Classification - part I Formation ENSTA ParisTech Conférence IA

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Classification problem

Variable terminology

- ightharpoonup observed data $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$ referred to as input vector, predictors or features
- ▶ data to predict Y referred to as *output* variables, or *responses*

Classification task

Y are categorical data (discrete qualitative variables) that takes value in a discrete set \mathcal{Y} , e.g.

- ▶ email \in {spam, ham}
- ▶ handwritten digits $\in \{0, ..., 9\}$

Given a feature vector $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$, build a function f(X) that takes as input the feature vector X and predicts its value for $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$

Try to minimize the misclassification rate $\mathcal{E}[f] \equiv \Pr(f(X) \neq Y)$

Outline

Model based approaches for classification

Bayes Classifier

Linear/Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (LDA/QDA)

Black box approaches for classification

 ${\bf K}$ Nearest Neighborgs (K-NN)

Support Vector Machine (SVM)

Bayes rule for classification

Classification problem with K classes : $Y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, K\}$,

Probability of class Y = k given X = x

Bayes rule:

$$\Pr(Y = k | X = x) = \frac{p(x | Y = k) \Pr(Y = k)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x | Y = k) \Pr(Y = k)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} p(x | Y = j) \Pr(Y = j)},$$
$$= \frac{\pi_k p_k(x)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \pi_j p_j(x)}$$

- $\triangleright p_k(x) \equiv p(x|Y=k)$ is the density for X in class k
- ▶ $\pi_k \equiv \Pr(Y = k)$ is the weight, or prior probability of class k

Bayes Classifier

Bayes classifier

Definition

The Bayes classification rule f^* is defined as

$$f^*(x) = \arg\max_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} \Pr(Y = k | X = x).$$

Theorem

The Bayes classification rule f^* is optimal in the misclassification rate sense where $\mathcal{E}[f] = \Pr(f(X) \neq Y)$:

for any rule
$$f$$
, $\mathcal{E}[f] \ge \mathcal{E}[f^*]$,

Remarks

- $f^*(X) \equiv maximum \ a \ posteriori (MAP)$ estimate
- ▶ In real-word applications, the distribution of (X, Y) is unknown \Rightarrow no analytical expression of $f^*(X)$. But useful reference on academic examples.

Generative models

Two kinds of approaches based on a model:

- 1. Discriminative approaches : direct learning of p(Y|X), e.g. Regression, logistic regression
- 2. Generative models: learning of the joint distribution p(X,Y)

$$p(X,Y) = \underbrace{p(X|Y)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{\Pr(Y)}_{\text{prior}},$$

e.g. linear/quadratic discriminant analysis, Naïve Bayes

Generative models: Estimation problem

Assumptions

- classification problem with K classes : $Y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, K\},\$
- ightharpoonup input variables : $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$

Bayes rule:

$$\Pr\left(Y=k|X=x\right) = \frac{p(x|Y=k)\Pr\left(Y=k\right)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|Y=k)\Pr\left(Y=k\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K}p(x|Y=j)\Pr\left(Y=j\right)}.$$

In practice, the following quantities are unknown:

- densities of each class $p_k(x) \equiv p(x|Y=k)$
- weights, or prior probabilities, of each class $\pi_k \equiv \Pr(Y = k)$

Estimation problem

These quantities must be learned on a training set:

learning problem \Leftrightarrow estimation problem in a parametric or not way

Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (QDA)

Supervised classification assumptions

- $X \in \mathbb{R}^p, Y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, K\},\$
- sized n training set $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots (X_n, Y_n)$

QDA Assumptions

The input variables X, given a class Y=k, are distributed according to a parametric and Gaussian distribution :

$$X|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \Leftrightarrow p_k(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma_k|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (x-\mu_k)}$$

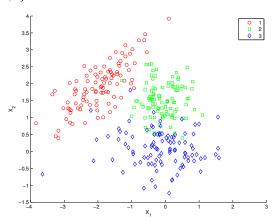
The Gaussian parameters are, for each class k = 1, ..., K

- mean vectors $\mu_k \in \mathbb{R}^p$,
- \triangleright covariance matrices $\Sigma_k \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$,
- set of parameters $\theta_k \equiv \{\mu_k, \Sigma_k\}$, plus the weights π_k , for $k = 1, \dots, K$.

Example

Mixture of K = 3 Gaussians

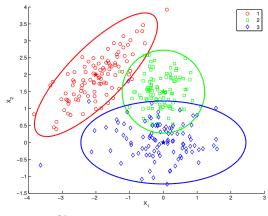
- ▶ $Y \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $X \in \mathbb{R}^2$



Example

Mixture of K = 3 Gaussians

- $Y \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $X \in \mathbb{R}^2$



95% theoretical confidence regions

QDA parameter estimation

Notations

- ▶ $n_k = \#\{y_i = k\}$ is the number of training samples in class k,
- $ightharpoonup \sum_{y_i=k}$ is the sum over all the indices i of the training samples in class k

(Unbiased) Maximum likelihood estimators (MLE)

- $\widehat{\mu}_k = \frac{\sum_{y_i = k} x_i}{n_k}, \quad \leftarrow \text{ sample mean}$

 ${\rm Rk}:\frac{1}{n_k-1}$ is a bias correction factor for the covariance MLE (otherwise $\frac{1}{n_k})$

Discriminant functions

For model based approaches, Bayes classifier is defined as

$$f^*(x) = \arg\max_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} \Pr(Y = k | X = x)$$

- equivalent to consider a set of functions $\delta_k(x)$, for $k \in \mathcal{Y}$, derived from a monotone transformation of posterior probability $\Pr(Y = k | X = x)$
- ▶ decision boundary between classes k and l is then defined as the set $\{x \in \mathcal{X} : \delta_k(x) = \delta_l(x)\}$

Definition

- $\delta_k(x)$ are called the discriminant functions of each class k
 - x is predicted in the k_0 class such that $k_0 = \arg \max_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} \delta_k(x)$

QDA decision rule

The classification rule becomes

$$f(x) = \arg \max_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} \Pr(Y = k | X = x, \widehat{\theta}, \widehat{\pi}),$$

=
$$\arg \max_{k \in \mathcal{Y}} \underbrace{\log \Pr(Y = k | X = x, \widehat{\theta}, \widehat{\pi})}_{\delta_k(x)},$$

where

$$\delta_k(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \log \left| \widehat{\Sigma}_k \right| - \frac{1}{2} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k)^T \widehat{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k) + \log \widehat{\pi}_k + \mathcal{L}st,$$

is the discriminant function

Remarks

- 1. different rule than the Bayes classifier as θ replaced by $\widehat{\theta}$ (and π replaced by $\widehat{\pi}$)
- 2. when $n \gg p$, $\widehat{\theta} \to \theta$ (and $\widehat{\pi} \to \pi$) : convergence to the optimal classifier... only if the Gaussian model is correct!

QDA decision boundary

The boundary between two classes k and l is described by the equation

$$\delta_k(x) = \delta_l(x) \Leftrightarrow C_{k,l} + L_{k,l}^T x + x^T Q_{k,l}^T x = 0, \quad \leftarrow \text{quadratic equation}$$

where

$$C_{k,l} = -\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{|\widehat{\Sigma}_k|}{|\widehat{\Sigma}_l|} + \log \frac{\widehat{\pi}_k}{\widehat{\pi}_l} - \frac{1}{2} \widehat{\mu}_k^T \widehat{\Sigma}_k^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_k + \frac{1}{2} \widehat{\mu}_l^T \widehat{\Sigma}_l^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_l, \quad \leftarrow \text{scalar}$$

$$L_{k,l} = \widehat{\Sigma}_k^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_k - \widehat{\Sigma}_l^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_l, \quad \leftarrow \text{vector in } \mathbb{R}^p$$

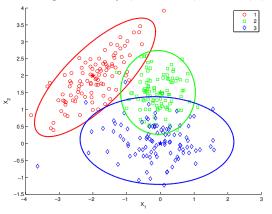
$$Q_{k,l} = \frac{1}{2} \left(-\widehat{\Sigma}_k^{-1} + \widehat{\Sigma}_l^{-1} \right), \quad \leftarrow \text{matrix in } \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$$

Real Quadratic discriminant analysis

QDA example

Mixture of K = 3 Gaussians

▶ Estimation of the parameters $\hat{\mu}_k$, $\hat{\Sigma}_k$ and $\hat{\pi}_k$, for k = 1, 2, 3

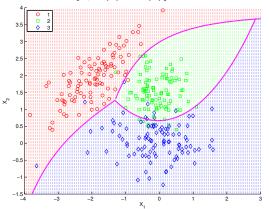


95% estimated confidence regions

QDA example (Cont'd)

Mixture of K = 3 Gaussians

- ▶ Classification rule : $\arg \max_{k=1,2,3} \delta_k(x)$
- Quadratic boundaries $\{x; \delta_k(x) = \delta_l(x)\}$



LDA principle

LDA Assumptions

Additional simplifying assumption w.r.t. QDA : all the class covariance matrices are identical ("homoscedasticity"), i.e. $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$, for $k = 1, \dots, K$

(Unbiased) Maximum likelihood estimators (MLE)

- $ightharpoonup \widehat{\pi}_k$ and $\widehat{\mu}_k$ are unchanged,
- $\widehat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{y_i = k} (x_i \widehat{\mu}_k) (x_i \widehat{\mu}_k)^T, \quad \leftarrow \text{pooled covariance}$

 ${\rm Rk}:\frac{1}{n-K}$ is a bias correction factor for the covariance MLE (otherwise $\frac{1}{n})$

LDA discriminant function

$$\delta_k(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \log \left| \widehat{\Sigma} \right| - \frac{1}{2} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k)^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} (x - \widehat{\mu}_k) + \log \widehat{\pi}_k + \mathcal{L}st,$$

LDA decision boundary

The boundary between two classes k and l reduces to the equation

$$\delta_k(x) = \delta_l(x) \Leftrightarrow C_{k,l} + L_{k,l}^T x = 0, \leftarrow \text{linear equation}$$

where

$$C_{k,l} = \log \frac{\widehat{\pi}_k}{\widehat{\pi}_l} - \frac{1}{2} \widehat{\mu}_k^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_k + \frac{1}{2} \widehat{\mu}_l^T \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \widehat{\mu}_l, \quad \leftarrow \text{scalar}$$

$$L_{k,l} = \widehat{\Sigma}^{-1} \left(\widehat{\mu}_k - \widehat{\mu}_l \right), \quad \leftarrow \text{vector in } \mathbb{R}^p$$

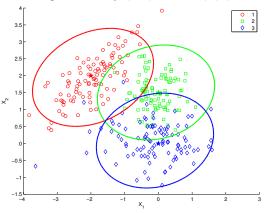
$$\qquad \qquad \triangleright \ \ Q_{k,l} = 0,$$

□ Linear discriminant analysis

Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

Mixture of K = 3 Gaussians

• Estimation of the parameters $\hat{\mu}_k$, $\hat{\pi}_k$, for k = 1, 2, 3, and $\hat{\Sigma}$

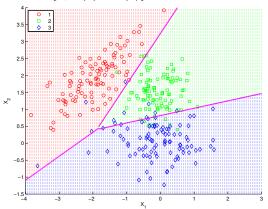


95% estimated confidence regions

Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

Mixture of K = 3 Gaussians

- ► Classification rule : $\arg \max_{k=1,2,3} \delta_k(x)$
- ▶ linear boundaries $\{x; \delta_k(x) = \delta_l(x)\}$



Complexity of discriminant analysis methods

Effective number of parameters

- ▶ LDA : $(K 1) \times (p + 1) = O(Kp)$
- ▶ QDA : $(K-1) \times \left(\frac{p(p+3)}{2} + 1\right) = O(Kp^2)$

Remarks

- ▶ in high dimension, i.e. $p \approx n$ or p > n, LDA is more stable than QDA which is more prone to overfitting,
- both methods appear however to be robust on a large number of real-word datasets
- ▶ LDA can be viewed in some cases as a least squares regression method
- ▶ LDA performs a dimension reduction to a subspace of dimension $\leq K-1$ generated by the vectors $z_k = \hat{\Sigma}^{-1}\hat{\mu}_k \leftarrow$ dimension reduction from p to K-1!

Conclusions on discriminant analysis

Generative models

- learning/estimation of $p(X, Y) = p(X|Y) \Pr(Y)$,
- derivation of Pr(Y|X) from Bayes rule,

Different assumptions on the class densities $p_k(x) = p(X = x|Y = k)$

- ▶ QDA/LDA : Gaussian parametric model
- performs well on many real-word datasets
- \square LDA is especially useful when n is small

Perspectives

Black box approaches : direct learning of the prediction rule f

Notebook

k Nearest-Neighbors (k-NN) for regression

For a regression problem $Y \in \mathbb{R}$, the prediction model is directly defined, for X = x, as:

$$\widehat{Y}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{X_i \in N_k(x)} Y_i,$$

where $N_k(x)$ is the neighborhood of x defined by the k closest inputs X_i in the training set $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1...n}$

Properties

$$\hat{Y}(x) = \text{Average } \{Y_i | X_i \in N_k(x)\} \approx E[Y | X = x]$$

But two approximations problematic in high dimension :

- ▶ Expectation \approx Average,
- ▶ Conditioning at a point ≈ conditioning on a neighborhood

k Nearest-Neighbors (k-NN) for classification

Binary classification problem

For a binary classification problem $Y \in \{0,1\}$, the classification rule can be derived, for X = x, as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } \widehat{Y}(x) > \frac{1}{2}, \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\widehat{Y}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{X_i \in N_k(x)} Y_i$ is the average of the binary labels of the k nearest neighbors of the testing point X = x.

Classification rule associated with k-NN

The binary classification problem can be directly extended for an arbitray number of class K:

 $f(x) \equiv$ majority vote among the k closest neighbors of the testing point x, \equiv assignment to the most common class among the k nearest neighbors K Nearest Neighborgs (K-NN)

K Nearest-Neighbors

k-NN : complexity parameter k

The effective number of parameters expresses as $N_{\text{eff}} = \frac{n}{k}$, where n is the size of the training sample

15-Nearest Neighbor Classifier

1-Nearest Neighbor Classifier

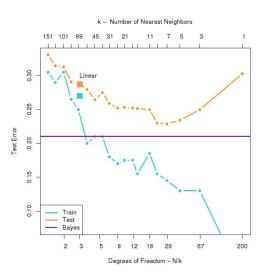


$$k = 15, N_{\text{eff}} \approx 13$$

$$k = 1, N_{\text{eff}} \approx 200$$

 $k = 1 \rightarrow \text{training error is always } 0!$

Model Selection



Support Vector Machine (SVM)

Theory elaborated in the early 1990's (Vapnik $et\ al$) based on the idea of 'maximum margin'

- ightharpoonup deterministic criterion learned on the training set \leftarrow supervised classification
- general, i.e. model free, linear classification rule
- classification rule is linear in a transformed space of higher (possible infinite) dimension than the original input feature/predictor space

Linear discrimination and Separating hyperplane

Binary classification problem

- $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- $Y \in \{-1,1\} \leftarrow 2 \text{ classes}$
- ▶ Training set (x_i, y_i) , for i = 1, ..., n

Defining a linear discriminant function $h(x) \Leftrightarrow$ defining a separating hyperplane $\mathcal H$ with equation

$$\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 = 0,$$

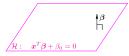


- $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is the normal vector (vector normal to the hyperplane \mathcal{H}),
- ▶ $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is the intercept/offset (regression or geometrical interpretation)
- \mathcal{H} is an affine subspace of dimension p-1
- $h(x) \equiv x^T \beta + \beta_0$ is the associated (linear) discriminant function

Separating hyperplane and prediction rule

For a given separating hyperplane \mathcal{H} with equation

$$\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 = 0,$$



the prediction rule can be expressed as

- $\hat{y} = +1$, if $h(x) = x^T \beta + \beta_0 \ge 0$,
- $\hat{y} = -1$, otherwise,

or in an equivalent way:

$$\widehat{y} \equiv G(\boldsymbol{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left[\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0\right]$$

Rk: \boldsymbol{x} is in class $y \in \{-1, 1\}$: prediction $G(\boldsymbol{x})$ is correct iff $y(\boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) \geq 0$

Separating Hyperplane: separable case

Linear separability assumption: $\exists \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. the hyperplane $\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 = 0$ perfectly separates the two classes on the training set:

$$y_k\left(x_k^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0\right) \ge 0, \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, n,$$

Separable case (p = 2 example)2.5 г 2 1.5 0.5 ×× -0.5 -1 -1.5 -2 × -2.5 -3 -2 -1 0 Χ,

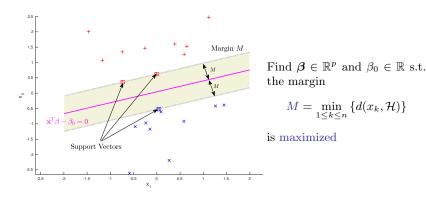
Pb: infinitely many possible perfect separating hyperplanes $x^T \beta + \beta_0 = 0$

Find the 'optimal' separating hyperplane

Maximum margin separating hyperplane (separable case)

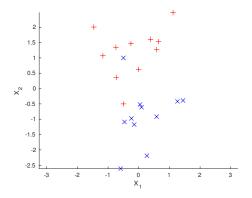
Maximum margin principle

We are interested in the 'optimal' perfect separating hyperplane maximizing the distance M>0, called the margin, between the separating hyperplane and the training data, i.e. with the biggest gap



Nonseparable case

- ▶ in general, overlap of the 2 classes (unless n < p)
- ▶ no hyperplane that perfectly separates the training data



we can soften what we mean by "separates"

Maximum margin separating hyperplane (nonseparable case)

Solution for the nonseparable case

Considering a soft-margin that allows wrong classifications

▶ introduction of slack variables $\xi_i \geq 0$ s.t.

$$y_i(\boldsymbol{x}_i^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) \ge (1 - \xi_i)$$

Support vectors include now the wrong classified points, and the points inside the margins $(\xi_i > 0)$

• Primal problem : adding a constraint on the ξ_i 's

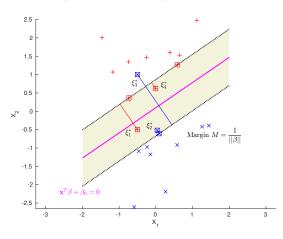
$$\begin{cases} \max_{\boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0, \xi} & M, \\ \text{subject to} & y_i(\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0) \ge 1 - \boldsymbol{\xi_i}, \\ & \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \le 1/C. \end{cases}$$

where C > 0 is the "cost" parameter

Support Vector Machine (SVM)

Optimal separating hyperplane

Example (nonseparable case)



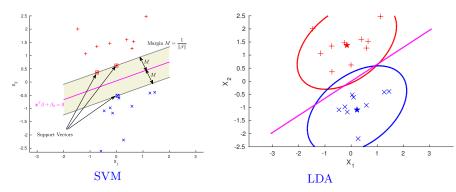
 $\xi_i^* \equiv M\xi_i \leftarrow \text{distance}$ between a support vector and the margin

Support Vector Machine (SVM)

Linear discrimination: SVM vs LDA

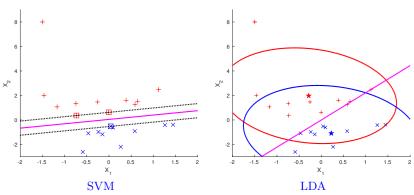
Linear discrimination

- ▶ Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) : Gaussian generative model
- ► SVM : criterion optimization (maximizing the margin)



Linear discrimination: SVM vs LDA (Cont'd)

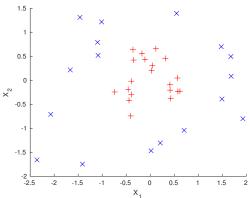
Adding one atypical data



SVM property

- ▶ Nonsensitive to atypical points (outliers) far from the margin
- sparse method (information \equiv support vectors)

Nonlinear discrimination in the input space

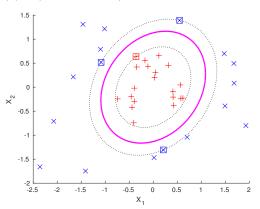


Transformed space \mathcal{F}

- ightharpoonup Choice of a transformed space \mathcal{F} (expansion space) where the linear separation assumption is more relevant
- ▶ Nonlinear expansion map $\phi : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathcal{F}, \, \boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \phi(\boldsymbol{x}) \leftarrow \text{enlarged features}$

Nonlinear discrimination in the input space

$$X \in \mathbb{R}^2, \ \phi(x) = (x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2)^T$$



Linear separation in the feature space $\mathcal{F} \Rightarrow$ Nonlinear separation in the input space

Nonlinear discrimination in the input space

▶ Projection in the space of monomials of order 2.

$$\begin{split} \phi: \mathbb{R}^2 &\to \mathbb{R}^3 \\ \mathbf{x} &\mapsto \phi(\mathbf{x}) \\ (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) &\mapsto (\mathbf{x}_1^2, \mathbf{x}_2^2, \sqrt{2}\mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{x}_2) \end{split}$$

▶ In \mathbb{R}^3 , the inner product can be expressed as

$$\langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^3} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \phi(\mathbf{x})_i \phi(\mathbf{x}')_i$$

$$= \phi(\mathbf{x})_1 \phi(\mathbf{x}')_1 + \phi(\mathbf{x})_2 \phi(\mathbf{x}')_2 + \phi(\mathbf{x})_3 \phi(\mathbf{x}')_3$$

$$= \mathbf{x}_1^2 \mathbf{x}'_1^2 + \mathbf{x}_2^2 \mathbf{x}'_2^2 + 2\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}'_1 \mathbf{x}'_2$$

$$= (\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}'_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}'_2)^2$$

$$= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^2}^2$$

$$= k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}').$$

Kernel trick

The SVM solution depends only on the inner product between the input features $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ and the support vectors $\phi(\mathbf{x}_{margin})$

Kernel trick

Use of a kernel function k associated with an expansion/feature map ϕ :

$$k: \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$$
$$(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') \mapsto k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') \equiv \langle \phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \phi(\boldsymbol{x}') \rangle$$

Advantages

- ightharpoonup computations are performed in the original input space : less expansive than in a high dimensional transformed space $\mathcal F$
- \blacktriangleright explicit representations of the feature map ϕ and enlarged feature space \mathcal{F} are not necessary, the only expression of k is required!
- possibility of complex transformations in possible infinite space $\mathcal F$
- standard trick in machine learning not limited to SVM (kernel-PCA, gaussian process, kernel ridge regression, spectral clustering . . .)

Kernel function

Definition (Positive semi-definite kernel)

 $k: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is positive semi-definite is

- $\forall (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d, k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i).$
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall \xi_1 \dots \xi_n \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, \sum_{i,j}^n \xi_i \xi_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \ge 0.$

Theorem (Moore-Aronsjan (1950))

To every positive semi-definite kernel k, there exists a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} and a feature map $\phi : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathcal{H}$ such that for all $\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j$ we have $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$.

Operations on kernels

Let k_1 and k_2 be positive semi-definite, and $\lambda_{1,2} > 0$ then:

- 1. $\lambda_1 k_1$ is a valid kernel
- 2. $\lambda_1 k_1 + \lambda_2 k_2$ is positive semi-definite.
- 3. k_1k_2 is positive semi-definite.
- 4. $\exp(k_1)$ is positive semi-definite.
- 5. $g(\mathbf{x}_i)g(\mathbf{x}_j)$ is positive semi-definite, with $g: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$.

Choosing the Kernel function

Usual kernel functions

- Linear kernel ($\mathcal{F} \equiv \mathbb{R}^p$): $k(x, x') = x^T x'$
- ▶ Polynomial kernel (dimension of \mathcal{F} increases with the order d)

$$k(x, x') = (x^T x')^d$$
 or $(x^T x' + 1)^d$

 \triangleright Gaussian radial function (\mathcal{F} with infinite dimension)

$$k(x, x') = \exp(-\gamma ||x - x'||^2)$$

 \triangleright Neural net kernel (\mathcal{F} with infinite dimension)

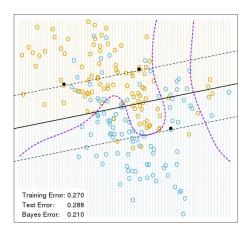
$$k(x, x') = \tanh\left(\kappa_1 x^T x' + \kappa_2\right)$$

standard practice is to estimate optimal values of kernel parameters by cross validation

 $\mathrel{\sqsubseteq}_{\mathsf{Examples}}$

Application: binary data (cf introduction)

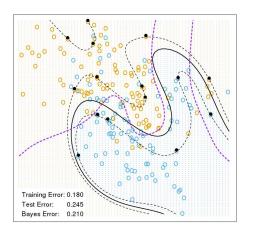
Linear kernel



 $\mathrel{\sqsubseteq}_{\mathsf{Examples}}$

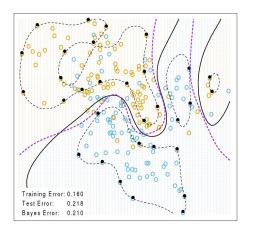
Application: binary data (cf introduction)

Polynomial kernel (d=4)



Application: binary data (cf introduction)

Gaussian radial kernel ($\gamma = 1$)



Practical tips

SCALE YOUR DATA!!

▶ With Gaussian kernel

$$k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\gamma ||x - x'||^2\right)$$
$$= \exp\left(-\gamma \sum_{i=1}^{p} (x_i - x_i')^2\right)$$

► Scaling:

$$\tilde{x}_{i} = \frac{x_{i} - \mu_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}$$

$$\tilde{x}_{i} = \frac{x_{i} - \min_{i}}{\max_{i} - \min_{i}}$$

[Notebook]

Multiclass SVM

▶ $Y \in \{1, ..., K\} \leftarrow K$ classes

Standard approach: direct generalization by using multiple binary SVMs

OVA: one-versus-all strategy

- ► K classifiers between one class (+1 label) versus all the other classes (-1 label)
- signs classifier with the highest confidence value (e.g. the maximum distance to the separator hyperplane) assigns the class

OVO: one-versus-one strategy

- $\binom{K}{2} = K(K-1)/2$ classifiers between every pair of classes
- majority vote rule: the class with the most votes determines the instance classification

Which to choose? if K is not too large, choose OVO

Conclusions on 'Black Box' approaches

k-NN

- ▶ non-parametric method which does not rely on a fixed model
- ▶ algorithm which is conceptually among the simplest of all machine learning algorithms
- badly behaved procedure in high dimension: dimension reduction, e.g. PCA, is usually performed prior to k-NN algorithm in order to avoid curse of dimensionality and to reduce computational complexity of the classification rule

SVM

- ► maximum margin learning criterion ← model free
- classification algorithm nonlinear in the original input space by performing an implicit linear classification in a higher dimensional space
- sparse solutions characterized by the support vectors
- popular algorithms, with a large literature

Conclusions on 'Black Box' approaches (Cont'd)

Other popular 'Black Box' (see Classification - part II) methods among the state-of-the-art ones for supervised learning (however difficult to interpret the results) :

Random Forests

- ▶ involve decision tree to split the prediction space in simple regions
- ▶ combine multiple decision trees to yield a single consensus prediction
- method able to scale efficiently to high dimensional data

(Deep) Neural Nets

- ▶ Neural Nets with multiple hidden layers between input and output ones
- ▶ many variants of deep architectures (Recurrent, Convolutional,...) used in specific domains (speech, vision, ...)
- supported by empirical evidence
- dramatic performance jump for several big data applications

Notebook