MSc Big Data for Business - *MAP 534* Introduction to supervised learning

Supervised classification $Linear/Quadratic \ discriminant \ analysis \ (LDA/QDA) \ \& \ Support \ Vector \ Machines \ (SVM)$

Outline

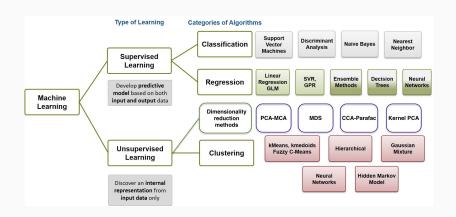
Unsupervised learning

- Dimensionality reduction methods (PCA).
- Clustering (*k*-means, Hierarchical clustering).
- Handling missing values/ matrix completion.
 - ⇒ Data visualization exploratory data analysis.

Supervised learning

- Theoritical framework Bayes risk.
- Logistic regression.
- Optimization.
- Nonparametric methods.

Machine Learning



Unsupervised and Supervised

Unsupervised Learning

- Goal: Discover a structure within a set of individuals (X_i) .
- Data: Learning set (X_i)

Supervised Learning:

- ullet Goal: Learn a function f predicting a variable Y from an individual ${\bf X}$.
- Data: Learning set (X_i, Y_i)

Second case is better posed.

Outline

Introduction

Statistical Supervised Learning

Parametric models

Linear/quadratic discriminant analysis

Support Vector Machine

Plan

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Machine Learning everywhere

Use data to extract a prediction function

Search engine, text-mining.

Diagnosis, Fault detection.

Business analytics.

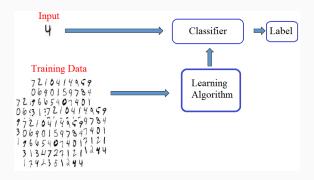
Social network analytics.

Data-mining.

Link prediction.

Robotics.

A definition of Machine Learning



A definition by Tom Mitchell (http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~tom/)

A computer program is said to learn from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and performance measure P, if its performance at tasks in T , as measured by P, improves with experience E.

A robot that learns

A robot endowed with a set of sensors and an online learning algorithm:

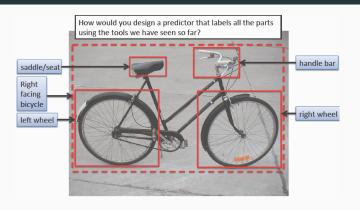


Task: play football.

Performance: score.

Experience: current environment and outcome, past games...

Object recognition in an image

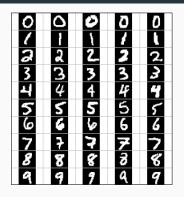


Task: say if an object is present or not in the image.

Performance: number of errors.

Experience: set of previously seen labeled image.

Number



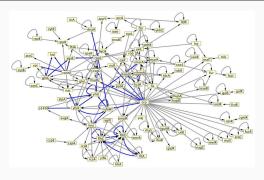
Task: Read a ZIP code from an envelop.

Goal: give a number from an image.

 $\boldsymbol{X} = \mathsf{image}.$

Y =corresponding number.

Applications in biology



Task: protein interaction network prediction.

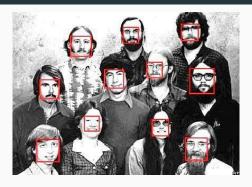
Goal: predict (unknown) interactions between proteins.

 $\mathbf{X} = \mathsf{pair} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{proteins}.$

Y = existence or no of interaction.

Numerous similar questions in bio(informatics), genomic, etc.

Detection



Goal: detect the position of faces in an image.

Different setting?... Reformulation as a supervised learning problem.

 $\mathbf{X} = \mathsf{sub}$ window in the image

Y =presence or no of a face...

Lots of answer in a single image. Post processing required...

Supervised learning methods

Support Vector Machine

Linear Discriminant Analysis

Logistic Regression

Trees/ Random Forests

Kernel methods

Neural Networks

Many more...

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Supervised Learning

Supervised Learning Framework

Input measurement $\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{X}$ (often $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$).

Output measurement $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$.

The joint distribution of (X, Y) is p with p unknown.

Training data :
$$\mathcal{D}_n = \{(\mathbf{X}_1, Y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{X}_n, Y_n)\}$$
 (i.i.d. $\sim p$).

$$Y \in \{-1,1\}$$
 (classification) or $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ (regression).

A predictor is a measurable function in $\mathcal{F} = \{f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}\}.$

Goal

Construct a good predictor \widehat{f}_n from the training data.

Need to specify the meaning of good.

Loss and Probabilistic Framework

Loss function for a generic predictor

- Loss function: $\ell(Y, f(X))$ measures the goodness of the prediction of Y by f(X).
- Examples:
 - Prediction loss: $\ell(Y, f(X)) = \mathbf{1}_{Y \neq f(X)}$.
 - Quadratic loss: $\ell(Y, \mathbf{X}) = |Y f(\mathbf{X})|^2$.

Risk function

Risk measured as the average loss for a new couple:

$$\mathcal{R}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y)\sim p} \left[\ell(Y, f(\mathbf{X}))\right].$$

- Examples:

 - Prediction loss: $\mathbb{E}\left[\ell(Y, f(\mathbf{X}))\right] = \mathbb{P}\left\{Y \neq f(\mathbf{X})\right\}$. Quadratic loss: $\mathbb{E}\left[\ell(Y, f(\mathbf{X}))\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[|Y f(\mathbf{X})|^2\right]$.
- Beware: As \widehat{f}_n depends on \mathcal{D}_n , $\mathcal{R}(\widehat{f}_n)$ is a random variable!

The best solution f^* (which is independent of \mathcal{D}_n) is

$$f^* = \arg\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} R(f) = \arg\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}\left[\ell(Y, f(\mathbf{X}))\right] \,.$$

Bayes Predictor (explicit solution)

In binary classification with 0-1 loss:

$$f^*(\mathbf{X}) = egin{cases} +1 & ext{if} & \mathbb{P}\left\{Y=1|\mathbf{X}
ight\} \geq \mathbb{P}\left\{Y=-1|\mathbf{X}
ight\} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left\{Y=1|\mathbf{X}
ight\} \geq 1/2\,, \\ -1 & ext{otherwise}\,. \end{cases}$$

In regression with the quadratic loss

$$f^*(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{X}].$$

Issue: the explicit solution requires to know $\mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ for all values of X!

Plugin Classifier

Estimate $\eta(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}[Y=1|\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{x}]$ by $\widehat{\eta}_n(\mathbf{x})$ using the training dataset and plug it the Bayes classifier.

Plugin Bayes Classifier

In binary classification with 0-1 loss:

$$\widehat{f}_n(\mathbf{X}) = egin{cases} +1 & ext{if} \quad \widehat{\eta}_n(\mathbf{x}) \geq 1/2\,, \ -1 & ext{otherwise}\,. \end{cases}$$

Plugin Classifier

Input: a data set \mathcal{D}_n .

Learn $Y|\mathbf{X}$ or equivalently $\mathbb{P}\left\{Y=k|\mathbf{X}\right\}$ (using the data set) and plug this estimate in the Bayes classifier.

Output: a classifier $\widehat{f}_n : \mathbb{R}^d \to \{-1, 1\}$

$$\widehat{f}_n(\mathbf{X}) = egin{cases} +1 & ext{if } \widehat{\eta}_n(\mathbf{X}) \geq 1/2\,, \ -1 & ext{otherwise}\,. \end{cases}$$

Can we certify that the classifier is good if Y|X is well estimated?

Classification Risk Analysis

The missclassification error satisfies:

$$0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\widehat{f}_n(\mathbf{X}) \neq Y) - L^{\star} \leq 2\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\eta(\mathbf{X}) - \widehat{\eta}_n(\mathbf{X})\right|^2\right]^{1/2}\,,$$

where

$$L^{\star} = \mathbb{P}[f^{\star}(\mathbf{X}) \neq Y]$$

and $\widehat{\eta}_n(\mathbf{x})$ is an empirical estimate based on the training dataset of

$$\eta(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}[Y = 1 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$$
.

Instantiation: how to estimate Y|X?

Fully generative modeling.

Estimate the law of (X, Y) and use the **Bayes formula** to deduce an estimate of Y|X: LDA/QDA, Naive Bayes, Gaussian Processes...

Parametric conditional modeling.

Estimate the law of $Y|\mathbf{X}$ by a **parametric** law $\mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\mathbf{X})$: *linear regression, logistic regression...*

Nonparametric conditional modeling.

Estimate the law of Y|X by a **non parametric** estimate: *kernel methods, nearest neighbors...*

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Fully Generative Modeling

If the law of (X, Y) is known everything can be easy!

Bayes formula

With a slight abuse of notation,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{Y|\mathbf{X}\right\} = \frac{\mathbb{P}\left\{\left(\mathbf{X},Y\right)\right\}}{\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{X}\right\}} = \frac{\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{X}|Y\right\}\mathbb{P}\left\{Y\right\}}{\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{X}\right\}}$$

Generative Modeling

Propose a model for (X, Y) (or equivalently X|Y and Y).

Estimate it as a density estimation problem.

Plug the estimate in the Bayes formula.

Plug the conditional estimate in the Bayes classifier.

Remark: require to estimate (X, Y) rather than only Y|X!

Great flexibility in the model design but may lead to complex computation.

Fully Generative Modeling

Simplest setting in classification!

Bayes formula

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{Y=k|\mathbf{X}\right\} = \frac{\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{X}|Y=k\right\}\mathbb{P}\left\{Y=k\right\}}{\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{X}\right\}}.$$

Binary Bayes classifier (the best solution).

$$f^*(\mathbf{X}) = egin{cases} +1 & ext{if } \mathbb{P}\left\{Y=1|\mathbf{X}
ight\} \geq \mathbb{P}\left\{Y=-1|\mathbf{X}
ight\}, \\ -1 & ext{otherwise} \ . \end{cases}$$

Heuristic: estimate those quantities and plug the estimations. Choosing different models/estimators for $\mathbb{P}\left\{\mathbf{X}|Y\right\}$ leads to different classifiers.

Remark: no need to renormalize by $\mathbb{P}\{X\}$ to take the decision!

Naive Bayes

Naive Bayes

Classical algorithm using a crude modeling for $\mathbb{P}\{X|Y\}$:

• Feature independence assumption:

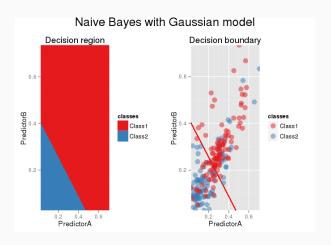
$$\mathbb{P}\left\{ \mathbf{X}|Y\right\} = \prod_{i=1}^{d} \mathbb{P}\left\{ X^{(i)}|Y\right\} \,.$$

 Simple featurewise model: binomial if binary, multinomial if finite and Gaussian if continuous.

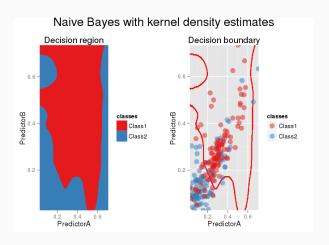
If all features are continuous, similar to the previous Gaussian but with a diagonal covariance matrix!

Very simple learning even in very high dimension!

Example: Naive Bayes



Example: Naive Bayes



Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant Analysis (Gaussian model)

The densities are modeled as multivariate normal, i.e., for all class k, conditionnally on $\{Y = k\}$,

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \mathbf{\Sigma}_k)$$
.

Discriminant functions:

$$g_k(\mathbf{X}) = \ln(\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{X}|Y=k\}) + \ln(\mathbb{P}\{Y=k\}).$$

In a two-classes problem, the optimal classifier is

$$f^*: x \mapsto 2\mathbb{1}\{g_1(x) > g_{-1}(x)\} - 1.$$

QDA (differents Σ_k in each class) and LDA ($\Sigma_k = \Sigma$ for all k)

Beware: this model can be false but the methodology remains valid!

Discriminant Analysis

Estimation

In practice, we will need to estimate μ_k , Σ_k and $\pi_k := \mathbb{P} \{ Y = k \}$.

Estimated proportions $\widehat{\pi}_k = \frac{n_k}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{\{Y_i = k\}}$.

Maximum likelihood estimate of $\widehat{\mu_k}$ and $\widehat{\Sigma_k}$ (explicit formulas).

The DA classifier then becomes

$$\widehat{f}_{G}(\mathbf{X}) = egin{cases} +1 & ext{if } \widehat{g}_{+1}(\mathbf{X}) \geq \widehat{g}_{-1}(\mathbf{X}) \,, \ -1 & ext{otherwise} \,. \end{cases}$$

If $\Sigma_{-1} = \Sigma_1 = \Sigma$ then the decision boundary is an affine hyperplane.

The loglikelihood of the observations is given by

$$\begin{split} \log \mathbb{P}_{\theta} \left(X_{1:n}, Y_{1:n} \right) &= \sum_{i=1} \log \mathbb{P}_{\theta} \left(X_{i}, Y_{i} \right), \\ &= -\frac{nd}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \log \det(\Sigma) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i}=1} \right) \log \pi_{1} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i}=-1} \right) \log(1 - \pi_{1}) \\ &- \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i}=1} \left(X_{i} - \mu_{1} \right)' \Sigma^{-1} \left(X_{i} - \mu_{1} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i}=-1} \left(X_{i} - \mu_{-1} \right)' \Sigma^{-1} \left(X_{i} - \mu_{-1} \right). \end{split}$$

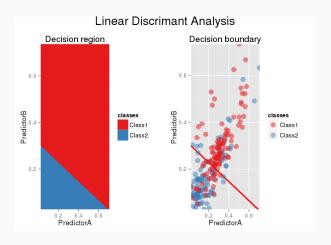
This yields, for
$$k \in \{-1, 1\}$$
,
$$\widehat{\pi}_k^n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{Y_i = k} ,$$

$$\widehat{\mu}_k^n = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{Y_i = k}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{Y_i = k} X_i ,$$

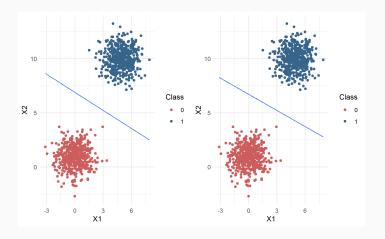
$$\widehat{\Sigma}^n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(X_i - \widehat{\mu}_{Y_i}^n \right) \left(X_i - \widehat{\mu}_{Y_i}^n \right)' .$$

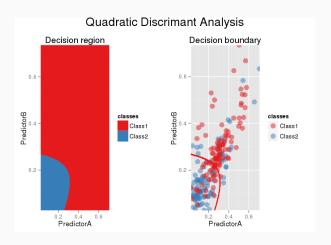
Remains to plug these estimates in the classification boundary.

Example: LDA

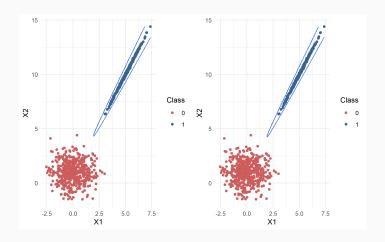


Example: LDA





Example: QDA



Packages

Function svm in package e1071.

Function 1da and qda in package MASS.

Function naive_bayes in package naivebayes.

Plan

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Classification

Setting

You have past/historical data from your platform, containing data about individuals i = 1, ..., n.

You have a **features** vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for each individual *i*.

For each i, you know if he/she clicked $(y_i = 1)$ or not $(y_i = -1)$.

We call $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ the **label** of i.

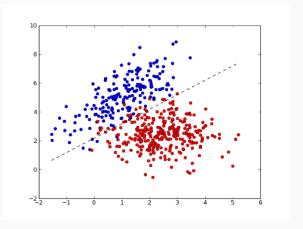
Aim

Given a features vector \mathbf{x} (with no corresponding label), predict a label $\hat{y} \in \{-1,1\}.$

Use data $\mathcal{D}_n = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$ to construct a **classifier**.

Classification

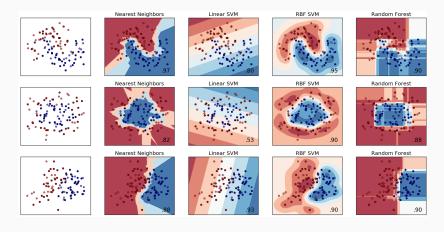
Geometrically



Learn a way to separate two "groups" of points

Classification

But, many ways to separate points!



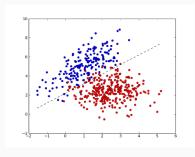
Linear classification

Simple to interpret and to implement.

On very large datasets (n is large, say $n \ge 10^6$), no other choice (training complexity).

Big data paradigm: lots of data \Rightarrow simple methods are enough.

A linear classifier

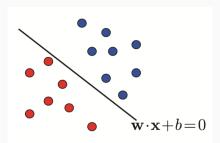


 $\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Learn} \ \hat{\mathbf{w}} \in \mathbb{R}^d \ \mathsf{and} \ \hat{b} \ \mathsf{such} \ \mathsf{that} \\ \hat{y} = \mathsf{sign}(\langle \mathsf{x}, \hat{\mathbf{w}} \rangle + \hat{b}) \\ \mathsf{is} \ \mathsf{a} \ \mathsf{good} \ \mathsf{classifier} \end{array}$

Linearly separable data

A dataset is **linearly separable** if we can find an hyperplane H (linear classification rule) that puts

- Points $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $y_i = 1$ on one side of the hyperplane
- Points $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $y_i = -1$ on the other
- H do not pass through a point x_i



Some geometry

A hyperplane

$$H_{\mathbf{w},\mathbf{x}} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = 0\}$$

is a translation of a set of vectors orthogonal to \mathbf{w} .

- $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a non-zero vector normal to the hyperplane.
- $b \in \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar.

Following for instance the results obtained for linear discriminant analysis and logistic regression, a hyperplane $H_{w,b}$ may be used as a classifier by defining

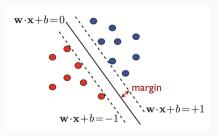
$$h_{\mathbf{w},b}: \mathbf{x} \mapsto \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & ext{if } \langle \mathbf{w}\,;\,\mathbf{x}
angle + b > 0\,, \ -1 & ext{otherwise}\,. \end{array}
ight.$$

Some geometry

Definition of H is invariant by multiplication of \mathbf{w} and b by a non-zero scalar

If H does not pass through any sample point x_i , we can scale w and b so that

$$\min_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{D}_n} |\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b| = 1$$



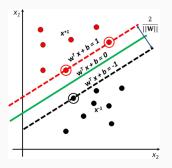
For such \mathbf{w} and b, we call H the canonical hyperplane

Some geometry

The distance of any point $\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to H is given by $\frac{|\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle + b|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$

So, if H is a canonical hyperplane, its margin is given by

$$\min_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{D}_n} \frac{|\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$



Linear separability and margin

Summary

If \mathcal{D}_n is strictly linearly separable, we can find a canonical separating hyperplane

$$H = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = 0 \}.$$

that satisfies

$$|\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b| \geq 1$$
 for any $i = 1, \ldots, n$,

which entails that a point x_i is correctly classified if

$$y_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) \geq 1.$$

The margin of H is equal to $1/\|\mathbf{w}\|$.

Hard Support Vector Machines is a classification procedure which aims at building a linear classifier with the largest possible margin, i.e. the largest minimal distance between a point in the training set and the hyperplane.

The hyperplane which correctly separates all training data sets with the largest margin is obtained with:

$$\left(\widehat{w}_n, \widehat{b}_n\right) \in \underset{\substack{(w,b) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d : \|w\| = 1, \\ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \ Y_i(\langle w; X_i \rangle + b) > 0}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left\{ \underset{1 \leqslant i \leqslant n}{\min} \ \left| \langle w; X_i \rangle + b \right| \right\}.$$

The **hard Support Vector Machines** procedure is equivalent to solving the following optimization problem:

$$\left(\widehat{w}_{n}, \widehat{b}_{n}\right) \in \underset{(w,b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R}; \|w\|=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left\{ \underset{1 \leqslant i \leqslant n}{\min} \, Y_{i}\left(\langle w \, ; \, X_{i} \rangle + b\right) \right\} \,,$$

A solution to the hard Support Vector Machines optimization problem is obtained by setting $(\widehat{w}_n, \widehat{b}_n) = (w_\star / \|w_\star\|, b_\star / \|w_\star\|)$ where

$$(w_{\star}, b_{\star}) \in \underset{(w,b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R} \\ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \ Y_{i}(\langle w; X_{i} \rangle + b) \geqslant 1 }{(w,b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R}}$$

A way of classifying \mathcal{D}_n with maximum margin is to solve the following problem:

$$(w_{\star}, b_{\star}) \in \underset{(w,b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|w\|^{2}.$$

 $\forall i \in \{1,...,n\}, Y_{i}(\langle w; X_{i} \rangle + b) \geqslant 1$

This problem admits a unique solution

It is a quadratic programming problem, which is easy to solve numerically.

Dedicated optimization algorithms can solve this on a large scale very efficiently.

The optimization problem is solved using Karush-Kuhn-Tucker's theorem).

There are $\alpha_i \geq 0$, i = 1, ..., n, called dual variables, such that the solution (\mathbf{w}, b) of this problem satisfies:

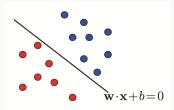
$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$
 and $\alpha_i ((y_i \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) - 1) = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

 $\alpha_i \neq 0$ iff $y_i \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b = 1$, meaning that \mathbf{x}_i is on the marginal hyperplane.

Weights vector \mathbf{w} is a linear combination of the vectors \mathbf{x}_i that belong to a marginal hyperplane.

Such points x_i are called **support vectors**.

Have you ever seen a dataset that looks that this?



Restricting the problem to linearly separable training data sets is a somehow strong assumption.

Inequality constraints in the quadratic optimization problem can be relaxed.

Introduction of nonnegative variables $(\xi_i)_{1\leqslant i\leqslant n}$ which quantify the nonfeasability of the constraint $y_i(\langle \mathbf{w} ; \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \geqslant 1$.

$$y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \geqslant 1 - \xi_i$$
.

Replace the constraint

$$y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \ge 1$$
 for all $i = 1, \dots, n$,

which is too strong by the relaxed one

$$y_i(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b) \ge 1 - s_i$$
 for all $i = 1, \dots, n$,

for slack variables $s_1, \ldots, s_n \geq 0$.

The original problem is then replaced by

$$(w_{\star}, b_{\star}, \xi_{\star}) \in \underset{\substack{(w, b, \xi) \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{d}_{+} \\ \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \ Y_{i}(\langle w; X_{i} \rangle + b) \geqslant 1 - \xi_{i}}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \lambda \|w\|^{2} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} \right\} ,$$

where $\lambda > 0$.

The **soft Support Vector Machines** algorithm simultaneously the margin of the linear classifier and the average value of these slack variables

Note that, if (w_{\star}, b_{\star}) is solution to

$$(w_{\star}, b_{\star}) \in \operatorname*{argmin}_{(w,b) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}} \left\{ \lambda \|w\|^2 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - Y_i (\langle w; X_i \rangle + b))_+ \right\},$$

then $(w_\star/\|w_\star\|,b_\star,\xi_\star/\|w_\star\|)$ is solution to the soft SVM problem.

The soft SVM problem boils down to computing:

$$(w_{\star}, b_{\star}, \xi_{\star}) \in \underset{(w, b, \xi) \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{d}_{+}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \lambda \|w\|^{2} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i} \right\},$$

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, Y_{i}(\langle w; X_{i} \rangle + b) \geqslant 1 - \xi_{i}$$

where $\lambda > 0$.

This problem admits a unique solution.

It is a quadratic programming problem, which is easy to solve numerically.

Dedicated optimization algorithms can solve this on a large scale very efficiently.

The hinge loss

This problem can be reformulated as follows

$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \max \Big(0, 1 - y_i \big(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b\big) \Big),$$

or even better, by introducing the hinge loss

$$\ell(y, y') = \max(0, 1 - yy') = (1 - yy')_+,$$

the problem can be written as

$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b).$$

We'll see later more loss functions ℓ and explain the general setting hidden behind this.

Introduction to nonparametric classification

The joint law of (X, Y) is not assumed to belong to any parametric or semiparametric family of models.

The classification risk **cannot be computed nor minimized**, it is instead estimated by the empirical classification risk defined as

$$\widehat{L}_{\mathrm{miss}}^{n}(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i} \neq f(\mathbf{X}_{i})},$$

where $(X_i, Y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ are independent with the same distribution as (X, Y).

The classification problem then boils down to solving

$$\widehat{f}^n \in \operatorname{argmin} \widehat{L}^n_{\operatorname{miss}}(f)$$
,

for a chosen class $\mathcal F$ of classifiers.

Introduction to nonparametric classification

Nonparametric classification based on the empirical risk minimization may seem appealing

It cannot be used to derive efficient practical classifiers due to the computational cost of the optimization problem.

The target loss function \widehat{L}_{miss}^n is replaced by a convex surrogate and its minimization is constrained to a convex set of classifiers.

For any convex function $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, it is possible to build a classifier f given by $f_{\phi} = \operatorname{sign}(\phi)$. The associated empirical classification is then

$$\widehat{L}_{\mathrm{miss}}^{n}(\phi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i} \neq f_{\phi}(X_{i})} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{Y_{i} \phi(X_{i}) < 0}.$$

Introduction to nonparametric classification

Replacing the indicator function by any convex loss funtion ℓ yields a convex surrogate:

$$\widehat{L}_{\mathrm{miss}}^{n,\mathrm{conv}}(\phi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(Y_i \phi(X_i)).$$

Penalizing the smoothness of the function ϕ is penalized, $\widehat{L}_{miss}^{n,conv}$ may be replaced by

$$\widehat{L}_{\mathrm{miss}}^{n,\mathrm{conv}}(\phi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(Y_i \phi(X_i)) + \lambda \|\phi\|^2,$$

where $\lambda > 0$ and $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on the space \mathcal{H} .

The soft Support Vector Machines algorithm fits this framework with the affine base function $\phi: \mathbf{x} \mapsto \langle \mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x} \rangle + b$ and ℓ chosen as the hinge loss $\ell: \mathbf{x} \mapsto (1-\mathbf{x})_+$ when the target function is penalized by its margin $\|\mathbf{w}\|^2$.

Kernel trick

A useful case in practice consists in choosing \mathcal{H} as a **Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space** with positive definite kernel k on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$.

A function k on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$ is said to be a **positive definite kernel** if and only if it is symmetric and if for all $n \ge 1$, $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}^n$ and all $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\sum_{1\leqslant i,j\leqslant n}a_ia_jk(x_i,x_j)\geqslant 0.$$

The Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space with kernel k is the only Hilbert space $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ such that for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $k(x,\cdot) \in \mathcal{H}$ and for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $f \in \mathcal{H}$, $f(x) = \langle f \, ; \, k(x,\cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$.

Kernel trick

 $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} : \to \mathbb{R}$ a positive definite kernel and \mathcal{H} the RKHS with kernel k.

$$\widehat{\phi}_{\mathcal{H}}^n \in \underset{\phi \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(Y_i \phi(X_i)) + \lambda \|\phi\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2,$$

where $\|\phi\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 = \langle \phi; \phi \rangle$, is given by

$$\widehat{\phi}_{\mathcal{H}}^n: x \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{\alpha}_i k(X_i, x),$$

with

$$\widehat{\alpha} \in \operatorname*{argmin}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j Y_i k(X_j, X_i) \right) + \lambda \sum_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n} \alpha_i \alpha_j k(X_i, X_j) \right\} \ .$$