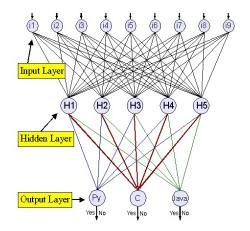
Pattern Recognition : More (Too?) Flexible Methods Nearest Neighbours, Trees and Neural Nets



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A simple, flexible and nonparametric method : *K*-nearest neighbours

- Assume that *n* labeled points are available for training. Let *K* ≤ *n*. Consider a metric *d* on ℝ^D, (ex : Euclidean distance)
- At any point x, let σ = σ_x be the permutation of {1,..., n} such that

$$d(x, x_{\sigma(1)}) \leq \ldots \leq d(x, x_{\sigma(n)})$$

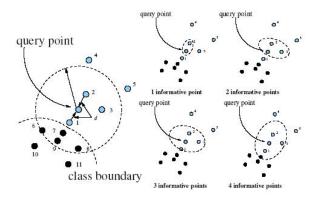
Extract the K-nearest neighbours of x

$$\{x_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,x_{\sigma(K)}\}$$

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Apply the majority vote :
 N_y = Card{k ∈ {1,...,K}; y_{σ(k)} = y}, y ∈ {−1,1}
 C(x) = arg max y∈{−1,+1} N_y,

A simple nonparametric method : *K*-nearest neighbours



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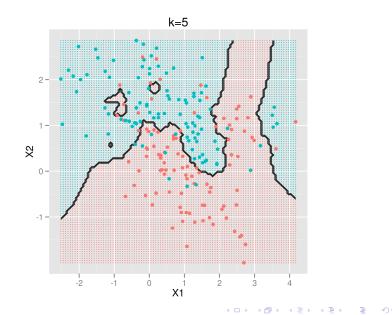
K-nearest neighbours

Universal consistency (Stone '77) Si $k = k_n \rightarrow \infty$ et $k_n = o(n)$, the k- classifier is consistent $L(C_{K-NN}) - L^* \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$

whatever the data distribution, but...

- the learning rate can be arbitrarily slow
- Curse of dimensionality dimension : sorting the data is computationally costly
- Instabilité : of K? of the metric d?
- Metric learning (e.g. Mahalanobis distance) More in several weeks
- Many variants with weights

K-nearest neighbours : a too flexible method?



Histograms - Local Averages

- Limitation of K-nearest neighbours : some of the nearest neighbours may be very far from X !
- Consider a partition of the input space :

$$C_1 \bigcup \cdots \bigcup C_K = \mathcal{X}$$

- Apply the majority rule : if X falls into C_k,
 - 1. Count the number of training examples with positive label in C_k
 - 2. If $\sum_{i: X_i \in C_k} \mathbb{I}\{Y_i = +1\} > \sum_{i: X_i \in C_k} \mathbb{I}\{Y_i = -1\}$, predict Y = +1. Predict Y = -1 otherwise.
- ► This rule corresponds to "plug-in" classifier $2\mathbb{I}{\{\widehat{\eta}(x) \ge 1/2\}} 1$, where

$$\widehat{\eta}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbb{I}\{x \in C_k\} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}\{Y_i = +1, X_i \in C_k\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}\{X_i \in C_k\}}$$

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- If the partition is specified in advance (before observing the data)... many cells may be possibly empty !
- Choose the partition depending on the training data !
- The CART Book Breiman, Friedman, Olshen & Stone (1986)

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• A greedy recursive partitioning algorithm : $X = (X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(d)}) \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Classification Trees : the CART algorithm

- Training data $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, ; (X_n, Y_n)$
- ▶ For any région $R \subset X$, consider the majoriy label : \overline{Y}_R , where

$$ar{Y}_R = +1 ext{ if } \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}\{Y_i = +1, \ X_i \in R\} > rac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}\{X_i \in R\}$$

and $ar{Y}_R = -1 ext{ otherwise}$

from the root node $R = X = C_{0,0}$ and the constant classifier $\bar{Y}_{C_{0,0}}$. The goal is to split the cell $C_{0,0}$

$$C_{0,0} = C_{1,0} \bigcup C_{1,1}$$

so as to refine the current rule and get

$$g_1(x) = \bar{Y}_{C_{1,0}}\mathbb{I}\{x \in C_{1,0}\} + \bar{Y}_{C_{1,1}}\mathbb{I}\{x \in C_{1,1}\}.$$

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"Growing the tree"

Splitting C_{0,0} = X is performed in order to minimize L̂_N(g₁), or, equivalently, the *impurity measure*

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}\{X_i \in C_{1,0}, \ Y_i \neq \bar{Y}_{C_{1,0}}\} + \mathbb{I}\{X_i \in C_{1,1}, \ Y_i \neq \bar{Y}_{C_{1,1}}\}$$

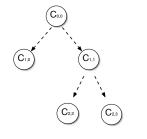
Consider regions of the form

$$\begin{array}{rcl} C_{1,0} & = & C_{0,0} \cap \{X^{(j)} \leq s\}, \\ C_{1,1} & = & C_{0,0} \cap \{X^{(j)} > s\}. \end{array}$$

It is enough to choose the splitting thresholds among the observed values X_i^(j)'s !

"Growing the tree"





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- In order to split node C_{j,k}, when not pure and containing at least n_{min} training data points, iterate the**double loop** :
 - 1. From j = 1 to d, find s (best splitting value for component $X^{(j)}$) so as to minimize the sum of the two impurity measures

 $C_{j,k} \cap \{X_j > s\}$ and $C_{j,k} \cap \{X_j \leq s\}$

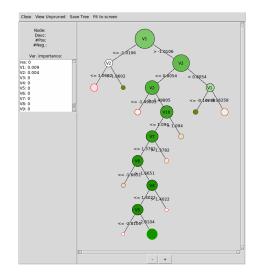
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2. Find the best splitting variable $X^{(j)}$

Impurity measures :

- classification error
- Gini index
- entropy

Classification Trees : the CART algorithm



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Classification Trees : the CART algorithm

- Interpretability/explainability, visualization
- Qualitative variables, incomplete data
- Quantification of the relative importance relative of the predictive variables
- Randomisation
- Diagonal splits
- Balancing the two error types
- Extension to multiclass problems, to regression
- Model selection, complexity tuning : best sub-tree, fast pruning ('weakest link pruning')
- Alternative algorithm : C4.5 (Ross Quinlan)
- Popularity : the decision tree mimics an ad-hoc expert system
- but... its predictive performance is moderate in general and it exhibits a great unstability

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Decision trees are the essential bricks of Ensemble Learning

Lecture

Model Assessment Model Selection

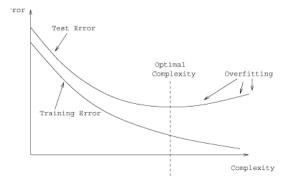
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- Generalization ability
- Bias, variance and model complexity
- ► The "data-rich situation" : Train-Validation-Test
- Cross-validation : a popular method for prediction error estimation

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Bootstrap techniques

Looking for the right amount of complexity



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Errors, training errors, test/generalization errors

Learning is based on a training sample

$$\mathcal{D}_n = \{(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$$

► The classifier C_n ∈ G selected through an "ERM like" method is random, depending on D_n, as well as its error :

$$L(\widehat{C}_n) = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{I}\{Y \neq \widehat{C}_n(X)\} \mid \mathcal{D}_n\right]$$

Expectation is taken over a pair (X, Y) independent from training data \mathcal{D}_n

• One may take next expectation over \mathcal{D}_n

$$Err = \mathbb{E}\left[L(\widehat{C}_n)\right]$$

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Methods for performance assessment, for model selection

Training error is not a good estimate!

$$\widehat{L}_n(\widehat{C}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}\{Y_i \neq C(X_i)\}$$

It vanishes as soon as the class ${\cal G}$ is complex enough \Rightarrow Overfitting and poor generalization

- The objective is twofold
 - Model selection : choose the best model among a collection of models

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 Model assessment : for a given model, estimate its generalization error

When data are not expensive

• Divide the data into three parts :

Training - Validation - Test

► Typical choice : 50% - 25% - 25%

• $K \ge 1$ model candidates : $\mathcal{G}_1, \ \ldots, \ \mathcal{G}_K$

- For each $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$, apply ERM to training data $\Rightarrow \widehat{C}^{(k)}$
- Use validation data to find the "best" $\hat{k} \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$
- Estimate the error using the test data (independent from \hat{k})
- How to proceed in a data-poor situation?

Complexity regularization (structural risk minimiation), resampling methods, *etc.*

Cross-Validation

- Goal : estimate the generalization error
- Let K ≥ 1 (typical choices are 5 or 10), "K-fold cross-validation" (K=n "leave-one-out" estimation)
- Split the data into K parts (of same size)
- For all $k \in \{1, ..., K\}$,
 - ▶ learn $\widehat{C}^{(-k)}$ based on all data except the *k*-th part

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- calculate the error of $\widehat{C}^{(-k)}$ over the *k*-th part
- Average the K quantities

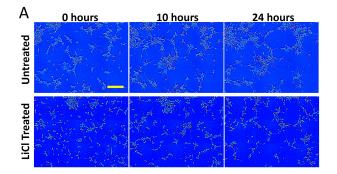
"Pulling yourself up by your own bootstrap" (Baron de Münchausen)

where $\mathbb{E}^*[.]$ is the expectation w.r.t. the empirical df of the $(X_i, Y_i)'s$

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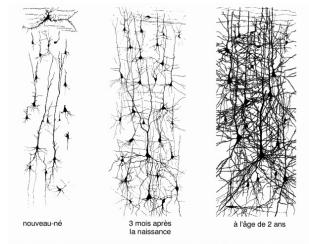
- Heuristics : replace the unknown df by an estimate
- Monte-Carlo approximation
- Higher-order validity

Neuron network growth over 24 hours



In 2014, the group of Gabriel Popescu at Illinois U. visualized a growing net of baby neurons using spatial light interference microscopy (SLIM). Ref : http://light.ece.illinois.edu/ wp-content/uploads/2014/03/Mir_SRep_2014.pdf Video : https://youtu.be/KjKsU_4sOnE

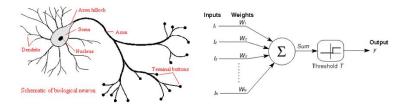
Child neuron network growth



Développement des réseaux de connections entre les neurones chez l'enfant.

Re : Museum de Toulouse http://www.museum.toulouse.fr/-/ connecte-a-vie-notre-cerveau-le-meilleur-des-reseaux=2-32

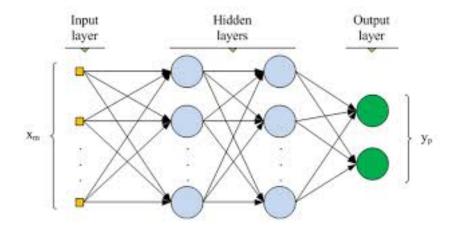
Le neurone



Neurone biologique

Neurone artificiel

Network of Artificial Neurons (multilayer perceptron, MLP)



- Artificial Neuronl : Mc Cullogh et Pitts, 1943
- Learning the Artificial Neuron model : the Perceptron by Rosenblatt, 1957
- Minsky and Papert : limitation of the Perceptron, 1959
- Learning a multi-layer perceptron by gradient backpropagation, Y. Le Cun, 1985, Hinton and Sejnowski, 1986.
- Multi-Layer Perceptron = a universal approximant, Hornik et al. 1991
- Convolutional networks, 1995, Y. Le Cun and Y. Bengio
- Between 1995 et 2008, the domain is flat (non convexity, computationally demanding, no theory)

- Democratization of GPU's (graphical processing units) 2005
- Large image databases : Imagenet, Fei-Fei et al. 2008 (now much more than 10⁶ images)
- Deeper and deeper neural networks, learned by means of massive databases
- Initialization with unuspervised learning (autoencoder)
- Word2vec (Mikolov et al. 2013)
- Dropout (Srivastava et al. 2014)

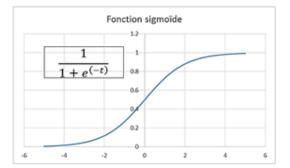
- activation function (e.g. sign)
- weight vector and bias (intercept)

$$f(x) = g(w^T x + b) \tag{1}$$

Choose g differentiable preferably (cf gradient optimization techniques)

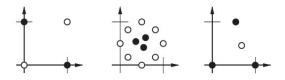
Activation function for the Artificial Neuron

For instance :



One also uses hyperbolic tangent tanh (values in the range (-1, 1)).

Limited to linearly separable data :



Now, compute :

$$f(x) = g(\Phi(x)^T w + b)$$

Feature map or latent representation. **Flexibility of neural networks :** the feature map Φ is learned from the training data. In 1991, Hornik et al. prove that MLP's with one hidden layer and p+1 input is dense in the space of real valued continuous functions on \mathbb{R}^{p} . A MLP with one hidden layer is a **universal approximant**.

In 1991, Hornik et al. prove that MLP's with one hidden layer and p+1 input is dense in the space of real valued continuous functions on \mathbb{R}^{p} . A MLP with one hidden layer is a **universal approximant**. Some other flexible/rich classes of decision functions (more next week !) :

- Linear regressor : NO
- SVM with a universal kernel, e.g. Gaussian kernel : YES
- Random Forests : YES
- Boosting stumps : YES

Consider a MLP with an output layer of size K = 1, a hidden layer of size M + 1, an input vector of size p + 1

Class of fonctions $\mathcal{H}_{mlp} = \{h_{mlp} : \mathcal{R}^{p+1} \to \mathcal{Y}\}$ for the regression problem (continuous output Y)

h

$$MLP(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j^{(2)} z_j$$
(2)

$$z_j = \tanh(a_j)$$
(3)

$$a_j = \sum_{i=0}^{p} w_{ji}^{(1)} x_i$$
(4)

Hyperbolic tangent is chosen here as activation function, differentiable.

$$h(a) = \tanh(a) = \frac{e^{a} - e^{-a}}{e^{a} + e^{-a}}$$
 (5)
 $h'(a) = 1 - h(a)^{2}$ (6)

This choice is appealing from a computational perspective since the derivative can be expressed in terms of h(a). A similar property holds for the sigmoid :

$$g(a)=rac{1}{1+\exp(-rac{1}{2}a)}.$$

- ► The single ouptut of a regressor MLP predicts a real value
- For classification with K classes, one chooses K outputs with the sigmoid function or the softmax function softmax(z) = (softmax₁(z), ..., softmax_K(z)), with

$$softmax_i(z) = rac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_{j=1^{\kappa}} \exp(z_j)}$$

 For a multi-output regression with K outputs, take K linear outputs for the architecture Consider a MLP with an output layer of size K = 1, a hidden layer of size M + 1, an input vector of size p + 1 for a regression task Class of functions $\mathcal{H}_{m/p} = \{h_{m/p} : \mathcal{R}^{p+1} \to \mathcal{Y}\}$

$$h_c(x) = g(\sum_{j=0}^{M} w_{jc}^{(2)} z_j)$$
 (7)

$$z_j = g(a_j) \tag{8}$$

$$a_j = \sum_{i=0}^{p} w_{ji}^{(1)} x_i$$
 (9)

with
$$g(t) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-1/2t)}$$
.

Learning from Training Data

$$\mathcal{L}(W; \mathcal{S}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell(h(x_n), y_n))$$

Regression :

$$\ell(h(x_n), y_n) = (h(x_n) - y_n)^2$$

Classification (maximize the likelihood) : Interpret $f_c(x) = p(y = c|x)$ (multiple outputs : one may use the softmax function)

$$\ell(h(x), y) = -\log f_y(x)$$

To be notice : \mathcal{L} is non convex and has many local minima

- Our best : find a good local minimum
- For this reason MLP had been abandoned for a long time, SVM/SVR were preferred, easier models to optimize

Gradient backpropagation

- When applying gradient descent, the error is backpropagated through all the layers, starting from the last one,
- One uses the **chain rule** for differentiation : $\frac{\partial L(W)}{\partial w_{ji}^{(1)}} = \frac{\partial L(W)}{\partial a_j} \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial w_{ji}^{(1)}}$ to modify the weights of the hidden layer.
- Once all the modifications are computed, the network is updated.
- Backpropagation can be applied locally or globally

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Rumelhart, D. E., Hinton, G. E., and Williams, R. J. (1986) Learning representations by back-propagating errors. Nature, 323, 533–536.