## Statistical Machine Learning

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Institute of Science and Technology
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## Classifier Training and Evaluation

input data $\mathcal{D}$
input learning method $A$
split $\mathcal{D}=\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }} \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_{t s t}$ disjointly
set aside $\mathcal{D}_{\text {tst }}$ to a safe place // do not look at it
$g \leftarrow A\left[\mathcal{D}_{t r n}\right] \quad / /$ learn a predictor from $\mathcal{D}_{t r n}$
apply $g$ to $\mathcal{D}_{t s t}$ and measure performance $R_{t s t}$
output performance estimate $R_{t s t}$

In practice we often want more: not just train a classifier and evaluate it, but

- select the best algorithm out of multiple ones,
- select the best (hyper)parameters for a training algorithm.

We simulate the classifier evaluation step during the training procedure. This needs (at least) one additional data split:

## Training and Selecting between Multiple Models

input data $\mathcal{D}$
input set of method $\mathcal{A}=\left\{A_{1}, \ldots, A_{K}\right\}$
split $\mathcal{D}=\mathcal{D}_{\text {trnval }} \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_{\text {tst }}$ disjointly
set aside $\mathcal{D}_{\text {tst }}$ to a safe place (do not look at it)
split $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trnval }}=\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }} \cup \dot{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}$ disjointly
for all models $A_{i} \in \mathcal{A}$ do
$g_{i} \leftarrow A_{i}\left[\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}\right]$
apply $g_{i}$ to $\mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}$ and measure performance $E_{\text {val }}\left(A_{i}\right)$
end for
pick best performing $A_{i}$
(optional) $g_{i} \leftarrow A_{i}\left[\mathcal{D}_{\text {trnval }}\right] \quad / /$ retrain on larger dataset apply $g_{i}$ to $\mathcal{D}_{\text {tst }}$ and measure performance $R_{t s t}$
output performance estimate $R_{t s t}$
How to split? For example $1 / 3: 1 / 3: 1 / 3$ or $70 \%: 10 \%: 20 \%$.

## Discussion.

- Each algorithm is trained on $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}$ and evaluated on disjoint $\mathcal{D}_{\text {val }} \boldsymbol{\checkmark}$
- You select a predictor based on $E_{\text {val }}$ (its performance on $\mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}$ ), only afterwards $\mathcal{D}_{t s t}$ is used.
- $\mathcal{D}_{t s t}$ is used to evaluate the final predictor and nothing else.


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## Problems.

- small $\mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}$ is bad: $E_{\text {val }}$ could be bad estimate of $g_{A}$ 's true performance, and we might pick a suboptimal method.
- large $\mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}$ is bad: $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}$ is much smaller than $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trnval }}$, so the classifier learned on $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}$ might be much worse than necessary.
- retraining the best model on $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trnval }}$ might overcome that, but it comes at a risk: just because a model worked well when trained on $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}$, this does not mean it'll also work well when trained on $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trnval }}$.


## Leave-one-out Evaluation (for a single model/algorithm)

input algorithm $A$
input loss function $\ell$
input data $\mathcal{D}$ (trnval part only: test part set aside earlier)
for all $\left(x^{i}, y^{i}\right) \in \mathcal{D}$ do
$g^{\neg i} \leftarrow A\left[\mathcal{D} \backslash\left\{\left(x^{i}, y^{i}\right)\right\}\right] \quad / / \mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}$ is $\mathcal{D}$ with $i$-th example removed
$r^{i} \leftarrow \ell\left(y^{i}, g^{\neg i}\left(x^{i}\right)\right) \quad / / \mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}=\left\{\left(x^{i}, y^{i}\right)\right\}$, disjoint to $\mathcal{D}_{\text {trn }}$
end for
output $R_{\text {loo }}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} r^{i} \quad$ (average leave-one-out risk)

## Properties.

- Each $r^{i}$ is a unbiased (but noisy) estimate of the risk $\mathcal{R}\left(g^{\neg i}\right)$
- $\mathcal{D} \backslash\left\{\left(x^{i}, y^{i}\right)\right\}$ is almost the same as $\mathcal{D}$, so we can hope that each
$g \neg^{i}$ is almost the same as $g=A[\mathcal{D}]$.
- Therefore, $R_{\text {loo }}$ can be expected a good estimate of $\mathcal{R}(g)$

Problem: slow, trains $n$ times on $n-1$ examples instead of once on $n$

Compromise: use fixed number of small $\mathcal{D}_{\text {val }}$

## $K$-fold Cross Validation (CV)

input algorithm $A$, loss function $\ell$, data $\mathcal{D}$ (trnval part)
split $\mathcal{D}=\dot{U}_{k=1}^{K} \mathcal{D}_{k}$ into $K$ equal sized disjoint parts for $k=1, \ldots, K$ do
$g^{\neg^{k}} \leftarrow A\left[\mathcal{D} \backslash \mathcal{D}_{k}\right]$
$\left.r^{k} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\left|\mathcal{D}_{k}\right|} \sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_{k}} \ell\left(y^{i}, g\right\urcorner^{k}(x)\right)$
end for
output $R_{K-\mathrm{CV}}=\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{n} r^{k} \quad(K$-fold cross-validation risk)

## Observation.

- for $K=|\mathcal{D}|$ same as leave-one-out error.
- approximately $k$ times increase in runtime.
- most common: $k=10$ or $k=5$.

Problem: training sets overlap, so the error estimates are correlated.
Exception: $K=2$

## $5 \times 2$ Cross Validation ( $5 \times 2$-CV)

input algorithm $A$, loss function $\ell$, data $\mathcal{D}$ (trnval part)
for $k=1, \ldots, 5$ do
Split $\mathcal{D}=\mathcal{D}_{1} \dot{\cup} \mathcal{D}_{2}$
$g_{1} \leftarrow A\left[\mathcal{D}_{1}\right]$,
$r_{1}^{k} \leftarrow$ evaluate $g_{1}$ on $\mathcal{D}_{2}$
$g_{2} \leftarrow A\left[\mathcal{D}_{2}\right]$,
$r_{2}^{k} \leftarrow$ evaluate $g_{2}$ on $\mathcal{D}_{1}$
$r^{k} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}\left(r_{k}^{1}+r_{k}^{2}\right)$
end for
output $E_{5 \times 2}=\frac{1}{5} \sum_{k=1}^{5} r^{k}$

## Observation.

- $5 \times 2$-CV is really the average of 5 runs of 2 -fold CV
- very easy to implement: shuffle the data and split into halfs
- within each run the training sets are disjoint and the classifiers $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ are independent
Problem: training sets are smaller than in 5 - or 10 -fold CV.


## Unbalanced Classes

If classes are unbalanced accuracy might not tell us much:

- $p(y=-1)=0.99, p(y=+1)=0.01 \rightarrow$ "always no" is $99 \%$ correct
- there might not be a better non-constant classifier

Two solutions:

- balancing
- use only subset of the majority class to balance data (5:1, or $1: 1$ )
- reweighting
- multiple loss in optimization with class-dependent constant $C_{y_{i}}$,

$$
\frac{1}{\left|\mathcal{D}_{+}\right|} \sum_{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{D}_{+}}^{n} \ell\left(y_{i}, f\left(x_{i}\right)\right)+\frac{1}{\left|\mathcal{D}_{-}\right|} \sum_{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{D}_{-}}^{n} \ell\left(y_{i}, f\left(x_{i}\right)\right)+\Omega(f)
$$

- treat as a retrieval problem


## Classifiers for Information Retrieval Tasks

Some classification tasks are really rather retrieval tasks, e.g.

- database lookup: is an entry $x$ relevant $(y=1)$ or not $(y=-1)$ ?

A typical property:

- prediction is performed on a fixed database
- we have access to all elements of the test set at the same time
- positives $(y=1)$ are important, negative $(y=-1)$ are a nuisanse
- we don't need all decisions, a few correct positives is enough

For a classifier $g(x)=\operatorname{sign} f(x)$ with $f(x): \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (e.g., $f(x)=\langle w, x\rangle$ ), we interpret $f(x)$ as its confidence.

To produce $K$ positive we return the test samples of highest confidence.
Equivalently, we decide by $g_{\theta}(x)=\operatorname{sign}(f(x)-\theta)$, for the right $\theta$.

## Other Ways to Evaluate Classifiers

Retrieval quality is often measure in terms of precision and recall:

## Definition (Precision, Recall, F-Score)

For $\mathcal{Y}=\{ \pm 1\}$, let $g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ a decision function and $\mathcal{D}=\left\{\left(x^{1}, y^{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right)\right\} \subset \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ be a database.
Then we define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{precision}(g) & =\frac{\text { number of test samples with } g\left(x^{j}\right)=1 \text { and } y^{j}=1}{\text { number of test samples with } g\left(x^{j}\right)=1} \\
\text { recall }(g) & =\frac{\text { number of test samples with } g\left(x^{j}\right)=1 \text { and } y^{j}=1}{\text { number of test samples with } y^{j}=1} \\
F \text {-score }(g) & =2 \frac{\text { precision }(g) \cdot \text { recall }(g)}{\operatorname{precision}(g)+\operatorname{recall}(g)}
\end{aligned}
$$

For different thresholds, $\theta$, we obtain different precision and recall values.

They are summarized by a precision-recall curve:


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They are summarized by a precision-recall curve:


- If pressured, summarize into one number: average precision.
- Curve/value depends on class ratio: higher values for more positives

A similar role in different context:

## Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve

true-positive-rate $(g)=\frac{\text { number of samples with } g\left(x^{j}\right)=1 \text { and } y^{j}=1}{\text { number of samples with } y^{j}=1}$
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$$



Random classifier: $A U C=0.5$, regardless of class proportions.

## Significance Using Multiple Datasets

Standard procedure in Machine Learning research:

- develop a new method
- compare it to results of previous methods on standard benchmarks

|  | HCRF | Our |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SIFT-flow | $31.22 \%$ | $\mathbf{2 7 . 7 3} \%$ |
| MSRC-21 | $78.89 \%$ | $\mathbf{8 1 . 1 1} \%$ |
| VOC 2008 | $20.13 \%$ | $\mathbf{3 0 . 1 2} \%$ |
| VOC 2009 | $42.43 \%$ | $\mathbf{4 3 . 3 7} \%$ |
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| "HCRF" method is better | 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| "Our" method is better | 4 |
| both methods are equal | 0 |

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- Idea 2: sign test (like binomial before): binom_test $(1,5)=0.375$
- Idea 3: take differences into account, not just the sign
- $H_{0}$ : differences have a symmetric distribution around zero


## Wilcoxon signed rank test

Given: real values $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ and $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}$

- drop all cases with $a_{i}=b_{i}$, call the remaining number of pairs $k$
- compute $\delta_{i}=\left|a_{i}-b_{i}\right|$ and $s_{i}=\operatorname{sign}\left(a_{i}-b_{i}\right)$
- sort elements from smallest to larges $\delta_{i}$
- compute rank, $R_{i}$, of each $\delta_{i}$, ties get average of covered ranks
- compute statistics (sum of signed ranks)

$$
W=\sum_{i=1}^{k} s_{i} R_{i}
$$

compare value to table, $W_{\text {critical, }}$ (large $k$ : Gaussian approximation)
"HCRF" vs. "Our" example (5 datasets):
$\bullet A=[31.22,78.89,20.13,42.43,30.13]$
$B=[27.73,81.11,30.12,43.37,32.14]$

- scipy.stats.wilcoxon $(A, B)=0.35$


## Wilcoxon signed rank test

Given: real values $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ and $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}$

| Class <br> ID | Name | Number of samples <br> (training) | Classification rate (\%) <br> Proposed <br> method |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Proposed <br> method with CA |  |  |  |
| 2 | $10 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{FT})$ | $900(100)$ | 99.00 | 99.50 |
| 3 | $10 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{FB})$ | $900(100)$ | 98.25 | 100.00 |
| 4 | $10 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{BT})$ | $900(100)$ | 98.25 | 99.88 |
| 5 | $10 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{BB})$ | $900(100)$ | 97.88 | 99.75 |
| 6 | $5 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{FT})$ | $900(100)$ | 94.00 | 100.00 |
| 7 | $5 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{BT})$ | $900(100)$ | 98.38 | 99.75 |
| 8 | $5 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{BB})$ | $900(100)$ | 94.25 | 97.00 |
| 9 | $1 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{FT})$ | $900(100)$ | 97.00 | 98.25 |
| 10 | $1 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{FB})$ | $900(100)$ | 95.13 | 99.63 |
| 11 | $1 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{BT})$ | $900(100)$ | 93.75 | 99.75 |
| 12 | $1 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{BB})$ | $900(100)$ | 95.13 | 99.00 |

- mean/std.err.: $96.5 \pm 1.84$, mean 2: $99.27 \pm 0.86$
- sign test: $+: 12=: 0 \quad-: 0, \quad$ binom_test $(0,12)=0.0005$
- signed rank test: wilcoxon (A,B) $=0.0022$


## Beyond Binary Classification

## Multiclass Classification - One-versus-rest reduction

Classification problems with $M$ classes:

- Training samples $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \subset \mathcal{X}$,
- Training labels $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\} \subset\{1, \ldots, M\}$,
- Task: learn a prediction function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, M\}$.


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## One-versus-rest construction:

- train one binary classifier $g_{c}: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for each class $c$ :
- all samples with class label $c$ are positive examples
- all other samples are negative examples
- classify by finding maximal response

$$
f(x)=\underset{c=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} g_{c}(x)
$$

Advantage: easy to implement, parallel, works well in practice
Disadvantage: with many classes, training sets become unbalanced. no explicit calibration of scores between different $g_{c}$

## Multiclass Classification - All-versus-all reduction

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## All-versus-all construction:

- train one classifier, $g_{i j}: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, for each pair of classes
$1 \leq i<j \leq M$, in total $\frac{m(m-1)}{2}$ prediction functions
- classify by voting

$$
f(x)=\underset{m=1, \ldots, M}{\operatorname{argmax}} \#\left\{i \in\{1, \ldots, M\}: g_{m, i}(x)>0\right\},
$$

(writing $g_{j, i}=-g_{i, j}$ for $j>i$ and $g_{j, j}=0$ )
Advantage: small and balanced training problems, parallel, works well.
Disadvantage: number of classifiers grows quadratically in classes.

## Multiclass Classification - Hierarchical

Classification problems with $M$ classes:

- Training samples $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \subset \mathcal{X}$,
- Training labels $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\} \subset\{1, \ldots, M\}$,
- Task: learn a prediction function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, M\}$.


## Hierarchical (tree) construction:

- construct binary tree with classes at leafs
- learn one classifier for each decision


Advantage: at most $\left\lceil\log _{2} M\right\rceil$ classifier evaluation at test time Disadvantage: not parallel, not robust to mistakes at any stage

## Multiclass Classification - Error Correcting Output Codes

Classification problems with $M$ classes:

- Training samples $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \subset \mathcal{X}$,
- Training labels $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\} \subset\{1, \ldots, M\}$,
- Task: learn a prediction function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, M\}$.

Define a binary codeword for each class

- one classifier for codeword entry
- classify by comparing predictions to code words (exact or in some norm)


Advantage: parallel, trade off between speed and robustness
Disadvantage: optimal code design NP-hard

## A Multiclass Support Vector Machines

- $\mathcal{X}$ anything, $\mathcal{Y}=\{1,2, \ldots, M\}$,
- feature $\operatorname{map} \phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ (explicit or implicit via kernel)
- training data $\left\{\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)\right\}$
- goal: learn functions $g_{i}(x)=\left\langle w_{i}, \phi(x)\right\rangle$ for $i=1, \ldots, M$.

Enforce a margin between the correct and highest-ranked incorrect label:

$$
\min _{w, \xi} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{M}\left\|w_{k}\right\|^{2}+\frac{C}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi^{i}
$$

subject to, for $i=1, \ldots, n$,

$$
\left\langle w_{y^{i}}, \phi\left(x^{i}\right)\right\rangle \geq 1+\left\langle w_{k}, \phi\left(x^{i}\right)\right\rangle-\xi^{i}, \quad \text { for all } k \neq y_{i}
$$

Prediction: $\quad f(x)=\underset{k=1, \ldots, M}{\operatorname{argmax}}\left\langle w_{k}, \phi(x)\right\rangle$
Crammer-Singer Multiclass SVM

## A Multiclass Support Vector Machines

Many different option for multi-class SVMs:

- One-versus-Rest
- One-versus-One
- ECOC
- Crammer-Singer

Which one is the best?

## A Multiclass Support Vector Machines

Many different option for multi-class SVMs:

- One-versus-Rest
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- Crammer-Singer
- ...


## Which one is the best?

None (or all of them)!

- there's dozens of studies, they all disagree
- use whatever is available
- to implement yourself, One-versus-Rest is most popular, since it's simplest


## More Kernel-Methods

Kernels are useful for many other things besides SVMs:

Any algorithm that uses the data only in form of inner products can be kernelized.

How to kernelize an algorithm:

- Write the algorithms in terms of only inner products.
- Replace all inner products by kernel function evaluations.

The resulting algorithm will do the same as the linear version, but in the (hidden) feature space $\mathcal{H}$.

Caveat: working in $\mathcal{H}$ is not a guarantee for better performance.
A good choice of $k$ and model-selection are important!

## Linear Regression

Given samples $x_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and function values $y_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$. Find a linear function $f(x)=\langle w, x\rangle$ that approximates the values.

Interpolation error:

$$
e_{i}:=\left(y_{i}-\left\langle w, x_{i}\right\rangle\right)^{2}
$$

Solve for $\lambda \geq 0$ :
$\min _{w \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} \sum_{i} e_{i}+\lambda\|w\|^{2}$


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Very popular, because it has a closed form solution!

$$
w=X\left(\lambda I_{n}+X^{\top} X\right)^{-1} y
$$

with $I_{n}$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, $X=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{\top}$ is the data matrix, $y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)^{\top}$ is the target vector.

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w=X\left(\lambda I_{n}+X^{\top} X\right)^{-1} y
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with $I_{n}$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, $X=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{\top}$ is the data matrix, $y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)^{\top}$ is the target vector.

## Nonlinear Regression

Given $x_{i} \in \mathcal{X}, y_{i} \in \mathbb{R}, i=1, \ldots, n$, and $\phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$. Find an approximating function $f(x)=\langle w, \phi(x)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \quad$ (non-linear in $x$, linear in $w$ ). Interpolation error:

$$
e_{i}:=\left(y_{i}-\left\langle w, \phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\right)^{2}
$$

Solve for $\lambda \geq 0$ :

$$
\min _{w \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} \sum_{i} e_{i}+\lambda\|w\|^{2}
$$



## Nonlinear Regression

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Solve for $\lambda \geq 0$ :

$$
\min _{w \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} \sum_{i} e_{i}+\lambda\|w\|^{2}
$$



Closed form solution is still valid:

$$
w=\Phi\left(\lambda I_{n}+\Phi^{\top} \Phi\right)^{-1} y
$$

with $I_{n}$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, $\Phi=\left(\phi\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \phi\left(x_{n}\right)\right)^{\top}$.

## Example: Kernel Ridge Regression

What if $\mathcal{H}$ and $\phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ are given implicitly by kernel function?
We cannot store the closed form solution vector $w \in \mathcal{H}$ :

$$
w=\Phi\left(\lambda I_{n}+\Phi^{\top} \Phi\right)^{-1} y
$$

but we can still calculate $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =\langle w, \phi(x)\rangle \\
& =\langle\Phi(\lambda I_{n}+\underbrace{\Phi^{\top} \Phi}_{=K})^{-1} y, \phi(x)\rangle \\
& =y^{\top}\left(\lambda I_{n}+K\right)^{-1} \kappa(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\kappa(x)=\left(k\left(x_{1}, x\right), \ldots, k\left(x_{n}, x\right)\right)^{\top}$.

## Kernel Ridge Regression

## Nonlinear Regression

Like Least-Squared Regression, (Kernel) Ridge Regression is sensitive to outliers:


because the quadratic loss function penalized large residue.

## Nonlinear Regression

Support Vector Regression with $\epsilon$-insensitive loss is more robust:





## Support Vector Regression

Optimization problem similar to support vector machine:

$$
\min _{\substack{w \in \mathcal{H}, \xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}, \xi^{\prime}, \ldots, \xi^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}}}\|w\|^{2}+C \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\xi_{i}+\xi_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

subject to

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
y_{i}-\left\langle w, \phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right\rangle \leq \epsilon+\xi_{i}, & \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n \\
\left\langle w, \phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right\rangle-y_{i} \leq \epsilon+\xi_{i}^{\prime}, & \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n
\end{array}
$$

Dualization (or the "Representer Theorem") tell us that $w=\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} \phi\left(x_{j}\right)$.

## Support Vector Regression

Optimization problem similar to support vector machine:

$$
\min _{\substack{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n} \in \mathbb{R}, \xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}, \xi_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \xi_{n}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}}} \quad \sum_{i, j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j}\left\langle\phi\left(x_{i}\right), \phi\left(x_{j}\right)\right\rangle+C \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\xi_{i}+\xi_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

subject to

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
y_{i}-\sum_{j} \alpha_{j}\left\langle\phi\left(x_{j}\right), \phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right\rangle \leq \epsilon+\xi_{i}, & \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n \\
\sum_{j} \alpha_{j}\left\langle\phi\left(x_{j}\right), \phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right\rangle-y_{i} \leq \epsilon+\xi_{i}^{\prime}, & \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n
\end{array}
$$

Rewrite in terms of kernel evaluations $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left\langle\phi(x), \phi\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$.

## Support Vector Regression

Optimization problem similar to support vector machine:

$$
\min _{\substack{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n} \in \mathbb{R}, \xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}, \xi_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \xi_{n}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}}} \quad \sum_{i, j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)+C \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\xi_{i}+\xi_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

subject to

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
y_{i}-\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} k\left(x_{j}, x_{i}\right) \leq \epsilon+\xi_{i}, & \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n \\
\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} k\left(x_{j}, x_{i}\right)-y_{i} \leq \epsilon+\xi_{i}^{\prime}, & \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n
\end{array}
$$

Regression function

$$
f(x)=\langle w, \phi(x)\rangle=\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} k\left(x_{j}, x\right)
$$

## Example - Head Pose Estimation

- Detect faces in image
- Compute gradient representation of face region
- Train support vector regression for yaw, tilt (separately)

(a) Sample frames of a test sequence

(b) Yaw estimation

(c) Tilt estimation
[Li, Gong, Sherra, Liddell, "Support vector machine based multi-view face detection and recognition", IVC 2004]


## Outlier/Anomaly Detection in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$

For unlabeled data, we are interested to detect outliers, i.e. samples that lie far away from most of the other samples.

- For samples $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ find the smallest ball (center $c$, radius $R$ ) that contains "most" of the samples.




## Outlier/Anomaly Detection in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$

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- For samples $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ find the smallest ball (center $c$, radius $R$ ) that contains "most" of the samples.
- Solve

$$
\min _{R \in \mathbb{R}, c \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \xi_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}} R^{2}+\frac{1}{\nu n} \sum_{i} \xi_{i}
$$

subject to

$$
\left\|x_{i}-c\right\|^{2} \leq R^{2}+\xi_{i} \quad \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n
$$

- $\nu \in(0,1)$ upper bounds the number of "outliers".


## Outlier/Anomaly Detection in Arbirary Inputs

Use a kernel $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with an implicit feature map $\phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$.
Do outlier detection for $\phi\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \phi\left(x_{n}\right)$ :

- Find the small ball (center $c \in \mathcal{H}$, radius $R$ ) that contains "most" of the samples:
- Solve

$$
\min _{R \in \mathbb{R}, c \in \mathcal{H}, \xi_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}} R^{2}+\frac{1}{\nu n} \sum_{i} \xi_{i}
$$

subject to

$$
\left\|\phi\left(x_{i}\right)-c\right\|^{2} \leq R^{2}+\xi_{i} \quad \text { for } i=1, \ldots, n
$$

- Representer theorem: $c=\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} \phi\left(x_{j}\right)$, and everything can be written using only $k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$.

Support Vector Data Description

## Example - Steganalysis

- Steganography: hide data in other data (e.g. in images)
- e.g.: flip some least significant bits
- Steganalysis: given any data, find out if data is hidden

original

with 23300 hidden bits
- compute image statistics (color wavelet coefficients)
- train SVDD with RBF-kernel
- identified outlier images are suspicious candidates

