### Classification



#### Images are 28 x 28 pixels

Represent input image as a vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$ Learn a classifier  $f(\mathbf{x})$  such that,  $f: \mathbf{x} \to \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ 



## K-nearest neighbor classification

#### Algorithm

- For each test point, x, to be classified, find the K nearest samples in the training data
- Classify the point, x, according to the majority vote of their class labels





### **Distance functions**



Minkowski 
$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} (|x_i - y_i|)^q\right)^q$$

### Choice of k



### Choice of k



#### Binary kNN Classification Training Set





### Leave-one-out cross validation

- For a dataset with N examples, perform N experiments
- For each experiment use N-1 examples for training and the remaining example for testing



## K-fold cross validation

 For each of K experiments, use K-1 folds for training and the remaining one for testing



Classification Error = Average classification error on K folds

### Linear Classification



### Linear separability





not linearly separable



# Inseparability

- Real world problems: there may not exist a hyperplane that separates cleanly
- Solution to this "inseparability" problem: map data to higher dimensional space
  - Called the "feature space", as opposed to the original "input space"
  - Inseparable training set can be made separable with proper choice of feature space

### Feature map



### Linear classifier



- in 2D the discriminant is a line
- W is the normal to the line, and b the bias
- W is known as the weight vector

### Linear classifier



in 3D the discriminant is a plane, and in nD it is a hyperplane

For a K-NN classifier it was necessary to `carry' the training data For a linear classifier, the training data is used to learn **w** and then discarded Only **w** is needed for classifying new data

### Good and bad linear classifiers



maximum margin solution: most stable under perturbations of the inputs

## Support Vector Machine

### Two popular implementations



svmlight.joachims.org

SVM<sup>light</sup>

#### **Support Vector Machine**



Author: <u>Thorsten Joachims <thorsten@joachims.org</u>> <u>Cornell University</u> <u>Department of Computer Science</u>

→ C Secure https://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm/

LIBSVM -- A Library for Support Vector Machines

Chih-Chung Chang and Chih-Jen Lin

### Margin



### Margin



### Linear Support Vector Machine

• Learning the SVM can be formulated as an optimization:

$$\max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{2}{||\mathbf{w}||} \text{ subject to } \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b \stackrel{\geq 1}{\leq -1} \quad \text{if } y_i = +1 \\ \leq -1 \quad \text{if } y_i = -1 \quad \text{for } i = 1 \dots N$$

• Or equivalently

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} ||\mathbf{w}||^2$$
 subject to  $y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^{ op} \mathbf{x}_i + b 
ight) \geq 1$  for  $i = 1 \dots N$ 

 This is a quadratic optimization problem subject to linear constraints and there is a unique minimum

### Inseparable case



### Linear SVM

The optimization problem becomes

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^{d},\xi_{i}\in\mathbb{R}^{+}}||\mathbf{w}||^{2}+C\sum_{i}^{N}\xi_{i}$$

subject to

$$y_i\left(\mathbf{w}^{ op}\mathbf{x}_i+b
ight)\geq 1\!-\!\xi_i$$
 for  $i=1\dots N$ 

- Every constraint can be satisfied if  $\xi_i$  is sufficiently large
- *C* is a regularization parameter:
  - small C allows constraints to be easily ignored  $\rightarrow$  large margin
  - large C makes constraints hard to ignore  $\rightarrow$  narrow margin

 $-C = \infty$  enforces all constraints: hard margin

• This is still a quadratic optimization problem and there is a unique minimum. Note, there is only one parameter, C.

### Classification vs Regression



#### Discrete

Continuous



У

### Protein structure prediction as regression



#### 3D coordinates and angles

#### Stock price prediction



- Task is to predict stock price at future date
- This is a regression task, as the output is continuous

### Linear regression



### Nonlinear regression



### When does linear regression work?



## K nearest neighbor regression

### Algorithm

- For each test point, x, find the K nearest samples x<sub>i</sub> in the training data and their values y<sub>i</sub>
- Output is mean of their values  $f(\mathbf{x}) =$

$$\int f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} y_i$$

Again, need to choose (learn) K



### Nearest neighbor regression



### Nearest neighbor regression



## Filling patches in images





Matched Images



Initial image

Final composited image



### Linear regression

- Linear regression is a simple approach to supervised learning. It assumes that the dependence of Y on X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>,...X<sub>p</sub> is linear.
- True regression functions are never linear!



 although it may seem overly simplistic, linear regression is extremely useful both conceptually and practically.

### How to measure the accuracy of linear regression models



### Linear Regression



$$y_i = x_i^T \beta + \epsilon_i = \sum_j \beta_j X_{i,j} + \epsilon_i$$

Fitting error:  $\epsilon_i$ 

### Linear Regression



Assumption: errors are Gaussian noises

$$y = X\beta + \epsilon$$
$$\beta^* = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_{i} (y_i - \sum_{j} \beta_j X_{i,j})^2$$

### Linear Regression

$$\beta^* = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_{i} (y_i - \sum_{j} \beta_j X_{i,j})^2$$
$$= \arg\min_{\beta} (y - X\beta)^T (y - X\beta)$$
$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

Question: How to derive the closed-form solution?

### Clustering

### Finding hidden structure in data



### Expression analysis



### Single-cell expression analysis



### Clustering: examples

### Image segmentation

Goal: Break up the image into meaningful or perceptually similar regions



[Slide from James Hayes]

### Network clustering



## Clustering

- Basic idea: group together similar instances
- Example: 2D point patterns



## Clustering

- Basic idea: group together similar instances
- Example: 2D point patterns



- What could "similar" mean?
  - One option: small Euclidean distance (squared)

 $dist(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = ||\vec{x} - \vec{y}||_2^2$ 

 Clustering results are crucially dependent on the measure of similarity (or distance) between "points" to be clustered

- Given: N unlabeled examples  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$ ; the number of partitions K
- Goal: Group the examples into K partitions



- The only information clustering uses is the similarity between examples
- Clustering groups examples based of their mutual similarities

## Clustering algorithms

**Flat or Partitional clustering** (*K*-means, Gaussian mixture models, etc.)

Partitions are independent of each other



Hierarchical clustering (e.g., agglomerative clustering, divisive clustering)

- Partitions can be visualized using a tree structure (a dendrogram)
- Does not need the number of clusters as input
- Possible to view partitions at different levels of granularities (i.e., can refine/coarsen clusters) using different K



### K-means

- Input: N examples  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$   $(\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D)$ ; the number of partitions K
- Initialize: K cluster centers  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K$ . Several initialization options:
  - Randomly initialized anywhere in  $\mathbb{R}^{D}$
  - Choose any K examples as the cluster centers
- Iterate:
  - Assign each of example x<sub>n</sub> to its closest cluster center

$$\mathcal{C}_k = \{ n : k = \arg\min_k ||\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k||^2 \}$$

( $C_k$  is the set of examples closest to  $\mu_k$ )

• Recompute the new cluster centers  $\mu_k$  (mean/centroid of the set  $C_k$ )

$$\mu_k = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{C}_k|} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{C}_k} \mathbf{x}_n$$

Repeat while not converged



















### K-means for segmentation





K=10



Original











### When will K-means fail?

Non-convex/non-round-shaped clusters: Standard K-means fails!



Clusters with different densities



## Hierarchical clustering

A hierarchical approach can be useful when considering versatile cluster shapes:



#### 10-means

By first detecting many small clusters, and then merging them, we can uncover patterns that are challenging for partitional methods.

# Agglomerative clustering

- Agglomerative clustering:
  - First merge very similar instances
  - Incrementally build larger clusters out of smaller clusters
- Algorithm:
  - Maintain a set of clusters
  - Initially, each instance in its own cluster
  - Repeat:
    - Pick the two closest clusters
    - Merge them into a new cluster
    - Stop when there's only one cluster left
- Produces not one clustering, but a family of clusterings represented by a dendrogram





We need a notion of similarity between clusters.



Single linkage uses the minimum distance.

### Example





Complete linkage uses the maximum distance.

### Example





Group average linkage uses the average distance between groups.

#### Example 5 •1 0.25 2 •5 0.2 •2) 0.15 • 3 6 0.1 0.05 •4 0 2 3 6 1 5 4



Mouse tumor data from [Hastie et al.]

### Application to breast cancer expression data

