INFO 284 - Machine Learning

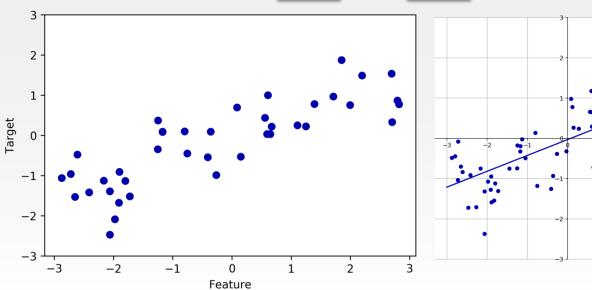
Linear Classifiers

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Univariate linear regression

$$\hat{y} = w[0] * x[0] \cdot b$$

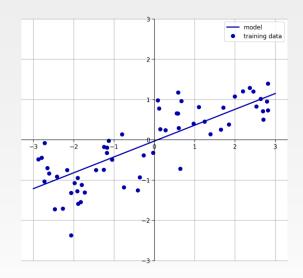


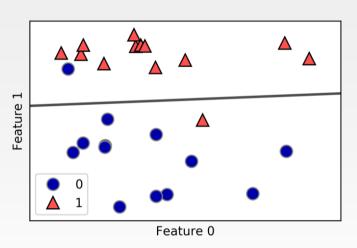


training data

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Linear Binary Classifiers







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Linear Binary Classifiers

 The hypothesis is a linear function of the input features.

$$\hat{y} = w[0] * x[0] + w[1] * x[1] + \dots + w[p] * x[p] + b > 0$$

- If the expression is <= 0, then one category, else the other
- The decision boundary is a linear function of the input
- A linear binary classifier separates two classes using a line, or a plane or a hyper-plane



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Linear Binary Classification Algorithms

The algorithms differ on:

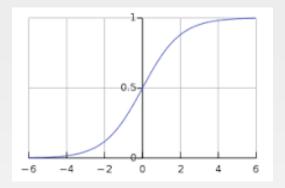
- the way in which they measure how well a particular combination of w and b fits the training data
- if and what kind of regularisation they use
- Here: Logistic Regression and Linear Support Vector Machines



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Logistic Regression

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



- Named for the function used in the core of the method logistic function (also called sigmoid).
- Logistic regression models the probability of the first class
- The first class is often called the default

$$\hat{y} = w[0] * x[0] + w[1] * x[1] + \cdots + w[p] * x[p] + b$$



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Assumptions

- Dichotomous targets (e.g., presence vs. absent).
- · No outliers in the data

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \overline{x})^2}$$

- assessed by converting the continuous features to standardised scores, and removing values below -3.29 or greater than 3.29.
- No high correlations (multicollinearity) among the features.
 - compute correlation matrix among all features.
 - correlation coefficients in [-0.9, 0.9] → good enough

$$r = rac{\sum \left(x_i - ar{x}
ight)\left(y_i - ar{y}
ight)}{\sqrt{\sum \left(x_i - ar{x}
ight)^2 \sum \left(y_i - ar{y}
ight)^2}}$$



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Logistic Regression

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

- Assume there is class A and class B. Default is A.
- Logistic regression is a linear method, but the predictions are transformed to a probability using the logistic function

$$p(\hat{y} \text{ is } A) = \frac{e^{w[0]*x[0]+b}}{e^{w[0]*x[0]+b}+1}$$



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Logistic Regression

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

$$p(\hat{y}) = S(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w[i] * x[i] + b)$$

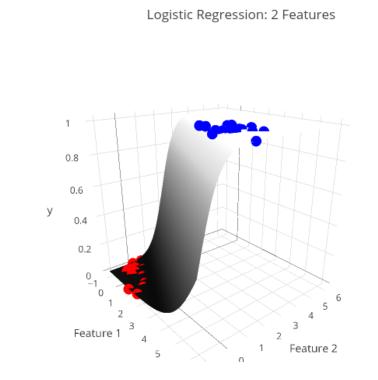
$$loss(\hat{y}) = |y_i - p(\hat{y})|$$

- Optimize to mimimize total Loss
 - Compute loss of each data

 - point in training set
 2. Sum up for whole set
 3. Adjust weights a little bit in the direction that reduce total loss
 - Repeat from 1 until no changes
- Gradient descent optimization process



The logistic function





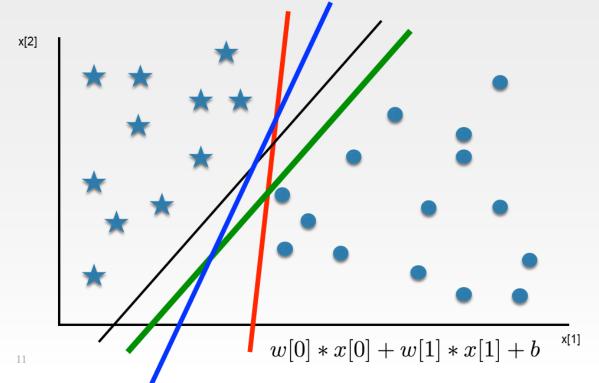


Properties of logistic regression

- L1 and L2 regularization is possible similar to linear regression
 - Add to total Loss function: $\alpha * \| \boldsymbol{w} \|_2$
 - Choice of alpha <==> choice of C since alpha = 1/C
 - large alpha/ small C => simple models
- L1 when you assume that not all your features are actually relevant
- Logistic regression is fast to train and make fast predictions. They scale to very large data sets
- Relatively easy to understand how they work → use logistic function on linear equation
- They are not transparent
 - not clear why some coefficients are high, especially if the features are highly correlated

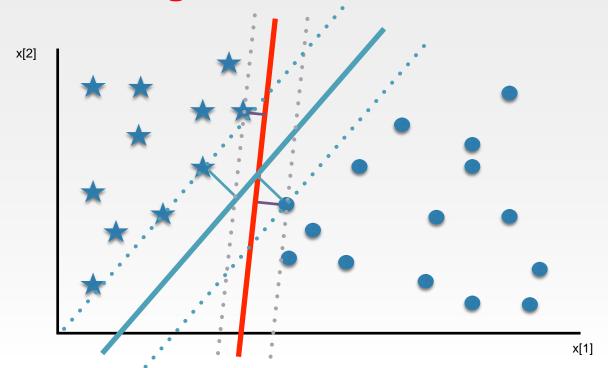


Linear Support Vector Machines (SVM)



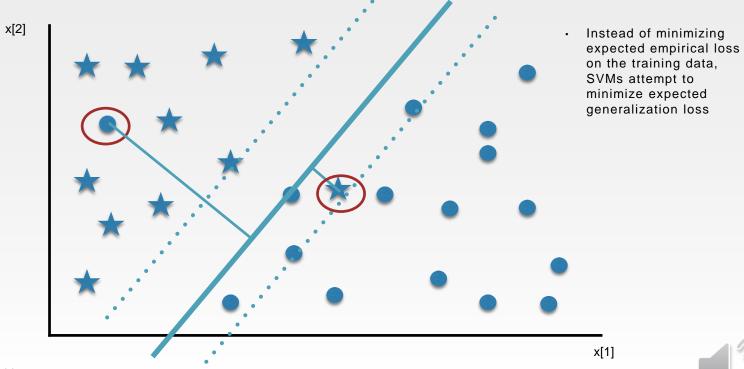


Maximal margin classifier



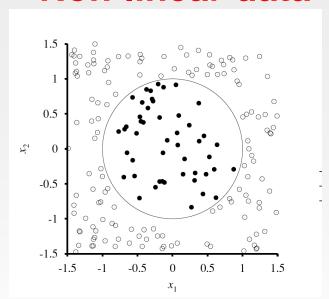


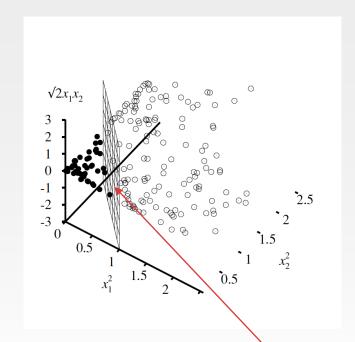
Soft margin classifier





Non-linear data



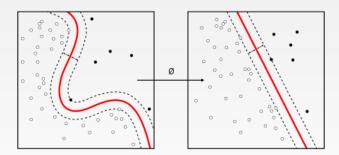


$$f_1 = x_1^2 \qquad f_2 = x_2^2 \qquad f_3 = \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2$$



Making data linearly separable

• If data are mapped into a space of sufficiently high dimension, then they will almost always be linearly separable = if you look at a set of points from enough directions, you'll find a way to make them line up.

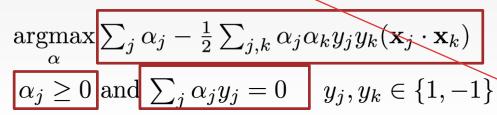


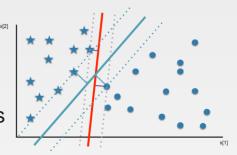
Traditionally SVMs use the convention that class labels are +1 and -1



Linearly separable data

- The separator is defined as the set of points \mathbf{x} such that $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = 0$
- Find **w** and *b* such that the resulting linear plane maximizes the margin.
 - Minimize total «hinge loss».
- Converts problem to this equation (called the dual representation) instead:





Dot product:

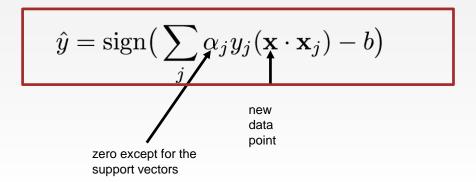
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i * b_i$$

Classification

$$\underset{\alpha_{j} \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} = 0}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j,k} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{k} y_{j} y_{k} (\mathbf{x}_{j} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{k})$$

$$\alpha_{j} \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} y_{j} = 0 \quad y_{j}, y_{k} \in \{1, -1\}$$

Once we have found alpha, we can calculate





Not linearly separable data

$$\underset{\alpha}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j,k} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{k} y_{j} y_{k} (F(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \cdot F(\mathbf{x}_{k}))$$

- F(x) is the new feature space
- The dot product can be computed without computing F
- Kernel function: $K(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_k)$

$$\underset{\alpha}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j,k} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{k} y_{j} y_{k} K(\mathbf{x}_{j}, \mathbf{x}_{k})$$



Kernel function

Classification:
$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} y_{j} K(\mathbf{x}_{j}, \mathbf{x}))$$

- The kernel is a similarity function
 The higher value the closer the vectors
- For linearly separable the kernel is the dot product itself

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i * b_i$$



Common kernel functions

Polynomial kernel:

computes all possible polynomials up to a certain degree of the original features

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^d$$

For d=2 (quadratic kernel), and two features we get

$$f_1 = x_1^2$$
 $f_2 = x_2^2$ $f_3 = \sqrt{2}x_1x_2$

Mostly used in NLP problems where using d>2 tends to lead to overfitting



Radial Basis Function

Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel = Gaussian Kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\gamma||\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'||^2) \longleftrightarrow K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = e^{(-\gamma||\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'||^2)}$$
 Euclidean distance

Parameter that controls the width of the Gaussian Kernel

The gamma parameter determines the scale of what it means for points to be close

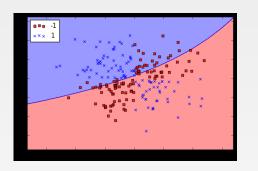


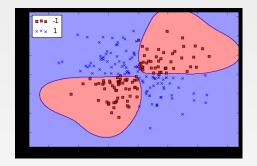
Kerneled SVC

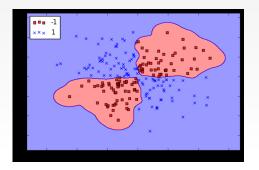
- In Python the class is called SVC Support Vector Classifier
- Gamma a small gamma means a large radius for the Radial Basis Function kernel, which means many points are considered close together (how smooth the decision boundary is)
- Two parameters gamma and C
 - Low gamma less complex hypothesis.
 - High gamma more complex hypothesis creates islands
- C controls regularisation.
 - Small C: each misclassified data point have limited influence
- Large C: each misclassified data point contributes to allow «narrower margins» between support vectors.

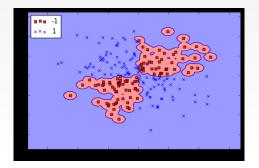


Gamma variation - 0.01, 1, 10, 100



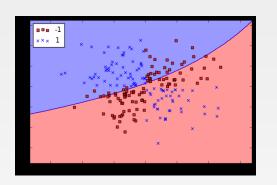


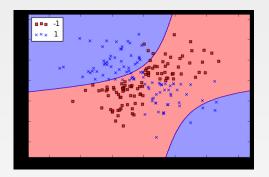


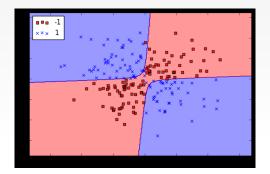


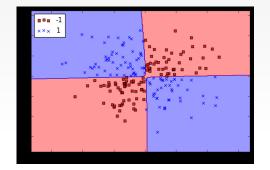


C variation - 1, 10, 1000, 10000











Properties of SVM

- Wanted requirement: all features vary on a similar scale
- For SVM to work, data may need to be preprocessed
 - Common: all features are normalised to values between 0 and 1
- SVM models work regardless of how many features there are (dimensionality of feature space does not matter)
- SVM do not scale very well with the number of samples
- SVM models are hard to inspect and it is difficult to explain why they make a particular prediction



Linear models for multi class classification

One-vs.-rest approach

- 1. Separate each class from all the rest
- 2. A binary model is learned for each class
- 3. To make a prediction, all binary classifiers are run on one point. The classifier with the highest score determines the class





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