

# Learning with invariants

Master's Thesis

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# Introduction

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- But the data may have useful statistical information...
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- **Goal:** Exploit statistical information of the training data in order to find better approximations of the goal function.

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3. Automatize the selection process of the most suitable invariants for a given problem.
4. Extend the learning paradigm to multiclass classification problems.

# Learning using statistical invariants

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2. The inner product between functions

$$R(f_1, f_2) = \langle f_1(x), f_2(x) \rangle$$

which has to satisfy the corresponding requirements.

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1. Strong convergence (convergence in metrics):

$$\lim_{I \rightarrow \infty} \|P_I(y = 1|x) - P(y = 1|x)\| = 0 \quad \forall x$$

2. Weak convergence (convergence in inner products):

$$\lim_{I \rightarrow \infty} \langle P_I(y = 1|x) - P(y = 1|x), \psi(x) \rangle = 0 \quad \forall \psi(x) \in L_2$$

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- These important properties are called **invariants**.


## The LUSI paradigm (II)

The main goal of this paradigm is to find an approximation of the conditional probability function that preserves the specified invariants. Mathematically, this can be expressed as:

$$\frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^l \psi_s(x_i) P_l(y = 1|x_i) \approx \frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^l y_i \psi_s(x_i), \quad s = 1, \dots, m$$

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The diagram illustrates the components of the equation. A blue arrow labeled "predicates" connects the  $\psi_s(x_i)$  term on the left to the  $\psi_s(x_i)$  term on the right. A red arrow labeled "prediction" points from the  $P_l(y = 1|x_i)$  term on the left to the  $y_i$  term on the right.

## The LUSI paradigm (II)

The main goal of this paradigm is to find an approximation of the conditional probability function that preserves the specified invariants. Mathematically, this can be expressed as:

$$\frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \psi_s(x_i) P_I(y = 1|x_i) \approx \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I y_i \psi_s(x_i), \quad s = 1, \dots, m$$

The diagram illustrates the LUSI paradigm equation with the following annotations:

- A blue arrow labeled "predicates" points from the  $\psi_s(x_i)$  term in the left sum to the  $\psi_s(x_i)$  term in the right sum.
- A pink arrow labeled "prediction" points from the  $P_I(y = 1|x_i)$  term in the left sum to the  $y_i$  term in the right sum.
- An orange arrow labeled "ground truth label" points from the  $y_i$  term in the right sum to the  $y_i$  term in the right sum.

# Invariant selection

The authors propose a method to select new invariants. Given a predicate  $\psi_{m+1}$ , we first evaluate the following expression:


$$\mathcal{T} = \frac{\left| \sum_{i=1}^I \psi_{m+1}(x_i) P_I^m(y = 1|x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^I y_i \psi_{m+1}(x_i) \right|}{\sum_{i=1}^I y_i \psi_{m+1}(x_i)}$$

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If  $\mathcal{T} \geq \delta$  for some small threshold  $\delta$ , then the new invariant defined by predicate  $\psi_{m+1}$  is selected. Otherwise, it is disregarded.

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- There are different types of statistical invariants:
  - Zeroth order invariant (**proportion** of positive class elements):

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- First order invariant (**mean** or **centroid** of positive class elements):

$$\psi_{f.o.}(x) = x$$

## Solving the learning problem (I)

In a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS), the estimate of the conditional probability function can be computed as

$$f(x) = A^T \mathcal{K}(x) + c$$

# Solving the learning problem (I)

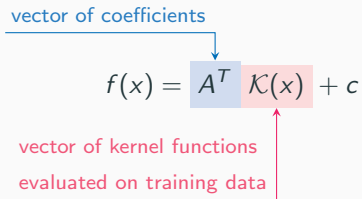
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The diagram shows the equation  $f(x) = A^T \mathcal{K}(x) + c$ . A blue line with an arrow points from the text "vector of coefficients" to the  $A^T$  term, which is enclosed in a light blue box. A red line with an arrow points from the text "vector of kernel functions evaluated on training data" to the  $\mathcal{K}(x)$  term, which is enclosed in a light red box.

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The diagram illustrates the equation  $f(x) = A^T \mathcal{K}(x) + c$  with color-coded components and labels:

- $A^T$  is in a blue box, labeled "vector of coefficients" with a blue arrow pointing to it.
- $\mathcal{K}(x)$  is in a red box, labeled "vector of kernel functions evaluated on training data" with a red arrow pointing to it.
- $c$  is in a green box, labeled "bias" with a green arrow pointing to it.

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### Note

In the most simple case, the  $V$ -matrix can be replaced with the identity matrix.

## Solving the learning problem (III)

We can formulate and solve a minimization problem subject to the invariants equality constraints that has a closed-form solution.

The coefficients vector  $A$  can be computed as

$$A = (A_V - cA_c) - \left( \sum_{s=1}^m \mu_s A_s \right)$$

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where

$$A_V = (VK + \gamma I)^{-1} VY$$

$$A_c = (VK + \gamma I)^{-1} V\mathbf{1}_l$$

$$A_s = (VK + \gamma I)^{-1} \Phi_s, \quad s = 1, \dots, m$$

## Solving the learning problem (IV)

The values of  $c$  and the  $m$  coefficients  $\mu_s$  can be obtained solving the following system of equations:

$$c[1_I^T VKA_c - 1_I^T V1_I] + \sum_{s=1}^m \mu_s [1_I^T VKA_s - 1_I^T \Phi_s] = [1_I^T VKA_V - 1_I^T VY]$$
$$c[A_c^T K\Phi_k - 1_I^T \Phi_k] + \sum_{s=1}^m \mu_s A_s^T K\Phi_k = [A_V^T K\Phi_k - Y^T \Phi_k], \quad k = 1, \dots, m$$



# Overview of the LUSI algorithm

**Step 1:** Construct an estimate of the conditional probability function without considering the predicates.

**Step 2:** Find the maximal disagreement value  $\mathcal{T}_s$  for vectors

$$\Phi_k = (\psi_k(x_1), \dots, \psi_k(x_l))^T, \quad k = 1, \dots, m$$

**Step 3:** If  $\mathcal{T}_s > \delta$ , add the invariant associated to the predicate  $\psi_s$ ; otherwise stop.

**Step 4:** Find a new approximation of the conditional probability function and go back to **Step 2**; otherwise stop.

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## Limitations

- Invariants are problem specific.
- Invariant selection can sometimes be a “black-art”.
- Invariants only consider statistical information of the positive class, hence it cannot be directly applied to multiclass classification problems.



# Proposals

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- Two new general use invariants based on random processes: **random projections** and **random hyperplanes**.
- An extension of the original algorithm to consider the negative class and all classes in multiclass classification problems using Error Correcting Output Codes (ECOC).

# Random projections (I)

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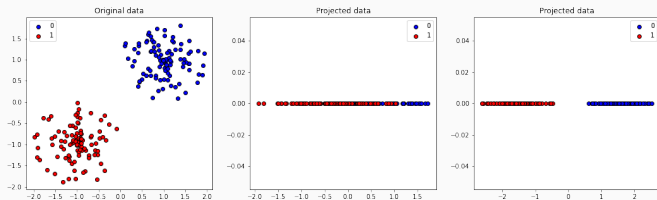


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$$\psi_{r.p.}(x) = x \underset{\substack{p \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma), \text{ projection vector} \\ \downarrow}}{p}$$

# Random projections (II)



**Figure 1:** Examples of the random projection invariant.

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*(Note: In the original image, the  $x_c$  in the denominator of the fraction is highlighted with a blue box and an arrow points to it from the label  $x_c \in X$  above.)*



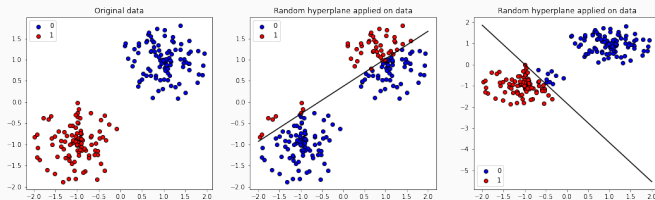
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$x_c \in X$        $n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ , normal vector

# Random hyperplanes (II)



**Figure 2:** Examples of the random hyperplane invariant.

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2. Allow the algorithm to try new invariants when no invariant is selected.
3. Limit the number of tries so that the algorithm does not end up in an infinite loop.

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- The ECOC framework is used to transform multiclass classification problems into binary ones.
- For each one of the  $N_c$  classes we create a codeword of length  $n$ . These codewords are organized as the rows of a matrix  $M \in \{0, 1\}^{N_c \times n}$  called the **coding matrix**.

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- Each column of the matrix is treated as an individual classification problem and a binary classifier is fit with the transformed data.

## Extending LUSI with ECOC (II)

	$h_1$	$h_2$	$h_3$	$h_4$	$h_5$		$h_1$	$h_2$	$h_3$	$h_4$	$h_5$
<b>C1</b>	1	0	0	0	0	<b>C1</b>	1	1	1	0	0
<b>C2</b>	0	1	0	0	0	<b>C2</b>	0	1	1	0	1
<b>C3</b>	0	0	1	0	0	<b>C3</b>	1	0	0	1	0
<b>C4</b>	0	0	0	1	0	<b>C4</b>	0	1	0	1	0
<b>C5</b>	0	0	0	0	1	<b>C5</b>	0	0	1	0	1

**Table 1:** Two examples of coding matrices. The left one represents a special coding called one-against-all.

## Extending LUSI with ECOC (III)


Let  $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))$  be the vector containing the predictions for each one of the problems. In order to obtain the final output class, we have to decode this vector, which can be done using the following expression:

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmin}_r d(M_r, f(x))$$

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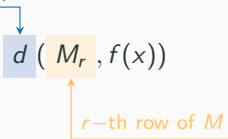
distance metric (Hamming, Euclidean, etc.)


$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmin}_r d(M_r, f(x))$$

## Extending LUSI with ECOC (III)

Let  $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))$  be the vector containing the predictions for each one of the problems. In order to obtain the final output class, we have to decode this vector, which can be done using the following expression:

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In our proposal we use a vector of predicted probabilities and the Euclidean distance.

## Experimentation and results

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Experimentation with two types of datasets with different goals in mind:

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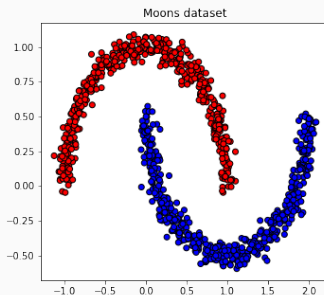
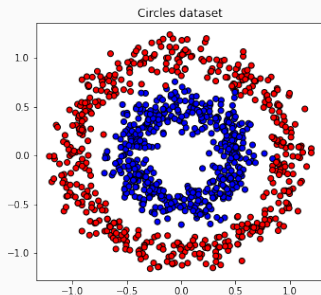
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Experimentation with two types of datasets with different goals in mind:

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  - Find interesting properties of the invariants.
- Real datasets
  - Assess the quality of the proposed invariants.

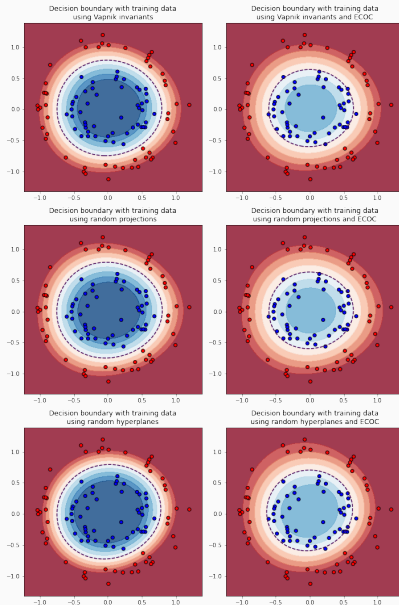
# Experimentation with toy datasets

Compare Vapnik's invariants (zeroth and first order) with random projections and random hyperplanes on the Circles and Moons datasets.

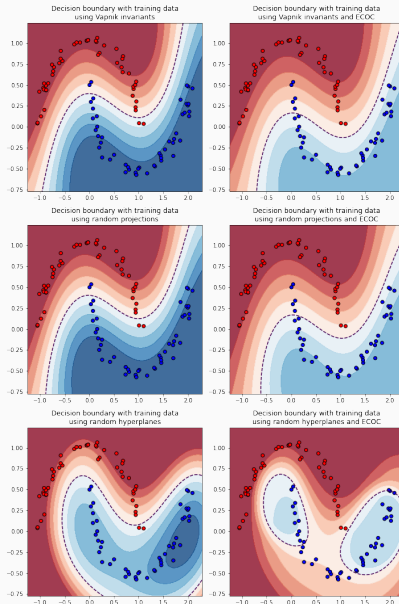




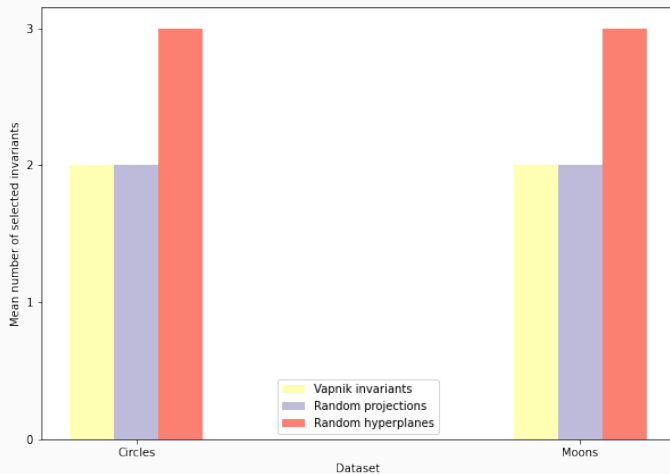
# Comparing LUSI with the ECOC version (I)



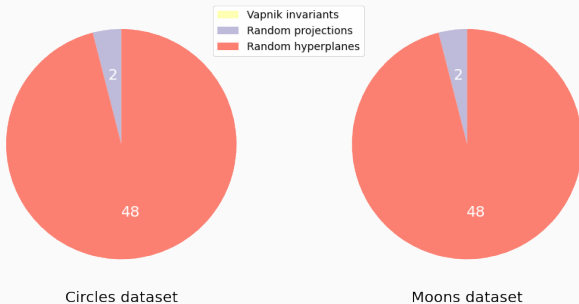
# Comparing LUSI with the ECOC version (II)



# Comparing the number of selected invariants



# Exploring the bias towards certain types of invariants



- Assess the quality of the invariants on 5 multiclass classification problems.

# Experimentation with real datasets

- Assess the quality of the invariants on 5 multiclass classification problems.
- Compare 4 models using different types of invariants: no invariants, Vapnik's invariants, random projections and random hyperplanes.

# Experimentation with real datasets

- Assess the quality of the invariants on 5 multiclass classification problems.
- Compare 4 models using different types of invariants: no invariants, Vapnik's invariants, random projections and random hyperplanes.
- Evaluate the models using different subsamples of the training data: 100%, 50% and 10% of the training partition.

## Selected datasets

Problem	Num. examples	Attributes	Classes
Balance Scale	625	4	3
Ecoli	336	8	8
Glass	214	9	6
Iris	150	4	3
Yeast	1484	8	10



# Results

Dataset	Baseline model	Vapnik invariants	Random projections	Random hyperplanes
Balance Scale	91.47 $\pm$ 0.38%	91.47 $\pm$ 0.38%	<b>91.73 <math>\pm</math> 0.38%</b>	90.13 $\pm$ 1.51%
Ecoli	85.29 $\pm$ 2.08%	<b>85.29 <math>\pm</math> 1.20%</b>	84.15 $\pm$ 2.05%	75.98 $\pm$ 6.28%
Glass	<b>72.87 <math>\pm</math> 7.91%</b>	<b>72.87 <math>\pm</math> 7.91%</b>	72.09 $\pm$ 7.44%	71.06 $\pm$ 7.60%
Iris	<b>96.67 <math>\pm</math> 0.00%</b>	95.56 $\pm$ 1.57%	95.19 $\pm$ 1.66%	88.52 $\pm$ 11.56%
Yeast	53.76 $\pm$ 1.04%	<b>53.87 <math>\pm</math> 1.20%</b>	52.53 $\pm$ 5.44%	50.39 $\pm$ 5.33%

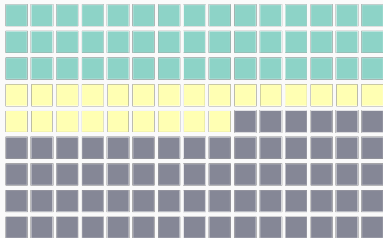
**Table 2:** Results using 100% of the training data.

Dataset	Baseline model	Vapnik invariants	Random projections	Random hyperplanes
Balance Scale	<b>88.80 <math>\pm</math> 1.73%</b>	87.73 $\pm$ 2.10%	83.73 $\pm$ 7.17%	76.00 $\pm$ 12.77%
Ecoli	71.57 $\pm$ 1.39%	<b>72.55 <math>\pm</math> 4.22%</b>	67.32 $\pm$ 4.03%	63.89 $\pm$ 9.61%
Glass	<b>56.59 <math>\pm</math> 4.78%</b>	45.74 $\pm$ 6.67%	52.45 $\pm$ 7.03%	45.48 $\pm$ 9.50%
Iris	<b>93.33 <math>\pm</math> 2.72%</b>	90.00 $\pm$ 4.71%	77.78 $\pm$ 22.93%	84.81 $\pm$ 9.04%
Yeast	<b>47.92 <math>\pm</math> 2.08%</b>	47.92 $\pm$ 2.14%	45.68 $\pm$ 4.60%	37.82 $\pm$ 7.92%

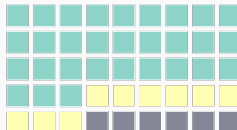
**Table 3:** Results using a subsample of 10% of the training data.

# Comparing the invariants on individual problems (I)

Performance considering all experiments

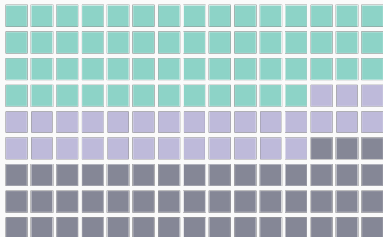


Performance considering experiments with 10% of training data

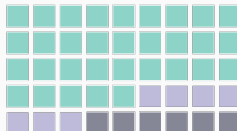


Result  
Baseline  
Vapnik  
Ties

Performance considering all experiments



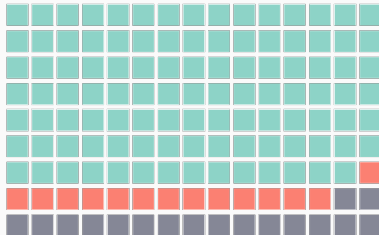
Performance considering experiments with 10% of training data



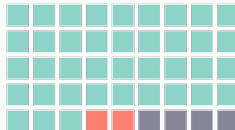
Result  
Baseline  
Random projections  
Ties

# Comparing the invariants on individual problems (II)

Performance considering all experiments



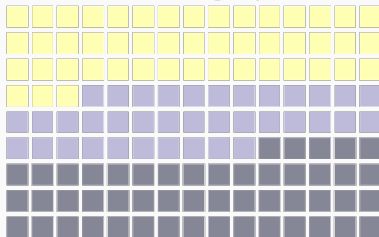
Performance considering experiments with 10% of training data



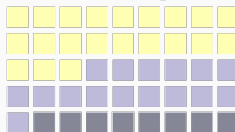
Result

■ Baseline  
■ Random hyperplanes  
■ Ties

Performance considering all experiments



Performance considering experiments with 10% of training data

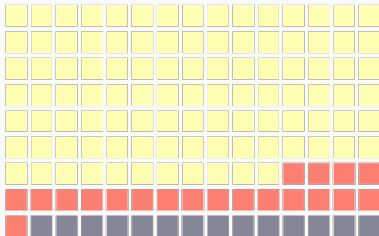


Result

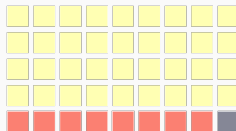
■ Vapnik  
■ Random projections  
■ Ties

# Comparing the invariants on individual problems (III)

Performance considering all experiments



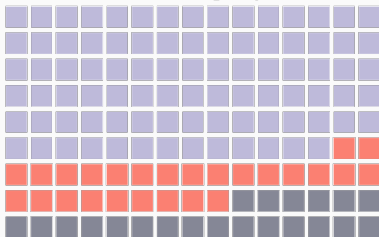
Performance considering experiments with 10% of training data



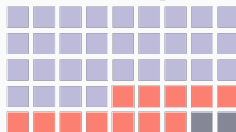
Result

- Yellow: Vapnik
- Red: Random hyperplanes
- Dark grey: Ties

Performance considering all experiments



Performance considering experiments with 10% of training data



Result

- Light purple: Random projections
- Red: Random hyperplanes
- Dark grey: Ties

# Conclusions

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  - Random projections are slightly worse than Vapnik's invariants.
  - Random hyperplanes are outperformed by all the other types of invariants.
- ✗ Automatized the selection process of the most suitable invariants for a given problem.
- ✓ Extend the learning paradigm to multiclass classification problems.
  - Created a small software module containing the different invariants and both the original and ECOC version of LUSI.

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- Improve random projections by constructing an orthogonal space from random vectors.

**Thank you for your attention!**

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**Questions?**