projected points  $z_1, ..., z_n$  viewed as functions of **w** are separated across the classes.

## Classification via projection



A linear function:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \omega_o$  assuming in 2D, projects each point  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$  to a line parallel to  $\mathbf{w}$ :

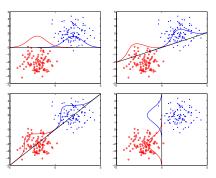


▶ We can study how well the projected points  $z_1, ..., z_n$  viewed as functions of **w** are separated across the classes.

# Classification via projection



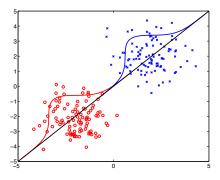
▶ By varying **w** we get different levels of separation between the projected points



## Optimizing the projection



▶ We would like to find w that somehow maximizes the separation of the projected points across classes.



► We can quantify the separation (overlap) in terms of means and variances of the resulting 1-dimensional class distributions



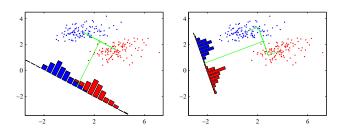
- One way to view a linear classification model is in terms of dimensionality reduction.
- ► <u>Two class case</u>: suppose we project **x** onto one dimension:

$$f = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

► Set a threshold *t*:

if 
$$f \le t$$
 assign  $C_1$  to  $\mathbf{x}$  otherwise assign  $C_2$  to  $\mathbf{x}$ 





- Find an orientation along which the projected samples are well separated;
- ► This is exactly the goal of linear discriminant analysis (LDA);
- ▶ In other words: we are after the linear projection that best separates the data, i.e. best discriminates data of different classes.



- ▶ Two classes:  $\{C_+, C_-\}$
- $ightharpoonup N_+$  samples of class  $C_+$
- ► N<sub>\_</sub> samples of class C<sub>\_</sub>
- lacksquare Consider  $oldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  with  $||oldsymbol{w}|| = 1$
- ▶ Then:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$  is the projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  along the direction of  $\mathbf{w}$ .
- ▶ We want the projections  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$  where  $\mathbf{x} \in C_+$  separated from the projections  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$  where  $\mathbf{x} \in C_-$



▶ A measure of the separation between the projected points is the difference of the sample means:



- ▶ A measure of the separation between the projected points is the difference of the sample means:
  - Sample mean of class  $C_+$ :

$$\mathbf{m}_+ = \frac{1}{N_+} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} \mathbf{x}$$



- ▶ A measure of the separation between the projected points is the difference of the sample means:
  - Sample mean of class  $C_+$ :

$$\mathbf{m}_+ = \frac{1}{N_+} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} \mathbf{x}$$

■ Sample mean for the projected points:

$$m_+ = \frac{1}{N_+} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{m}_+$$

$$\Rightarrow |m_+ - m_-| = \mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)$$



- ▶ A measure of the separation between the projected points is the difference of the sample means:
  - Sample mean of class  $C_+$ :

$$\mathbf{m}_+ = \frac{1}{N_+} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} \mathbf{x}$$

■ Sample mean for the projected points:

$$m_+ = \frac{1}{N_+} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{m}_+$$

$$\Rightarrow |m_+ - m_-| = \mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)$$

▶ We wish to make the above difference as large as we can. In addition, ...



► To obtain good separation of the projected data, we really want the difference between the means to be large relative to some measure of the standard deviation of each class:



- ► To obtain good separation of the projected data, we really want the difference between the means to be large relative to some measure of the standard deviation of each class:
  - Scatter of the projected samples of class  $C_+$ :

$$s_+^2 = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - m_+)^2$$



- ► To obtain good separation of the projected data, we really want the difference between the means to be large relative to some measure of the standard deviation of each class:
  - Scatter of the projected samples of class  $C_+$ :

$$s_+^2 = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - m_+)^2$$

■ Total within-class scatter of the projected samples:

$$s_+^2 + s_-^2$$



- ► To obtain good separation of the projected data, we really want the difference between the means to be large relative to some measure of the standard deviation of each class:
  - Scatter of the projected samples of class  $C_+$ :

$$s_+^2 = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - m_+)^2$$

■ Total within-class scatter of the projected samples:

$$s_+^2 + s_-^2$$

Fisher linear discriminant analysis:

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{|m_{+} - m_{-}|^2}{s_{+}^2 + s_{-}^2}$$



$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_+ - m_-|^2}{s_+^2 + s_-^2}$$



- $J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_+ m_-|^2}{s_\perp^2 + s^2}$
- ▶ To obtain  $J(\mathbf{w})$  as an explicit function of  $\mathbf{w}$ , we define the following matrices:

$$S_+ = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_+)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_+)^T$$

Within-class scatter matrix:

$$S_w = S_+ + S_-$$



$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_+ - m_-|^2}{s_+^2 + s_-^2}$$

▶ To obtain  $J(\mathbf{w})$  as an explicit function of  $\mathbf{w}$ , we define the following matrices:

$$S_+ = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_+} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_+) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_+)^T$$

Within-class scatter matrix:

$$S_w = S_+ + S_-$$

► Then:

$$s_{+}^{2} = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_{+}} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x} - m_{+})^{2} = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_{+}} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{m}_{+})^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_{+}} \mathbf{w}^{T} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{+}) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{+})^{T} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{+} \mathbf{w}$$



▶ So, 
$$s_+^2 = \mathbf{w}^T S_+ \mathbf{w}$$
 and  $s_-^2 = \mathbf{w}^T S_- \mathbf{w}$ 



- ▶ So,  $s_{+}^2 = \mathbf{w}^T S_{+} \mathbf{w}$  and  $s_{-}^2 = \mathbf{w}^T S_{-} \mathbf{w}$
- ► Thus,

$$s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2} = \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{+} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{-} \mathbf{w}$$
$$= \mathbf{w}^{T} (S_{+} + S_{-}) \mathbf{w}$$
$$= \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{w} \mathbf{w}$$



- ► So,  $s_+^2 = \mathbf{w}^T S_+ \mathbf{w}$  and  $s_-^2 = \mathbf{w}^T S_- \mathbf{w}$
- Thus,

$$s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2} = \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{+} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{-} \mathbf{w}$$
$$= \mathbf{w}^{T} (S_{+} + S_{-}) \mathbf{w}$$
$$= \mathbf{w}^{T} S_{w} \mathbf{w}$$

Similarly:

$$(m_{+} - m_{-})^{2} = (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{m}_{+} - \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{m}_{-})^{2}$$
  
=  $\mathbf{w}^{T} (\mathbf{m}_{+} - \mathbf{m}_{-}) (\mathbf{m}_{+} - \mathbf{m}_{-})^{T} \mathbf{w}$   
=  $\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{B} \mathbf{w}$ 

where  $S_B = (\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)^T$  (Between-class scatter matrix)



▶ We have obtained:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_{+} - m_{-}|^{2}}{s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{B} \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{W} \mathbf{w}}$$



We have obtained:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_{+} - m_{-}|^{2}}{s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{B} \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{W} \mathbf{w}}$$

▶  $J(\mathbf{w})$  is maximized when  $(\mathbf{w}^T S_B \mathbf{w}) S_W \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{w}^T S_W \mathbf{w}) S_B \mathbf{w}$ 



We have obtained:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_{+} - m_{-}|^{2}}{s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{B} \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{W} \mathbf{w}}$$

- ▶  $J(\mathbf{w})$  is maximized when  $(\mathbf{w}^T S_B \mathbf{w}) S_W \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{w}^T S_W \mathbf{w}) S_B \mathbf{w}$
- ► We observe that:

$$S_B \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)^T \mathbf{w}$$

where  $(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)^T \mathbf{w}$  is a scalar, always in the direction of  $(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)$ 



We have obtained:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{|m_{+} - m_{-}|^{2}}{s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{B} \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^{T} S_{W} \mathbf{w}}$$

- ▶  $J(\mathbf{w})$  is maximized when  $(\mathbf{w}^T S_B \mathbf{w}) S_W \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{w}^T S_W \mathbf{w}) S_B \mathbf{w}$
- ► We observe that:

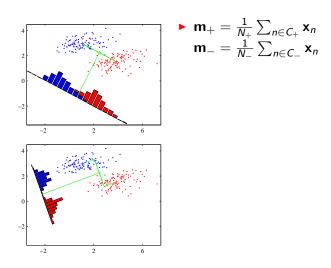
$$S_B \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)^T \mathbf{w}$$

where  $(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)^T \mathbf{w}$  is a scalar, always in the direction of  $(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)$ 

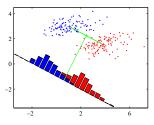
► Solution:

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathcal{S}_W^{-1}(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)$$

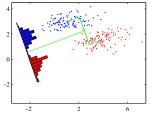




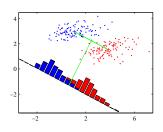


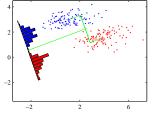


- $\mathbf{m}_{+} = \frac{1}{N_{+}} \sum_{n \in C_{+}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$   $\mathbf{m}_{-} = \frac{1}{N_{-}} \sum_{n \in C_{-}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$
- Maximize projection-distance of class means  $\mathbf{w}_{\textit{simple}} \propto \mathbf{m}_+ \mathbf{m}_-$



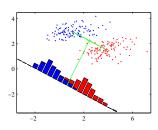


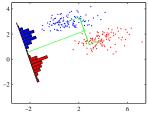




- $\mathbf{m}_{+} = \frac{1}{N_{+}} \sum_{n \in C_{+}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$   $\mathbf{m}_{-} = \frac{1}{N_{-}} \sum_{n \in C_{-}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$
- ▶ Maximize projection-distance of class means  $\mathbf{w}_{simple} \propto \mathbf{m}_{+} \mathbf{m}_{-}$
- Maximizing distance between means ignores that the projected variances might also be big.



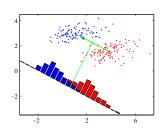


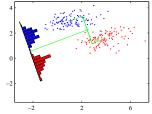


- $\mathbf{m}_{+} = \frac{1}{N_{+}} \sum_{n \in C_{+}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$   $\mathbf{m}_{-} = \frac{1}{N_{-}} \sum_{n \in C_{-}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$
- ► Maximize projection-distance of class means  $\mathbf{w}_{simple} \propto \mathbf{m}_{+} - \mathbf{m}_{-}$
- Maximizing distance between means ignores that the projected variances might also be big.
- ► Fix: Maximize the ratio of between-class variance to within-class variance ('signal to noise'). Fisher criterion

$$J_{\mathbf{w}} = \frac{(m_{+} - m_{-})^{2}}{s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2}} \tag{1}$$







Bishop PRML Figure 4.6

$$\mathbf{m}_{+} = \frac{1}{N_{+}} \sum_{n \in C_{+}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$\mathbf{m}_{-} = \frac{1}{N_{-}} \sum_{n \in C_{-}} \mathbf{x}_{n}$$

- ► Maximize projection-distance of class means  $\mathbf{w}_{simple} \propto \mathbf{m}_{+} - \mathbf{m}_{-}$
- Maximizing distance between means ignores that the projected variances might also be big.
- ► Fix: Maximize the ratio of between-class variance to within-class variance ('signal to noise'). Fisher criterion

$$J_{\mathbf{w}} = \frac{(m_{+} - m_{-})^{2}}{s_{+}^{2} + s_{-}^{2}} \tag{1}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{Ida} = S_W^{-1}(\mathbf{m}_+ - \mathbf{m}_-)$$



- ► Gives the linear function with the maximum ratio of between-class scatter to within-class scatter.
- ► The problem, e.g. classification, has been reduced from a d-dimensional problem to a more manageable one-dimensional problem.
- Optimal for multivariate normal class conditional densities.



▶ The analysis can be extended to multiple classes.



- ▶ The analysis can be extended to multiple classes.
- $\blacktriangleright S_W = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k} (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k)^T$



- ▶ The analysis can be extended to multiple classes.
- $S_W = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k} (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k)^T$
- ►  $S_B = \sum_{k=1}^K m_k (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m})^T$  where  $\mathbf{m}$  is the global mean;  $m_k$  is the number of examples in class k



- The analysis can be extended to multiple classes.
- $S_W = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k} (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k)^T$
- ►  $S_B = \sum_{k=1}^K m_k (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m})^T$  where  $\mathbf{m}$  is the global mean;  $m_k$  is the number of examples in class k
- ▶ Solve:  $S_B \mathbf{v} = \lambda S_W \mathbf{v}$  the generalized eigenvalue problem



- ▶ The analysis can be extended to multiple classes.
- $\triangleright S_W = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k} (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k)^T$
- ►  $S_B = \sum_{k=1}^K m_k (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m})^T$  where  $\mathbf{m}$  is the global mean;  $m_k$  is the number of examples in class k
- Solve:  $S_B \mathbf{v} = \lambda S_W \mathbf{v}$  the generalized eigenvalue problem
- ▶ At most K-1 distinct solution eigenvalues



- The analysis can be extended to multiple classes.
- $\triangleright S_W = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k} (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{m}_k)^T$
- ►  $S_B = \sum_{k=1}^K m_k (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{m}_k \mathbf{m})^T$  where  $\mathbf{m}$  is the global mean;  $m_k$  is the number of examples in class k
- ▶ Solve:  $S_B \mathbf{v} = \lambda S_W \mathbf{v}$  the generalized eigenvalue problem
- ▶ At most K-1 distinct solution eigenvalues
- ► The optimal projection matrix V to a subspace of dimension k is given by the eigenvectors corresponding to the largest k eigenvalues



- ► LDA is a linear technique for dimensionality reduction: it projects the data along directions that can be expressed as linear combination of the input features.
- ► The "appropriate" transformation depends on the data and on the task we want to perform on the data. Note that LDA uses class labels.
- ▶ Non-linear extensions of LDA exist (e.g., generalized LDA).

# The Perceptron Algorithm (Frank Rosenblatt, 1957)



- First learning algorithm for neural networks.
- Originally introduced for character classification, where each character is represented as an image;
- ► Total input to output node:

$$\sum_{j} w_{j} x_{j}$$

Output unit performs the function (activation function):

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

## Perceptron: Learning Algorithm



- ▶ Goal: compute a mapping from inputs to the outputs.
- Example: two class character recognition problem.
  - Training set: set of images representing either the character 'a' or the character 'b' (supervised learning);
  - Learning task: learn the weights so that when a new unlabelled image comes in, the network can predict its label.
  - Setting: *d* input units (intensity level of a pixel), 1 output unit.



#### The algorithm proceeds as follows:

- Initial random setting of weights;
- ▶ The input is a random sequence  $\{x_k\}$
- For each element of class C₁, if output = 1 (correct), do nothing; otherwise, update weights;
- For each element of class C₂, if output = 0 (correct), do nothing; otherwise, update weights;



- ► More formally:  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)^T, \mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_d)^T$
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\theta$ : Threshold of the output unit
- ▶ Unit output:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + ... + x_d x_d$
- ▶ Output class 1 if  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \theta \ge 0$
- To eliminate the explicit dependence on θ: Output class 1 if: w<sup>T</sup>x ≥ 0



▶ We want to learn values of the weights so that the perceptron correctly discriminate elements of  $C_1$  from elements of  $C_2$ 



- ▶ We want to learn values of the weights so that the perceptron correctly discriminate elements of  $C_1$  from elements of  $C_2$
- ► Given **x** in input, if **x** is classified correctly, weights are unchanged, otherwise:

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x} & \text{if an element of class } C_1 \text{ was classified as in } C_2 \\ \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x} & \text{if an element of class } C_2 \text{ was classified as in } C_1 \end{cases}$$



▶ 1<sup>st</sup> case:  $\mathbf{x} \in C_1$  and was classified in  $C_2$ . The correct answer is 1, which corresponds to:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \ge 0$ , we have  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < 0$ . We want to get closer to the correct answer:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{w}'^T \mathbf{x}$ .

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{w}^{\prime T} \mathbf{x}$$
, iff  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{x}$   
 $(\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + ||\mathbf{x}||^2$ 

because  $||\mathbf{x}||^2 > 0$ , the condition is verified.



▶ 1<sup>st</sup> case:  $\mathbf{x} \in C_1$  and was classified in  $C_2$ . The correct answer is 1, which corresponds to:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \ge 0$ , we have  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < 0$ . We want to get closer to the correct answer:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{w}'^T \mathbf{x}$ .

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{w}'^T \mathbf{x}$$
, iff  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{x}$   
 $(\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + ||\mathbf{x}||^2$ 

because  $||\mathbf{x}||^2 > 0$ , the condition is verified.

▶  $2^{st}$  case:  $\mathbf{x} \in C_2$  and was classified in  $C_1$ . The correct answer is 0, which corresponds to:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < 0$ , we have  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \ge 0$ . We want to get closer to the correct answer:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} > \mathbf{w}'^T \mathbf{x}$ .

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} > \mathbf{w}'^T \mathbf{x}$$
, iff  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{x}$   
 $(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - ||\mathbf{x}||^2$ 

because  $||\mathbf{x}||^2 > 0$ , the condition is verified.



#### In summary:

▶ A random sequence  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_k$  is generated such that  $x_i \in C_1 \cup C_2$ 



#### In summary:

- ▶ A random sequence  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_k$  is generated such that  $x_i \in C_1 \cup C_2$
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{x}_k$  is correctly classified, then  $\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \mathbf{w}_k$  otherwise:

$$\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{w}_k + \mathbf{x}_k & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_k \in C_1 \\ \mathbf{w}_k - \mathbf{x}_k & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_k \in C_2 \end{cases}$$



#### In summary:

- ▶ A random sequence  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_k$  is generated such that  $x_i \in C_1 \cup C_2$
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{x}_k$  is correctly classified, then  $\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \mathbf{w}_k$  otherwise:

$$\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{w}_k + \mathbf{x}_k & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_k \in C_1 \\ \mathbf{w}_k - \mathbf{x}_k & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_k \in C_2 \end{cases}$$

Convergence theorem: regardless of the initial choice of weights, if the two classes are linearly separable, there exists w such that:

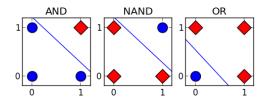
$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \ge 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_k \in C_1 \\ \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_k \in C_2 \end{cases}$$

then the learning rule will find such solution after a finite number of steps.

### Representational Power of Perceptrons



- Marvin Minsky and Seymour Papert, "Perceptrons" 1969:
   The perceptron can solve only problems with linearly separable classes
- Examples of linearly separable Boolean functions:



# Representational Power of Perceptrons



► Examples of linearly separable Boolean functions:

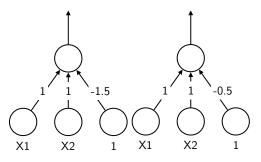
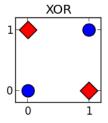


Figure: Left: AND; Right: OR

# Representational Power of Perceptrons



Examples of a non linearly separable Boolean function:



▶ The EX-OR function cannot be computed by a perceptron.

# Naive Bayes: not (necessarily) a Bayesian method



- ▶ A and B are independent iff p(A, B) = p(A)p(B)
- A and B are conditionally independent given C iff p(A, B|C) = p(A|C)p(B|C)

# Naive Bayes: Assumption



- ► Assume dimensions of **x** are conditionally independent given y.
- Example, bag of words: p( "Stevens", "Institute", "Technology" |y) = p( "Stevens" |y)p( "Institute" |y)p( "Technology" |y)
- Optimizaing:

$$f(x) = \arg \max_{y} p(y|x)$$

$$= \arg \max_{y} p(x|y)p(y)/p(x)$$

$$= \arg \max_{y} p(x|y)p(y)$$

$$= \arg \max_{y} p(y) \prod_{i} p(x_{i}|y)$$

# Naive Bayes: Solution



- ▶  $p(y) : \leftarrow \frac{\# \text{ examples where } Y = y}{(\# \text{ examples})}$ ▶  $p(X_j = x_j | y) \leftarrow \frac{\# \text{ ex where } Y = y \text{ and } X_j = x_j}{(\# \text{ ex where } Y = y)}$
- Learning by counting!

# Gaussian naive Bayes: Continuous data



- ▶ p(y) :  $\leftarrow \frac{\# \text{ examples where } Y=y}{(\# \text{ examples})}$
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\mu_k$  and  $\sigma_k$  are determined from the training data set.
- Learning by counting!

# Gaussian naive Bayes: example (from Wikipedia)



### Training data set:

Sex	Sex height		foot size	
male	6	180	12	
male	5.92	1990	11	
male	5.58	170	12	
male	5.92	165	10	
female	5	100	6	
female	5.5	150	8	
female	5.42	140	7	
female	5.75	150	9	

#### Mean and variance

Sex	mean-height	var-height	mean-weight	var-weight	mean-footsize	var-footsize
male	5.855	$3.5 * 10^{-2}$	176.25	$1.2292 * 10^{2}$		$9.1667 * 10^{-1}$
female	5.4175	$9.7225 * 10^{-2}$	132.5	5.5833 * 10 <sup>2</sup>	7.5	1.6667

# Gaussian naive Bayes: example (from Wikipedia)



### Training mean and variance

Sex	mean-height	var-height	mean-weight	var-weight	mean-footsize	var-footsize
male	5.855	$3.5 * 10^{-2}$	176.25	1.2292 * 10 <sup>2</sup>		$9.1667 * 10^{-1}$
female	5.4175	$9.7225 * 10^{-2}$	132.5	$5.5833 * 10^{2}$	7.5	1.6667

### Testing:

$$p(m|x) \approx p(m)p(\text{height}|m)p(\text{weight}|m)p(\text{footsize}|m) = 6.1984 * 10^{-9}$$
  
 $p(f|x) \approx p(f)p(\text{height}|f)p(\text{weight}|f)p(\text{footsize}|f) = 5.3778 * 10^{-4}$ 



Given a set of models  $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, M_2, ..., M_R\}$ , choose the model that is expected to do the best on the test data.  $\mathcal{M}$  may consist of:

Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
  - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
  - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves
  - SVM: Different choices of the misclassification penalty



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
  - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves
  - SVM: Different choices of the misclassification penalty
  - Regularized models: Different choices of the regularization parameter



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
  - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves
  - SVM: Different choices of the misclassification penalty
  - Regularized models: Different choices of the regularization parameter
  - Kernel based methods: Different choices of kernels



- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
  - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves
  - SVM: Different choices of the misclassification penalty
  - Regularized models: Different choices of the regularization parameter
  - Kernel based methods: Different choices of kernels ...and almost any learning problem



Given a set of models  $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, M_2, ..., M_R\}$ , choose the model that is expected to do the best on the test data.  $\mathcal{M}$  may consist of:

- Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters.
  - Nonlinear regression: polynomials with different degrees
  - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
  - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves
  - SVM: Different choices of the misclassification penalty
  - Regularized models: Different choices of the regularization parameter
  - Kernel based methods: Different choices of kernels ...and almost any learning problem
- Different learning models (e.g. SVM, kNN, DT, etc)

**Note**: usually considered in supervised learning but unsupervised learning faces this issue too.



▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ► This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ► This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ▶ This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data
- Train each model using the remaining training data



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ► This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data
- Train each model using the remaining training data
- Evaluate error on the held-out data



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ► This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data
- Train each model using the remaining training data
- Evaluate error on the held-out data
- Choose the model with the smallest held-out error



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ▶ This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data
- Train each model using the remaining training data
- Evaluate error on the held-out data
- Choose the model with the smallest held-out error
- ► Problems:



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ► This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data
- Train each model using the remaining training data
- Evaluate error on the held-out data
- Choose the model with the smallest held-out error
- ► Problems:
  - wastes training data



- ▶ Set aside a fraction (10-20%) of the training data.
- ► This part becomes our held-out data (validation/development)
- ▶ Remember: Held-out data is NOT the test data
- Train each model using the remaining training data
- Evaluate error on the held-out data
- Choose the model with the smallest held-out error
- Problems:
  - wastes training data
  - if there was an unfortunate split (can be alleviated by repeated random subsampling)



K-fold Cross-Validation on N training examples

► Create K equal sized partitions of the training data



- Create K equal sized partitions of the training data
- ▶ Each partition has N/K examples



- Create K equal sized partitions of the training data
- ▶ Each partition has N/K examples
- ▶ Train using K-1 partitions, validate on the remaining partition



- Create K equal sized partitions of the training data
- ▶ Each partition has N/K examples
- ▶ Train using K-1 partitions, validate on the remaining partition
- Repeat the same K times, each with a different validation partition



- Create K equal sized partitions of the training data
- ▶ Each partition has N/K examples
- ▶ Train using K-1 partitions, validate on the remaining partition
- Repeat the same K times, each with a different validation partition
- Choose the model with the smallest average validation error



- Create K equal sized partitions of the training data
- Each partition has N/K examples
- ▶ Train using K-1 partitions, validate on the remaining partition
- Repeat the same K times, each with a different validation partition
- Choose the model with the smallest average validation error
- Usually K is chosen as 10



Special case of K-fold Cross-Validation when K = N

► Each partition is now an example



- ► Each partition is now an example
- ightharpoonup Train using N-1 examples, validate on the remaining example



- ► Each partition is now an example
- ▶ Train using N-1 examples, validate on the remaining example
- ► Repeat the same N times, each with a different validation example



- ► Each partition is now an example
- ▶ Train using N-1 examples, validate on the remaining example
- ► Repeat the same N times, each with a different validation example
- Choose the model with the smallest average validation error



- ► Each partition is now an example
- ▶ Train using N-1 examples, validate on the remaining example
- ► Repeat the same N times, each with a different validation example
- Choose the model with the smallest average validation error
- ► can be expensive for large N. Typically used when N is small



▶ Randomly subsample a fixed fraction  $\alpha N(0 < \alpha < 1)$  of examples; call it the validation set



- ▶ Randomly subsample a fixed fraction  $\alpha N(0 < \alpha < 1)$  of examples; call it the validation set
- Training using the rest of the examples, measure error on the validation set



- ▶ Randomly subsample a fixed fraction  $\alpha N(0 < \alpha < 1)$  of examples; call it the validation set
- Training using the rest of the examples, measure error on the validation set
- Repeat K times, each with a different randomly chosen validation set



- ▶ Randomly subsample a fixed fraction  $\alpha N(0 < \alpha < 1)$  of examples; call it the validation set
- Training using the rest of the examples, measure error on the validation set
- Repeat K times, each with a different randomly chosen validation set
- Choose the model with the smallest average validation error



- ▶ Randomly subsample a fixed fraction  $\alpha N(0 < \alpha < 1)$  of examples; call it the validation set
- Training using the rest of the examples, measure error on the validation set
- Repeat K times, each with a different randomly chosen validation set
- Choose the model with the smallest average validation error
- ▶ Usually  $\alpha$  is chose as 0.1, K as 10



► Given a set of N examples



- ► Given a set of N examples
- ► Idea: Sample N elements from this set with replacement (already sampled elements can e picked again)



- Given a set of N examples
- ► Idea: Sample N elements from this set with replacement (already sampled elements can e picked again)
- Use this new set as the training data



- Given a set of N examples
- ► Idea: Sample N elements from this set with replacement (already sampled elements can e picked again)
- Use this new set as the training data
- ▶ The set of examples not selected as the validation data



- Given a set of N examples
- ► Idea: Sample N elements from this set with replacement (already sampled elements can e picked again)
- Use this new set as the training data
- ▶ The set of examples not selected as the validation data
- For large N, training data consists of about only 63% unique examples



- Given a set of N examples
- ► Idea: Sample N elements from this set with replacement (already sampled elements can e picked again)
- Use this new set as the training data
- ▶ The set of examples not selected as the validation data
- For large N, training data consists of about only 63% unique examples
- Expected model error:

$$e = 0.632 \times e_{\mathsf{test}} + 0.368 e_{\mathsf{training}}$$



- Given a set of N examples
- ► Idea: Sample N elements from this set with replacement (already sampled elements can e picked again)
- Use this new set as the training data
- ▶ The set of examples not selected as the validation data
- For large N, training data consists of about only 63% unique examples
- Expected model error:

$$e = 0.632 \times e_{\mathsf{test}} + 0.368 e_{\mathsf{training}}$$

▶ This can break down if we overfit and  $e_{\text{training}} = 0$ 

Bradley Efron & Robert Tibshirani. Improvements on Cross-Validation: The 632+ Bootstrap Method

### Information Criteria based methods



Akaike Information Criteria (AIC)

$$AIC = 2k - 2\log(\mathcal{L})$$

Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC)

$$\mathsf{BIC} = k \log(N) - 2 \log(\mathcal{L})$$

- ▶ k: # of model parameters
- ▶ n: # of data examples
- L: maximum value of the model likelihood
- Applicable for probabilistic models
- AIC/BIC penalize model complexity



Selecting a useful subset from all the features. Why?

► Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- ▶ Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms
- ► Redundant features adversely affect regularization



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- ▶ Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms
- Redundant features adversely affect regularization
- Removal of features can increase (relative) margin (and generalization)



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms
- Redundant features adversely affect regularization
- Removal of features can increase (relative) margin (and generalization)
- Reduces data set and resulting model size



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms
- Redundant features adversely affect regularization
- Removal of features can increase (relative) margin (and generalization)
- Reduces data set and resulting model size
- Note: Feature Selection is different from Feature Extraction



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- ▶ Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms
- Redundant features adversely affect regularization
- Removal of features can increase (relative) margin (and generalization)
- Reduces data set and resulting model size
- ▶ Note: Feature Selection is different from Feature Extraction
  - The latter transforms original features to get a small set of new features



- Some algorithms scale (computationally) poorly with increased dimension
- ▶ Irrelevant features can confuse some algorithms
- Redundant features adversely affect regularization
- Removal of features can increase (relative) margin (and generalization)
- Reduces data set and resulting model size
- ▶ Note: Feature Selection is different from Feature Extraction
  - The latter transforms original features to get a small set of new features
  - More on feature extraction when we cover Dimensionality Reduction

### Feature Selection Methods



- ▶ Methods agnostic to the learning algorithm
  - Preprocessing based methods
    - E.g., remove a binary feature if its ON in very few or most examples
  - Filter Feature Selection methods
    - Use some ranking criteria to rank features
    - Select the top ranking features
- Wrapper Methods (keep the learning algorithm in the loop)
  - Requires repeated runs of the learning algorithm with different set of features
  - Can be computationally expensive

### Filter Feature Selection



▶ Uses heuristics but is much faster than wrapper methods



Correlation Criteria: Rank features in order of their correlation with the labels

$$R(X_d, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{cov(X_d, \mathbf{y})}{\sqrt{var(X_d)var(\mathbf{y})}}$$

► Mutual Information Criteria:

$$MI(X_d, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{X_d \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{y \in \{-1,+1\}} P(X_d, \mathbf{y}) \log \frac{P(X_d, \mathbf{y})}{P(X_d)P(y)}$$

- high mutual information means high relevance of that feature
- Note: these probabilities can be easily estimated form the data

### Wrapper Methods



- Forward Search
  - Start with no features
  - Greedily include the most relevant feature
  - Stop when selected the desired number of features

### Wrapper Methods



- ► Forward Search
  - Start with no features
  - Greedily include the most relevant feature
  - Stop when selected the desired number of features
- Backward Search
  - Start with all features
  - Greedily remove the least relevant feature
  - Stop when selected the desired number of features

### Wrapper Methods



- Forward Search
  - Start with no features
  - Greedily include the most relevant feature
  - Stop when selected the desired number of features
- Backward Search
  - Start with all features
  - Greedily remove the least relevant feature
  - Stop when selected the desired number of features
- ► Inclusion/Removal criteria uses cross-validation



### Acknowledgements

Slides adapted from Dr. Bert Huang's *Machine Learning* at Virginia Tech, Dr. Tommi S. Jaakkola's *Introduction to Machine Learning* at MIT, and Dr. Piyush Rai's *Machine Learning* at Utah.