



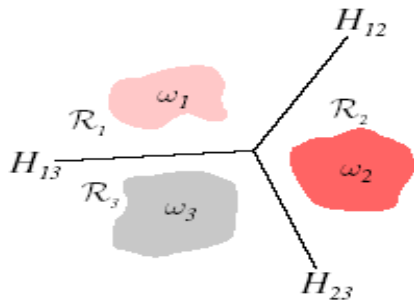
Elements of Linear Discriminant Functions

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Introduction

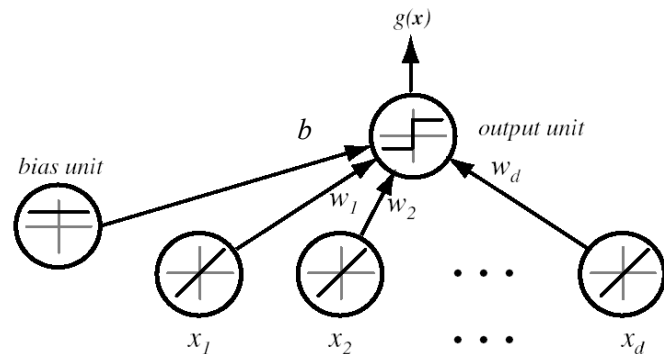
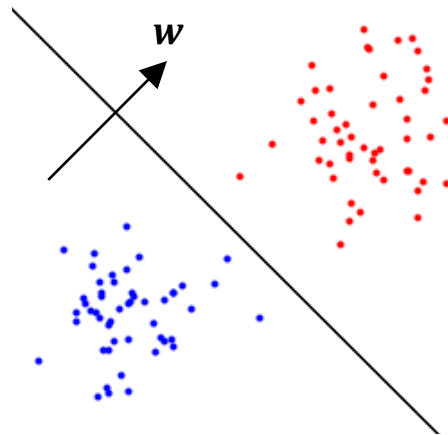
- We assume here that the form of the discriminant functions $f_k(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $k = 1, \dots, K$ is given, and that we can use the training data to estimate their parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
 - In Part 4, instead, we assumed that the underlying probability densities were known
- These methods are known as *nonparametric*
 - No assumption on the form of the underlying data probability distributions is made
- We focus here on functions that are *linear* in \mathbf{x} , i.e., $f(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$, with $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\mathbf{w}, b)$



**Example of linear discriminant functions
on a 3-class classification problem**

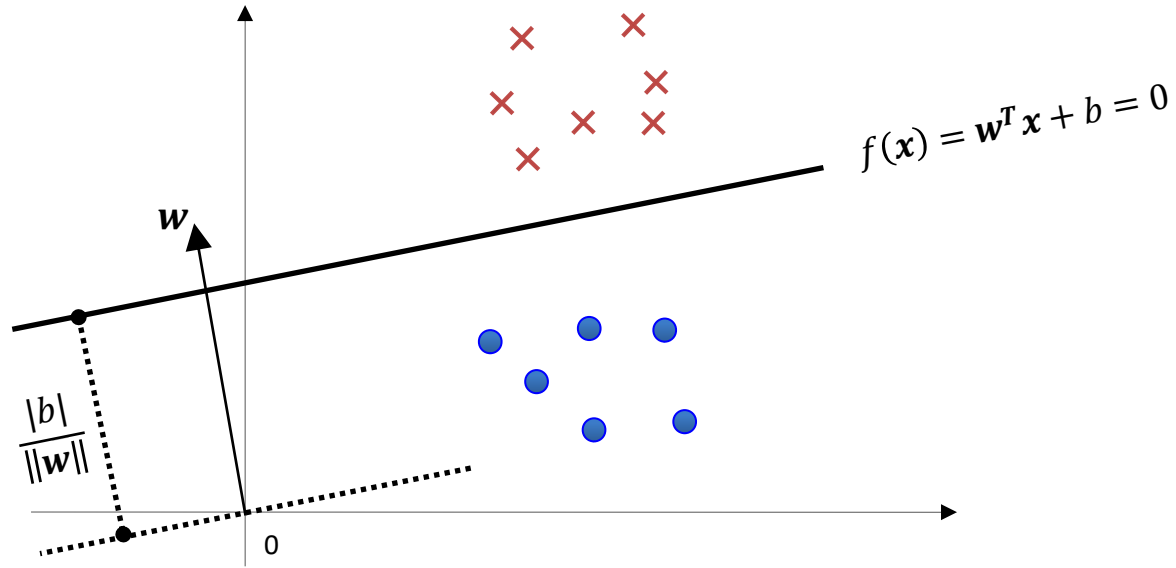
Linear Discriminant Functions

- **Linear function:** $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_j + b$
 - \mathbf{w} is the weight vector, and b the bias
- Two-class classification
 - Positive ($y = +1$) vs negative ($y = -1$) class
 - Decision rule: $y = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- **Graphical representation**
 - Each input feature value x_j is multiplied by the corresponding weight value w_j
 - Bias is multiplied by 1
 - The output unit sums all its inputs, computing $f(\mathbf{x})$ and thresholds it to estimate y (+1 or -1)



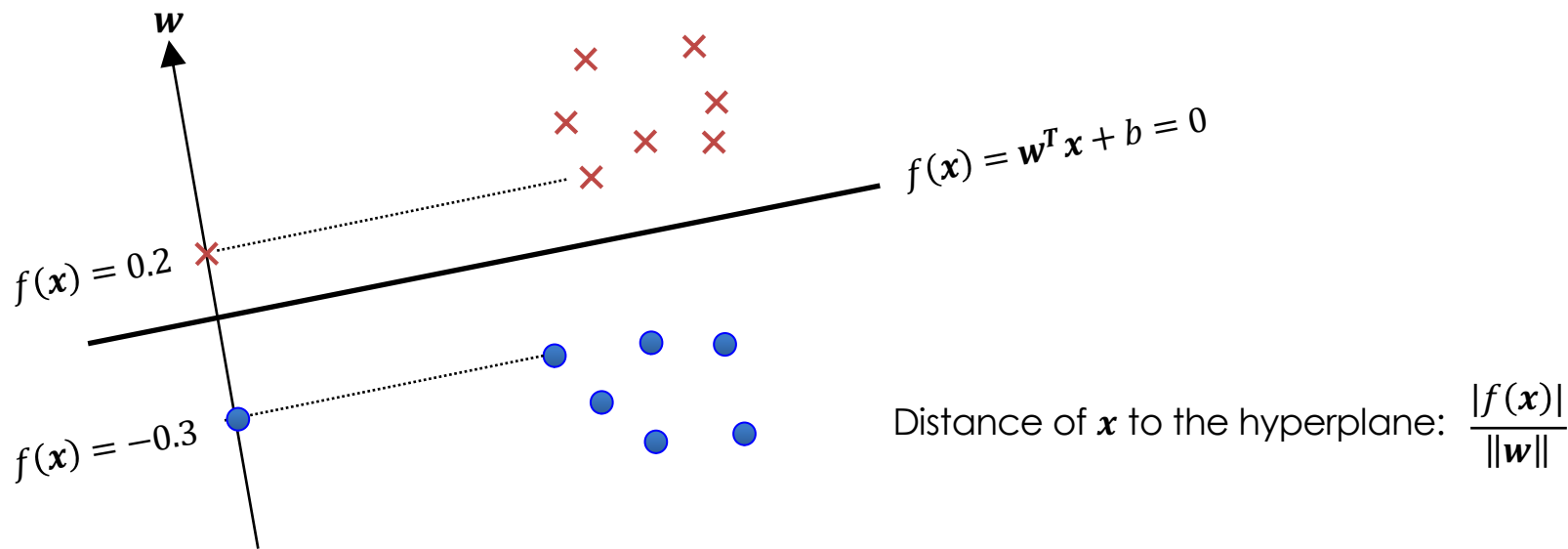
Linear Discriminant Functions

$$D = \{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$$
$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
$$y \in \{-1, +1\}$$

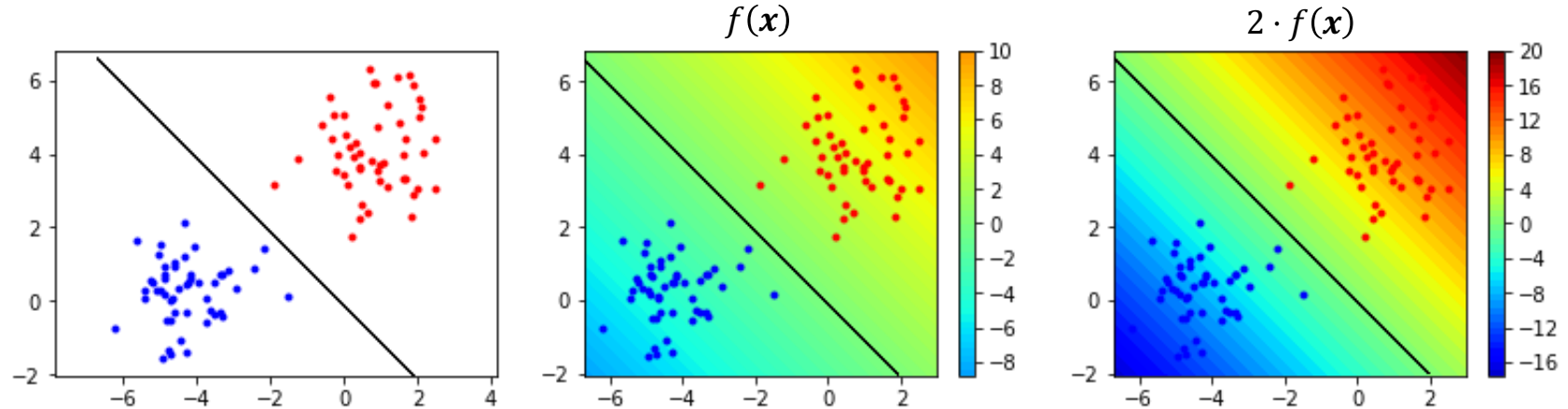


Linear Discriminant Functions

- The function $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$ projects \mathbf{x} onto the hyperplane normal
 - Its value is proportional to the distance of \mathbf{x} to the hyperplane



Linear Discriminant Functions



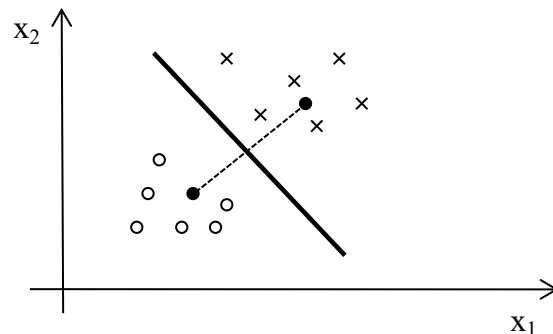
- By linearity, it is easy to see that multiplying $f(x)$ by a constant factor amounts to multiplying its parameters by the same factor
 - For example: $2 \cdot f(x) = 2 \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + 2b = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^T \mathbf{x} + \hat{b}$, with $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = 2\mathbf{w}$ and $\hat{b} = 2b$
- While the boundary at $f(x) = 0$ does not change, the slope of the function changes!

A Simple Example: The Nearest Mean Classifier (NMC)

- This classifier estimates the mean values μ_1 and μ_2 of the two classes from the training set and assigns unknown samples \mathbf{x}^* to the class with the smallest Euclidean distance:

$$d(\mathbf{x}^*, \mu_2) \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{\leq}} d(\mathbf{x}^*, \mu_1)$$

- It is easy to see that the decision boundary is the hyperplane perpendicular to the vector $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$ and passing through the mean point $(\mu_1 + \mu_2)/2$
- Accordingly, the NMC is a linear classifier
 - Try to find its \mathbf{w} and b parameter values!



Learning as an Optimization Problem

Learning as an Optimization Problem

- How do we estimate the classifier parameters \mathbf{w} and b ?
- Modern approaches formulate the learning problem as an **optimization problem**
 - This is generally true also for nonlinear classification functions $f(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$, including modern deep-learning approaches and neural networks

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))}_{\substack{\text{loss term} \\ L(D, \boldsymbol{\theta})}} + \underbrace{\lambda \Omega(\mathbf{w})}_{\substack{\text{regularization term} \\ \Omega(\mathbf{w})}}$$

λ : regularization hyperparameter

Learning as an Optimization Problem

- The loss function $\ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))$ measures how much a prediction is wrong
 - e.g., the zero-one loss is 0 if points are correctly predicted, and 1 if they are not
- The regularization term $\Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ imposes a penalty on the magnitude of the classifier parameters to avoid overfitting and promote smoother functions, i.e., functions that change more gradually as we move across the feature space
- The hyperparameter λ tunes the trade-off between the training loss and regularization
 - Larger values tend to promote more regularized functions but with a larger training error
 - Smaller values tend to reduce the training error but learn more complex functions

Learning as an Optimization Problem

- We start by considering a simplified setting in which we aim to find the best parameters $\theta = (\mathbf{w}, b)$ that minimize the loss function $L(D, \theta)$, being $D = (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ the training dataset:

$$\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} L(D, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta))$$

- The loss function quantifies the error that the classifier, parameterized by θ , is making on its predictions on the training data D
 - This is also known as the principle of **Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM)**
- How do we select the loss function $L(D, \theta)$ and solve the above problem?

Learning as an Optimization Problem

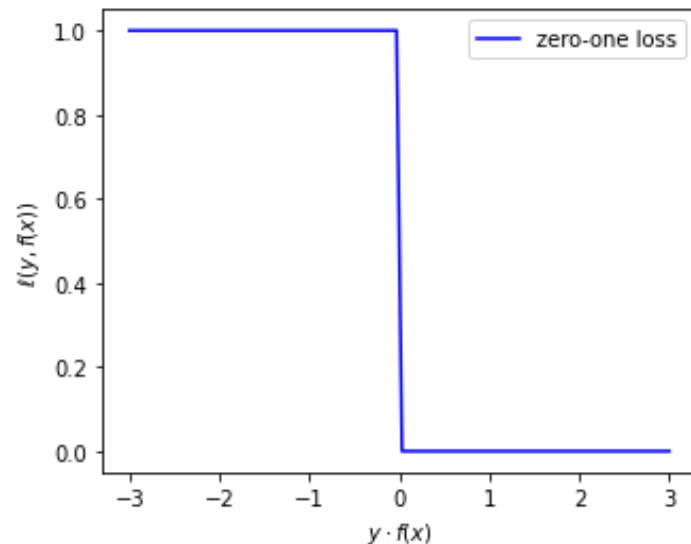
- In principle, we would like to minimize

$$L(D, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta))$$

- where $\ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta))$ is the zero-one loss
 - equal to 1 for correct predictions and 0 otherwise

$$\ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) < 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } y \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

- However, minimizing this *step function* is hard and computationally inefficient

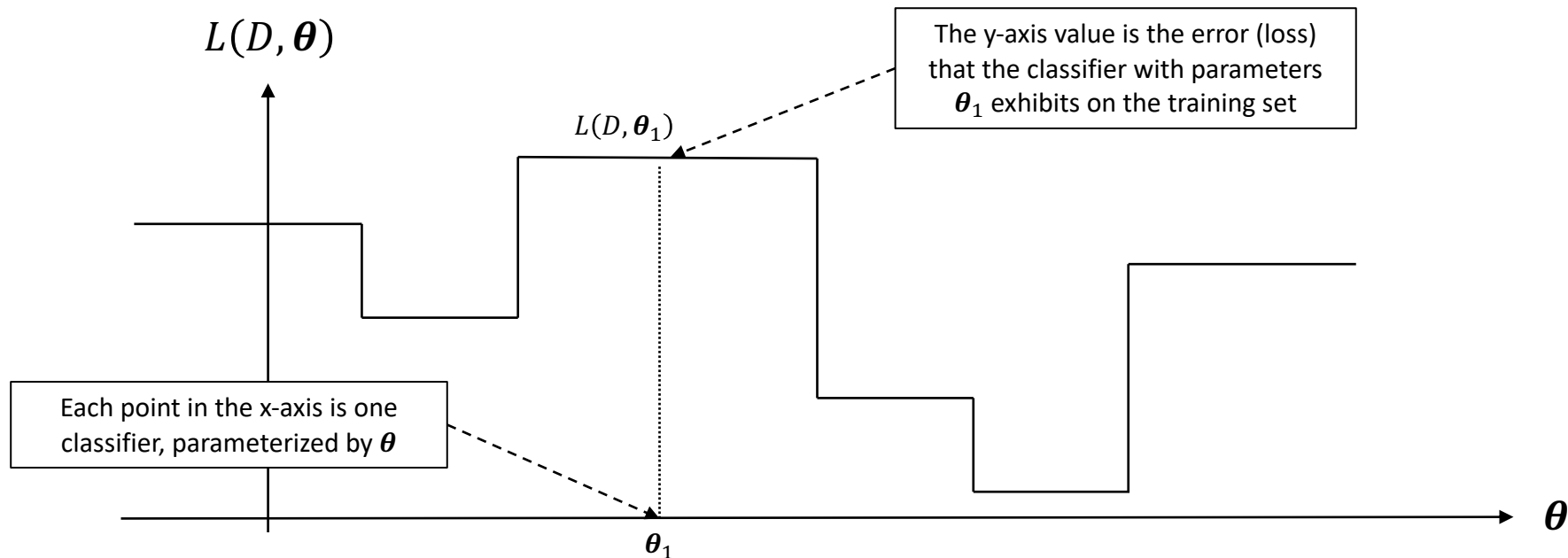


Note that $yf(\mathbf{x})$ is positive for correct predictions and negative for wrong ones.

For correct (wrong) predictions, y and $f(\mathbf{x})$ agree (disagree) in sign.

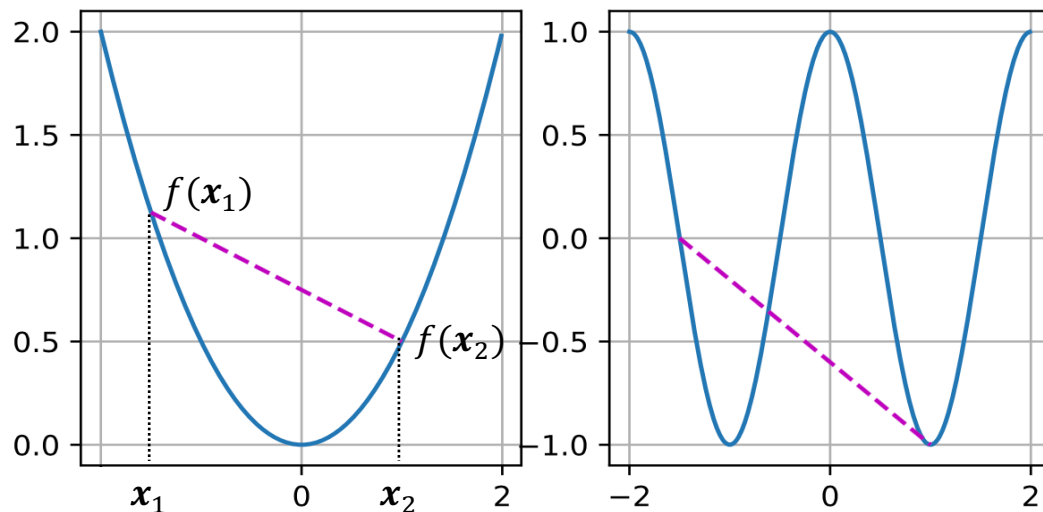
The Zero-One Loss Landscape

- Non convex, hard to optimize (flat regions, bad local minima)



Why Is Convexity Important for Optimization?

- **Convexity:** $f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) \leq \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x_2)$



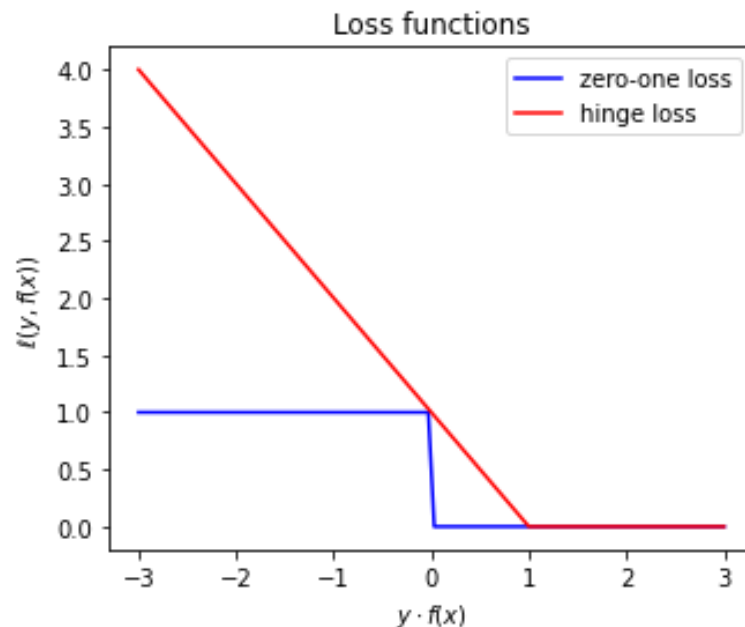
- **Desirable properties for optimization:** no local minima, convergence guarantees, etc.

Loss Functions

- Now, recall that we aim to minimize:

$$L(D, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta))$$

- being $\ell(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta))$ the zero-one loss
- However, we know that minimizing this non-convex function is particularly difficult
- For this reason, convex (surrogate) loss functions are typically preferred
 - The tighter convex upper bound on the zero-one loss is called the **hinge loss**

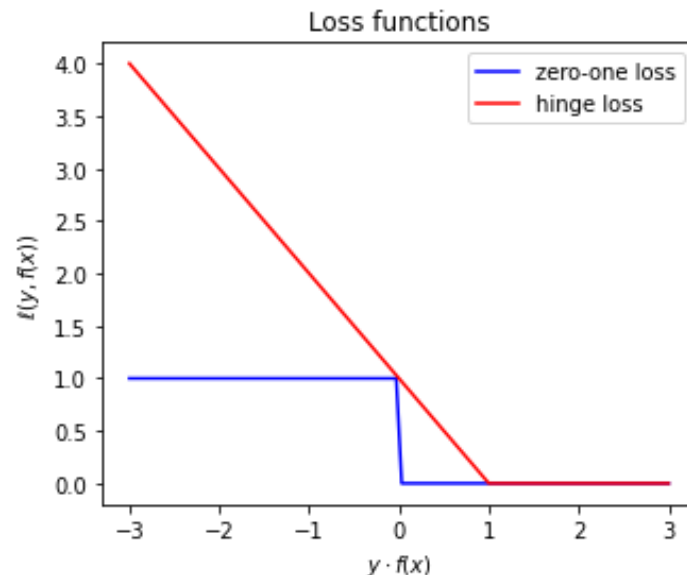


Hinge Loss

- The hinge loss is computed as:

$$\ell(y, f(x; \theta)) = \max(0, 1 - yf)$$

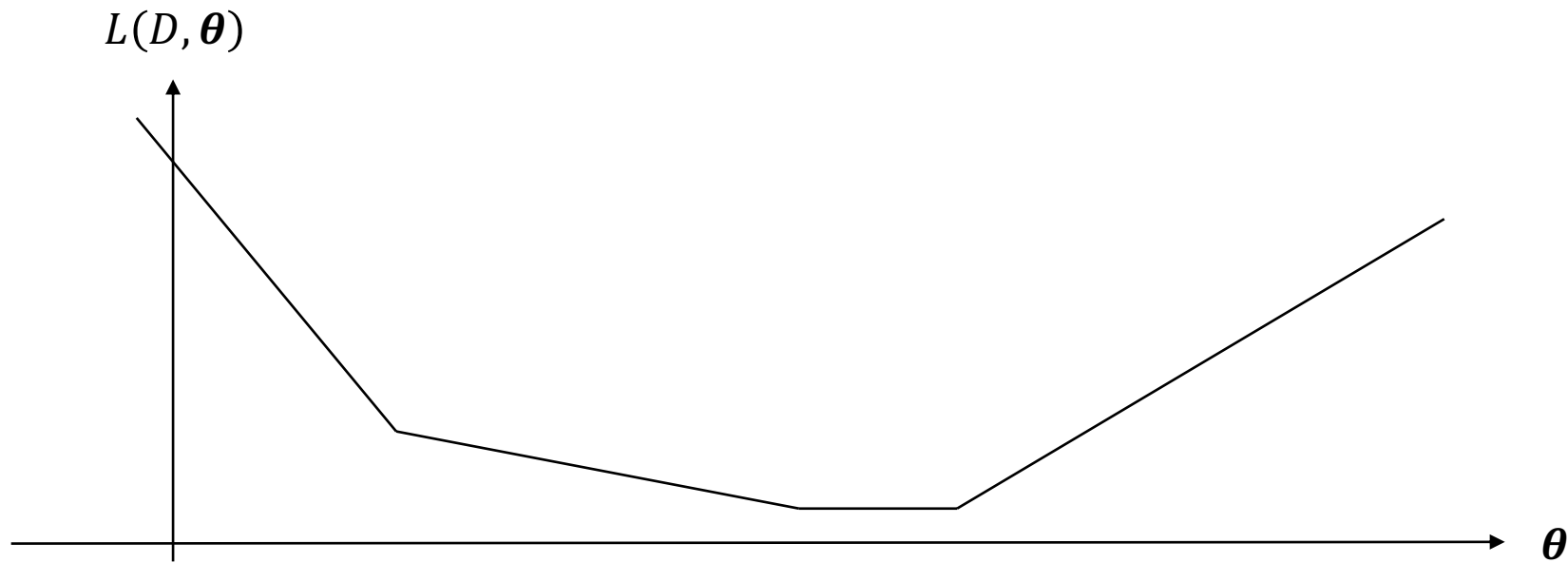
- It is the closest convex upper bound on the 0-1 loss
- Why are we interested in an upper bound?
 - since minimizing it, we also minimize the 0-1 loss
- Convexity helps finding solutions efficiently while also providing guarantees on the uniqueness of the solution, algorithmic convergence, etc.
 - This is why convex surrogate functions are typically preferred in optimization



Note that $yf(x)$ is positive for correct predictions and negative for wrong ones

The Hinge Loss Landscape

- Piecewise linear and convex, easier to optimize



A Closer Look at the Loss Minimization Problem

- Let's assume we fix $b = 0$ and aim to minimize the training loss only w.r.t. w_1, w_2
- Each pair w_1, w_2 thus represents a different linear classifier (passing through the origin)
- For each of these classifiers, we report the corresponding training loss in a colored plot
 - this will show us the optimization *landscape*, i.e., the surface of the function we aim to minimize

