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Optimal separation

Linear separators:

Which one is best?

This lecture

1. Support vector machines

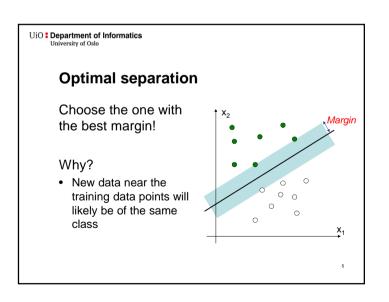
- Optimal separation

- Kernels

2. Ensemble learning

3. Dimensionality reduction

- Principal component analysis



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Optimal separation

Support vectors

• The training data defining the margin

• The rest of the data can be discarded when we are done learning

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Nonlinearity

- How to classify linearly inseparable data?
 - Combine many linear SVMs?
 - · Similar to multilayer neural networks
 - But what are the target outputs for the hidden layers?
 - A different idea:
 - · Map inputs into a higher-dimensional space
 - · Hope that they are linearly separable there.

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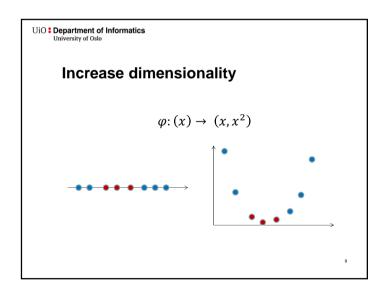
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Optimal separation

• Distance to hyperplane:

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i - b = \begin{cases} > 0 & \text{above plane} - \text{class A:} \quad y_i = 1 \\ < 0 & \text{below plane} - \text{class B:} \quad y_i = -1 \end{cases}$$

- If we require that $y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i b) \ge 1$ then the margin is $M = 1/(2|\mathbf{w}|)$
 - Maximizing the margin \Leftrightarrow minimizing $w \cdot w$
 - Exact solution can be found, along with a list of support vectors, using quadratic programming
- SVM in 7 minutes (Thales Sehn Körting): https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1NxnPkZM9bc



High dimensionality

- SVMs typically map to feature spaces of much higher dimension
 - With enough dimensions, it becomes very likely that the data becomes linearly separable

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Overfitting

- Any data set is linearly separable in a feature space of sufficient complexity
- We have to be aware of overfitting: Use cross-validation and early stopping!
 - If there are noisy outliers (esp. mislabeled examples), we need to take stronger measures: soft margin.

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Kernels

- Finding the hyperplane only requires the dot product between vectors, not the actual vectors
 - Calculating $\varphi(x_i) \cdot \varphi(x_i)$ might be much easier than $\varphi(x_i)$
- $K(x_i, x_i) = \varphi(x_i) \cdot \varphi(x_i)$ is called the *kernel* of φ
 - Common kernels include
 - None: $K(x_i, x_j) = x_i \cdot x_j$
 - Polynomial: $K(x_i, x_i) = (1 + x_i \cdot x_i)^p$
 - Sigmoid: $K(x_i, x_j) = \tanh(\kappa x_i \cdot x_j \delta)$
 - Radial basis function: $K(x_i, x_j) = \exp(-(x_i x_j)^2/2\sigma^2)$

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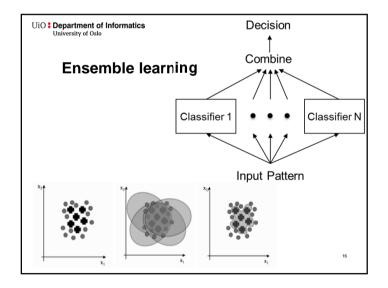
Soft margins

- Instead of perfectly separating all data, allow some misclassifications
- Introduce slack variables
 - Optimize tradeoff between maximum margin and misclassification penalty
 - Tradeoff is balanced by penalty factor C
- Useful when some error is tolerated, or when there are chances of mislabeled training data

Applications

- Classification
 - Multi-class can be achieved via multiple outputs
- Regression
- · Object detection & recognition
- · Content-based image retrieval
- · Text recognition
- · Speech recognition
- Biometrics
- Etc.

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Considerations

- Quite powerful (hard to beat by other algorithms)
 - Must beware of overfitting
- Robust to some noise, if margin is managed properly
- Fast to apply
- · Difficult to interpret
- How to pick kernel?
 - Start with Gaussian RBF or polynomial
 - May require domain-specific knowledge
 - Can combine kernels for heterogeneous data
 - Consult experts

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Ensemble learning

- "Decision by committee"
 - Train multiple classifiers to be slightly different
 - An "ensemble"
 - Make classifications based on the combined results of all of them
- Two common types of training differentiation
 - Boosting: change the importance of each training vector (data point)
 - **Bagging**: change the training vectors being used

Boosting - AdaBoost

- · Iteratively trains classifiers
- Each data point is assigned a weight
 - For the first classifier all the weights are equal
 - For the next classifier the weights of the data points that were misclassified previously is raised
 - This is continued until the combined error of the classifiers trained so far is sufficiently low
- Dependent on the classifier's ability to consider the weights in their training

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Combining the classifiers

- Which classifiers do we listen to when the ensemble is in disagreement?
 - Weighted voting (used in boosting)
 - · Some classifiers have greater influence than others
 - Majority voting (used in bagging)
 - The most "popular" class is chosen
 - Mixture of experts
 - A meta-machine learning algorithm decides which classifiers are most likely to be correct

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Bagging

- Makes a random sample of the training data for each classifier – bootstrap samples
 - Same size as the training data
 - With replacement
 - Some data points will occur at least twice!
 - Variance will be reduced
 - Each classifier will have different views of the training data

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Majority voting

What to do about the disagreement

- Refuse to classify?
- Classify only if more than half agree?
- Return the most common vote?

Depends on the application

Dimensionality reduction – Feature extraction

Why reduce dimensionality?

- Reduces time complexity: Less computation
- · Reduces space complexity: Less parameters
- Saves the cost of acquiring irrelevant features
- · Simpler models are more robust
- · Easier to interpret; simpler explanation
- Data visualization (structure, groups, outliers, etc.) if plotted in 2 or 3 dimensions

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YouTube introductions

Application examples (Rasmus Bro):

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?annotation_id=annotation_963680&fe ature=iv&src_vid=K-F19DORO1w&v=UUxIXU_Ob6E
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=26YhtSJi1qc

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Principal components

The directions along with the most variation

Don't have to correspond to the coordinate axes

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Principal component analysis

- Rotate the axes to lie along the principal components
- Remove the axes with the least variation
 - Keep a certain number of dimensions
 - Or: keep a certain percentage of the variation

Calculating the principal components

- Calculate the covariance matrix of the data
- Calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix
- Transform the data with the eigenvectors for the largest eigenvalues as the new basis

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Calculating the covariance matrix

The covariance matrix is composed of the variances and covariances of every combination of feature:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \cdots & \sigma_{1n} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \cdots & \sigma_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{n1} & \sigma_{n2} & \cdots & \sigma_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Calculating the covariance matrix

The variance of feature *i*:

$$\sigma_i^2 = \sigma_{ii} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (x_{ki} - \mu_i)^2$$

The covariance between feature i and j:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (x_{ki} - \mu_i) (x_{kj} - \mu_j)$$

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The covariance eigenvectors

The eigenvectors v_i and eigenvalues λ_i are the n unique values of matrix C such that

$$\lambda_i \boldsymbol{v}_i = C \boldsymbol{v}_i$$

- The eigenvectors of the covariance matrix describe the directions of the principal components
- The eigenvalues tell us how large part of the total variation in the data that is accounted for by that principal component

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Notes on PCA

- PCA is a linear transformation
 - Does not directly help with data that is not linearly separable
 - However, may make learning easier because of reduced complexity
- PCA removes some information from the data
 - Might just be noise
 - Might provide helpful nuances that may be of help to some classifiers