# Classification

Tiphaine Viard

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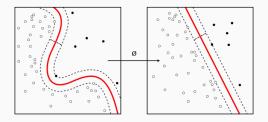
What is classification?

# Wikipedia definition

Classification is the problem of identifying to which of a set of categories (sub-populations) a new observation belongs, on the basis of a training set of data containing observations (or instances) whose category membership is known.

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Generalize known structures to apply to new data.



An e-mail program might attempt to classify an e-mail as "legitimate" or as "spam".

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# Spam example

Data set that describes e-mail features for deciding if it is spam.

Example				
Contains	Domain	Has	Time	
"Money"	type	attach.	received	spam
yes	com	yes	night	yes
yes	edu	no	night	yes
no	com	yes	night	yes
no	edu	no	day	no
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Assume we have to classify the following new instance:

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#### Definition

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Given a set of classes  $C_1...C_N$ , a classifier algorithm builds a model that predicts for every unlabelled instance I the class  $C_i$  to which it belongs with accuracy.

#### **Example** Spam filter

#### Example

Twitter Sentiment analysis: analyze tweets with positive or negative feelings

# Example Cat or Dog?

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#### A note about classification

Finding a defining feature for classification can cause unjust consequences; **redlining** can be exacerbated by machine learning models.

Dutch welfare ordered to stop using SyRI (2020)

Find the balance between technical and social aspects

Privacy Discrimination Opacity Symbolic AI Baked-in fairness "White-box" models

...

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# Basic Classifiers

# Majority vote

# **Training**

Compute the majority class in the dataset

Prediction

Output the majority class

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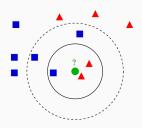
# k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)

# **Training**

Store all instance (+ eventual index)

#### Prediction

Find the *k* closest point in the input and output the majority over those *k* points.



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# k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)

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Closest according to what metric?

 $L_1$  vs  $L_2$  vs  $L_\infty$  vs COS

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 $L_1$ 

VS

 $L_2$ 

VS

 $\mathsf{L}_{\infty}$ 

VS

COS

Rule of thumb:  $k = \sqrt{n}$ 

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#### Better k-NN

**Problem.** Finding distance from all points to all others is costly:  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  time

We only care about close data points

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**Problem.** Finding distance from all points to all others is costly:  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  time

We only care about close data points

Solution: use locality-sensitive hashing (LSH)

- · Close points in the same bucket with high probability,
- Distant points are in different buckets with high probability.

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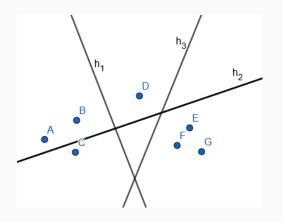
# Random hyperplanes for LSH

```
1 Generate K hyperplanes h_1, \ldots, h_K;
 2 \mathcal{H}_{i,k} \leftarrow -1, \forall i, \forall k;
 3 for every datapoint x_i do
         if x_i \cdot h_b > 0 then
               \mathcal{H}_{i,k} \leftarrow 0;
 5
          end
 6
          else
 7
                \mathcal{H}_{i,k} \leftarrow 1;
 8
          end
 9
10 end
```

Repeat multiple times → more robust

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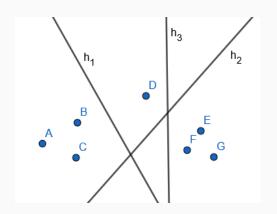
# LSH : an example



Hash	Data points
000	А, В
001	
010	С
011	
100	D
101	
110	
111	E, F, G

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# LSH : an example



Hash	Data points
000	A, B, C
001	
010	
011	
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101	
110	
111	FFG

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#### Formula

$$\frac{P(A) \times P(B|A)}{P(B)} = P(A|B)$$

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Proof.

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B|A)$$

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#### Formula

$$\frac{P(A) \times P(B|A)}{P(B)} = P(A|B)$$

#### Interpretation

$$prior \times \frac{likelihood}{evidence} = posterior$$

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# Naive Bayes Classifier

#### **Grouping attributes**

$$P(C_i) \times \frac{P(\bar{x}|C_i)}{P(\bar{x})} = P(C_i|\bar{x})$$

#### Multiple attributes

$$P(C_i) \times \frac{\prod_j P(x_j|C_i)}{P(\bar{x})} = P(C_i|\bar{x})$$

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With independence hypothesis!

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# Naive Bayes Classifier

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Multiple attributes

$$P(C_i) \times \frac{\prod_j P(x_j|C_i)}{P(\bar{x})} = P(C_i|\bar{x})$$

With independence hypothesis!  $P(\bar{x})$  does not change with the class

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# Tree Methods

#### Classification

Data set that describes e-mail features for deciding if it is spam.

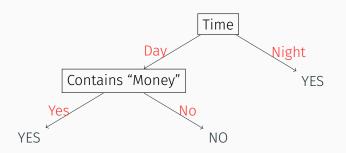
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#### Classification

Assume we have to classify the following new instance:

Contains	Domain	Has	Time		
"Money"	type	attach.	received	spam	
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#### **Decision Trees**



#### Recursive construction technique

- A  $\leftarrow$  the best decision attribute for next node
- · Assign A as decision attribute for node
- · For each value of A, create new descendant of node
- · Sort training examples to leaf nodes
- If training examples perfectly classified, Then STOP, Else iterate over new leaf nodes

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#### **Decision Trees**

- · Interpretable: the DT is easy to understand
- Training is fast (greedy algorithm)
- Expressive: can approximate complex non-linear functions
- Complex function = large tree
- Large tree = more variance = overfitting

In practice, decision trees underperform compared with other methods

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# Bagging (Breiman, 1996)

#### Example

Dataset of 4 Instances : A, B, C, D

Classifier 1: B, A, C, B

Classifier 2: D, B, A, D

Classifier 3: B, A, C, B

Classifier 4: B, C, B, B

Classifier 5: D, C, A, C

#### Bagging:

 Bootstrap: generate multiple samples of data, train decision tree

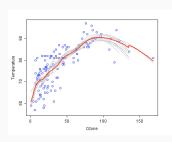
2. Aggregate: output the average output of all models

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# Bagging

Bagging builds a set of M base models, with a bootstrap sample created by drawing random samples with replacement.

- Highly expressive: each model can estimate complex functions/boundaries
- a low-variance method: averaging the prediction of all models reduces variance (if M large enough)



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# Evaluating bagging: out-of-bag error

Bagging implies multiple models, running on different, overlapping datasets

How can we evaluate its performance?

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# Evaluating bagging: out-of-bag error

Bagging implies multiple models, running on different, overlapping datasets

How can we evaluate its performance?

#### The out-of-bag error

- for each data point x, average predicted output over models that do not contain x in bootstrap ⇒ point-wise out-of-bag error;
- 2. Average point-wise out-of-bag error over training set.

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## Problems with bagging

In practice, trees are strongly correlated.

- Suppose that x<sub>i</sub> is a strong predictor. Then most models will split on x<sub>i</sub>;
- Then, each tree is essentially the same, and the averaged output is irrelevant.

For F identically, dependently distributed variables with pairwise correlation  $\rho$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , variance of mean:

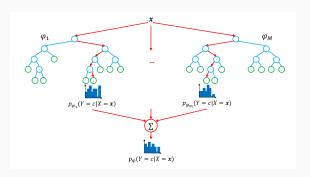
$$\rho\sigma^2 + \frac{1-\rho}{F}\sigma^2$$

Variance reduction of bagging is limited.

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#### **Random Forests**

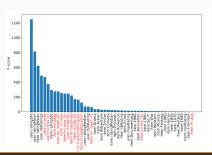
- Bagging
- Random Trees: trees that in each node only uses a random subset of k of the attributes



⇒ one of the most popular methods in machine learning.

# Feature importance with random forests

- Record prediction accuracy on the oob samples for each tree;
- Randomly permute the data for column j in the oob samples;
- · Record the accuracy again;
- Average the decrease in accuracy over all trees, and use as a measure of the importance of variable *j*.



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# Final thoughts on Random Forest

- Ensemble methods: not easily interpretable
- One of the best "off-the-shelf" methods, near to 0 tuning necessary
- Averaging and randomization offer fine control of the bias-variance trade-off
- Reasonably efficient:  $\Omega(mk\hat{n}log^2\hat{n})$ , with  $\hat{n}\approx 0.63n$
- use n\_jobs to make parallel
- **sklearn** implementation (Python + Cython) is by far the fastest available

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## **Gradient Boosting**

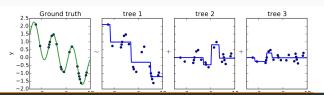
Train each of the M trees on the error of the precedent trees

$$\phi(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{M} \phi_m(x)$$

with each step being staged:

$$\phi_m(x) = \phi_{m-1}(x) + \hat{\phi}_m(x)$$

and  $\hat{\phi}_m$  is a tree that approximates the gradient step.



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# Last thoughts on gradient boosting

- Usually more accurate than Random Forests
- · Can adapt to most loss functions
- Under- and overfitting are adressed through regularization (learning rate, subsampling, term in loss function...)
- · Tuning is harder than for random forests
- · Slow to train (no parallelism!), fast predictions
- Still, blazing-fast implementation (Python and C++):
   XGBoost

· Easy to get feature importance

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# \_\_\_\_\_

**Gradient-based Methods** 

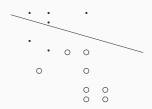
# Logistic Regression

### Training

Learn an hyperplan  ${\cal P}$  separating well the two classes.

#### Prediction

What side of the hyperplan  $\mathcal{P}$  is the point?



Based on the gradient of the logit function.

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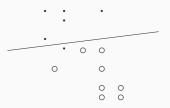
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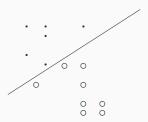
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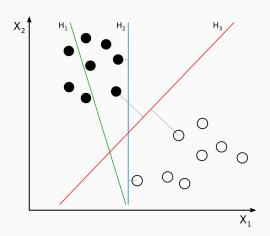


Based on the gradient of the logit function.

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# Support-Vector Machines (SVM)

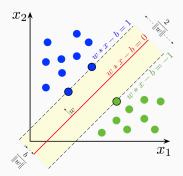
Similarly to logistic regression, we want to find the **best** separating hyperplane



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#### Suppose a linear separation exists

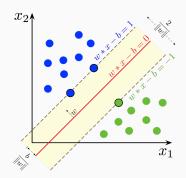
$$w^{T}x + b = 1, w^{T}x + b = -1$$



 $x_i$  near the margin determine the solution  $\rightarrow$  support vectors

#### Suppose a linear separation exists

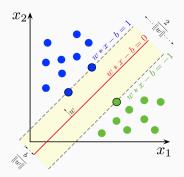
$$w^{T}x_{i} + b \ge 1$$
, if  $y_{i} = 1$ ,  $w^{T}x_{i} + b \le -1$ , if  $y_{i} = -1$ 



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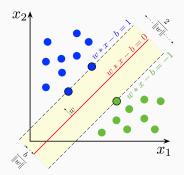
$$w^T x_i + b \ge 1$$
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$$y_i(w^T x + y) \ge 1$$



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Suppose a linear separation exists

minimize ||w|| subject to  $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1$ , for i = 1..n



 $x_i$  near the margin determine the solution  $\rightarrow$  support vectors

# Solving SVM

minimize ||w|| subject to  $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1$ , for i = 1..n

||w|| is the  $L_1$  norm

The gradient of ||w|| is  $\frac{w}{||w||}$ 

Let's switch instead to  $L_2$  norm

The gradient of  $||w||^2$  is 2w

minimize  $\frac{1}{2}||w||^2$  subject to  $y_i(w^Tx_i+b) \ge 1$ , for i=1..n

This is a quadratic optimization problem.

### Final thoughts on SVM

- What about non linearly separable data?
   Add misclassification term (number or distance)
- Use hinge function as regularization:  $\min ||w||^2 + \lambda \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x - b)) \right]$
- $\lambda$  trade-off between increasing margin and ensuring  $x_i$  outside of margin
- · Only adapted to binary classification
- · But you can do "one-versus-all" classification