Introduction to Classification - The basics (kNN, LDA, SVM)

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Lecture 05.1.2 (v1.0.2)

Signposting

- You should have come here from 05.1.1 Introduction to Classification
- This is part 2 of Lecture 5.1, which is split into:
 - ▶ 5.1.1 covers a Classification Introduction and Interpretation
 - 5.1.2 covers kNN, LDA, SVM
- In 5.2 we cover boosting and ensemble methods
- In 6 we cover Tree and Forest methods

Classification



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K-Nearest Neighbour classification

▶ In Block 4, we introduced K-NN for density estimation.

- We defined some choices of distance function
- We obtained the K nearest neighbours of points in R
- Armed with those neighbours, a classifier can be implemented by using majority vote of the labels of all k neighbours.
- A naive implementation scales poorly with N, but an approximate lookup can control complexity.
- See also: Condensed nearest neighbor¹ approaches to reduce the amount of data required at the classification stage.

¹Hart P, The Condensed Nearest Neighbor Rule. IEEE Transactions on Information Theory 18 (1968) 515-516. doi: 10.1109/TIT.1968.1054155

K-Nearest Neighbour example



Linear Discriminant Analysis

- Developed in 1936 by R. A. Fisher² and extended to the current multi-class form in 1948³.
- The goal is to project a high dimensional space into K dimensions, maintaining (linear) classification ability.
- Prediction benefit comes only from reducing overfitting
- Strong relationship with PCA, often used in tandem (PCA then LDA)
- Assumes that each class k has a different mean μ_k and a shared covariance matrix Σ
- Kernel Discriminant Analysis exists⁴

 ²Fisher R, "The Use of Multiple Measurements in Taxonomic Problems" (1936) Annals of eugenics (!), now "Annals of Human Genetics"
³Rao C, "Multiple Discriminant Analysis" (1948) JRSSB
⁴Mika, S et al "Fisher discriminant analysis with kernels" (1999) NIPS IX: 41-48

LDA algorithm

- 1. Compute the mean location μ_k for each class k and the overall mean μ , as well as the assignment sets D_k .
- 2. Compute the within-class scatter matrix S_W : $S_W = \sum_{k=1}^K S_k$ where

$$S_k = \sum_{i \in D_k} \left(\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}_k \right) \left(\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}_k \right)^T$$

3. Compute the **between-class scatter matrix** S_B :

$$S_B = \sum_{k=1}^{K} n_i \left(\vec{\mu}_k - \vec{\mu} \right) \left(\vec{\mu}_k - \vec{\mu} \right)^T$$

- 4. Solve for the eigenvalues λ_k and eigenvectors v_k of $S_W^{-1}S_B$
- 5. Choose a dimension threshold K^* , either using the same methods as for PCA, or cross-validation
- 6. **Predict** using $\mu_k \ldots$

LDA prediction

- Class prediction can use any information in the LDA data summary. Options include:
 - Nearest cluster
 - Likelihood: $Pr(\vec{x}|y_k = c) = Normal(\mu_k, \Sigma)$
 - **Posterior**: $\Pr(y_k = c | \vec{x}) \propto \Pr(\vec{x} | y_k = c) p(y_k = c);$

i.e. reweight classes according to their frequency

LDA example



Towards Support Vector Machines

- ► LDA uses all the points for classification, which makes it slow
- It is also linear
- (It could be made non-linear by mapping the data to high dimensions, but this is often infeasible)
- Moving towards SVM, we:
 - Can exploit the kernel-trick to make a non-linear decision boundary without explicit mapping
 - Switch focus from group means to making the largest group separation
 - If we only want to discriminate classes, we can only use a subset of the data, the support vectors, for the decision
- This makes the method:
 - robust to distributional assumptions
 - non-generative

Support Vector Machine overview

- Find the maximum margin hyperplane separating the classes closest points
- Allow soft margins: misclassified points are down-weighted
- Nonlinearity: express distances as inner products, allowing non-linearities via the Kernel trick
- Algorithm: finding the hyperplane is a "quadratic optimisation problem".

SVM illustration: solution space



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Planar geometry

- ▶ The data are $\vec{x} \in D$ containing N examples
- The labels are $y_i \in (-1, 1)$
- ► A hyperplane is defined via:
 - \vec{w} , the coordinates of the plane
 - ▶ w₀, a point on the plane chosen such that w₀ is perpendicular to w:

$$\vec{w} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{w}_0) = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b = 0$$



SVM margins

The distance of a point to the line is the residual after the point is projected onto the line:

$$d_{\vec{w}}(\vec{x}) = \vec{n} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}') = \frac{|\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b|}{|\vec{w}|}$$

For a given hyperplane, the minimum margin is

 $M_{\vec{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in D} d_{\vec{w}}(\vec{x})$

The maximum margin hyperplane is therefore:

 $\operatorname{argmax}_{\vec{w}}\operatorname{argmin}_{x\in D} d_{\vec{w}}(\vec{x})$

SVM illustration: SVM solution



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Computing the margins

- This is a classic Quadratic Programming problem⁵
- Broadly:
 - quadratic penalty: distance to the plane \propto squared norm of the hyperplane vector $\frac{1}{2} |\vec{w}|^2$
 - ▶ linear inequalities: none of the data are closer than $M_{\vec{w}}$. So $\forall i: y_i(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b) \ge 1$
- ▶ and pass these to a standard QP solver
- A computational trick: only evaluate the points on the margins

 $^{^5 \}rm For$ this course, you need to know what QP can do for you. You don't need to know how it works.

SVM problem



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Imperfect classification with SVM

To account for data the wrong side of the margins, the penalty is changed to:

$$\frac{1}{2} |\vec{w}|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^N \epsilon_i$$

▶ where *e_i* is the "distance" needed to move the point to the correct decision boundary, i.e.

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b \ge 1 - \epsilon_i \qquad \text{if :} \qquad y_i = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b < -1 + \epsilon_i \qquad \text{if :} \qquad y_i = -1 \quad (2)$$

▶ and $\epsilon_i = 0$ if already inside it, so also requiring the constraint $\epsilon_i \ge 0$

SVM example



kernel SVM example



Wrapup

Logistic regression is the go-to straw man classifier in machine learning:

- It is easy to implement
- It is a natural predictive model
- It does reasonably well in many settings
- k-NN is the interpolation method to beat
- Linear Discriminant Analysis is also widely used:
 - It is easy to bolt onto PCA
 - Clusters are more interpretable than logistic regression
- **SVMs** remain an important competitor at the bleeding edge:
 - A hyperplane is a natural discriminatory model
 - Feature engineering can allow complex non-linear models
 - Low-complexity classifier once training is performed
- Neighbourhoods are always competitive, but are costly at test time

Reflection

- Why is LDA used with PCA, and not instead-of?
- How would you imagine an approximate lookup for k-NN would work?
- How sparse should the SVM solution be? In what sense is SVM efficient? When would it be cutting edge?
- ► By the end of the course, you should:
 - Be able to navigate the many approaches to classification
 - Understand and be able to explain the high level function of:
 - Logistic Regression, Nearest Neighbour classification, LDA, SVMs

Signposting:

- In this Block's workshop we'll experiment with these and other classifiers on cyber data, as well as introducing **boosting**.
- In the following Block we'll introduce Random Forests, as well as boosted decision and regression trees. Naive Bayes comes in Block 7 with other Bayesian Methods.
- References:
- k-Nearest Neighbours:
 - Chapter 13.3 of The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction (Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani).
- Linear Discriminant Analysis:
 - Sebastian Raschka's PCA vs LDA article with Python Examples
 - Chapter 4.3 of The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction (Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani).
- SVMs:
 - Jason Weston's SVMs tutorial
 - e1071 Package for SVMs in R
 - Chapter 12 of The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data