

# CMSC 478

# Machine Learning

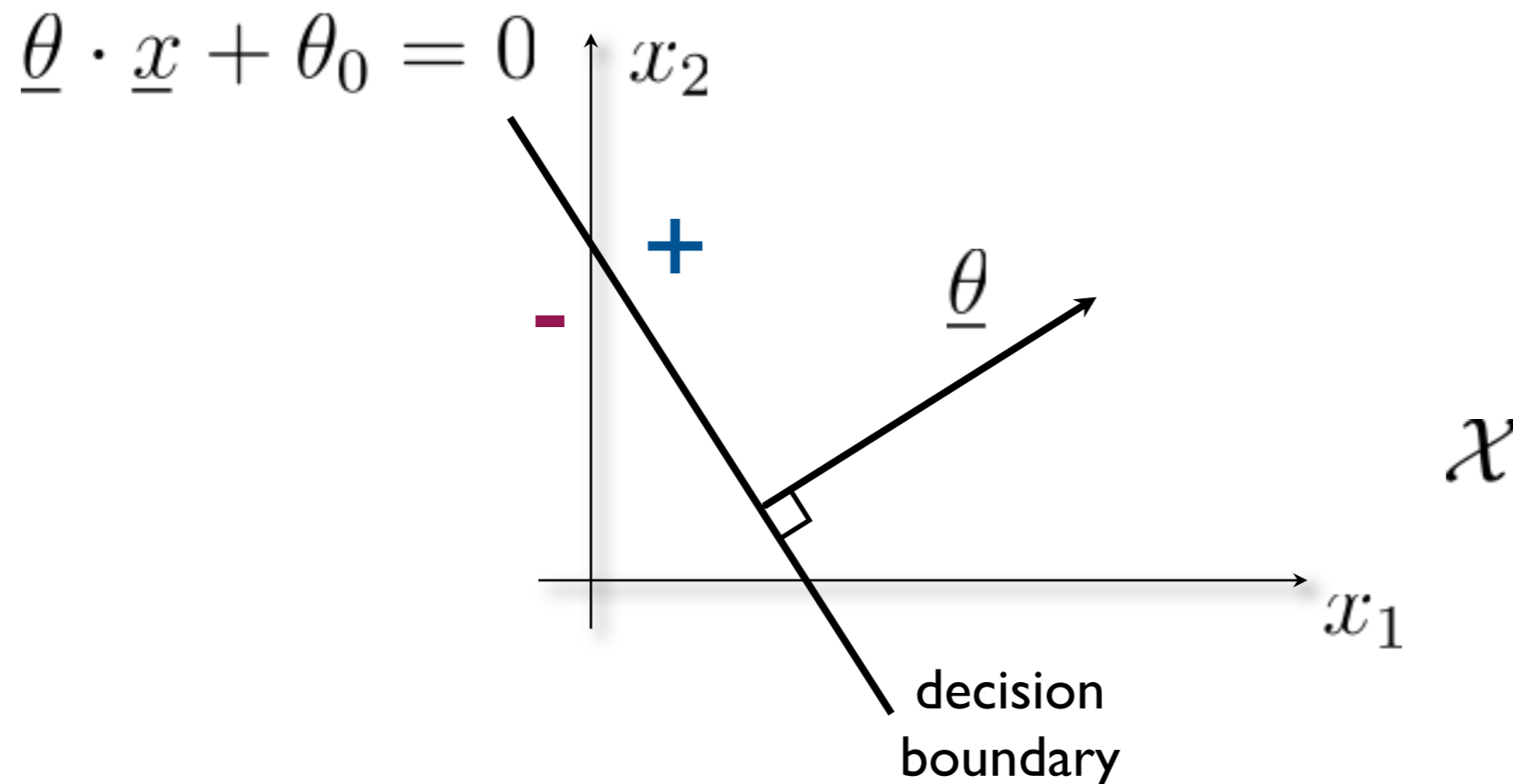
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*(originally prepared by Tommi Jaakkola, MIT CSAIL)*

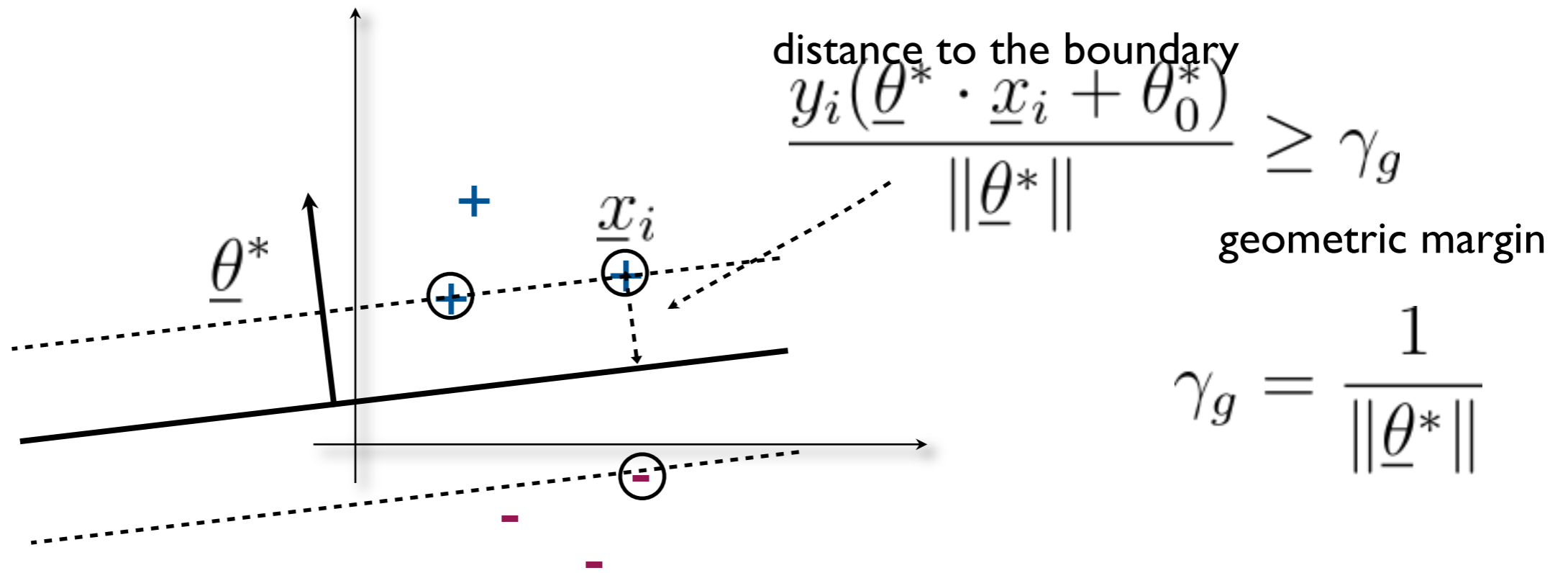
# Linear classifiers (with offset)

- A linear classifier with parameters  $(\underline{\theta}, \theta_0)$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \theta_0) &= \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x} + \theta_0) \\ &= \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } \underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x} + \theta_0 > 0 \\ -1, & \text{if } \underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x} + \theta_0 \leq 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$



# Support vector machine



To find  $\underline{\theta}^*, \theta_0^*$  : minimize  $\frac{1}{2} \|\underline{\theta}\|^2$  subject to

$$y_i(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x}_i + \theta_0) \geq 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

- We get a max-margin decision boundary by solving a quadratic programming problem
- The solution is unique and sparse (support vectors)

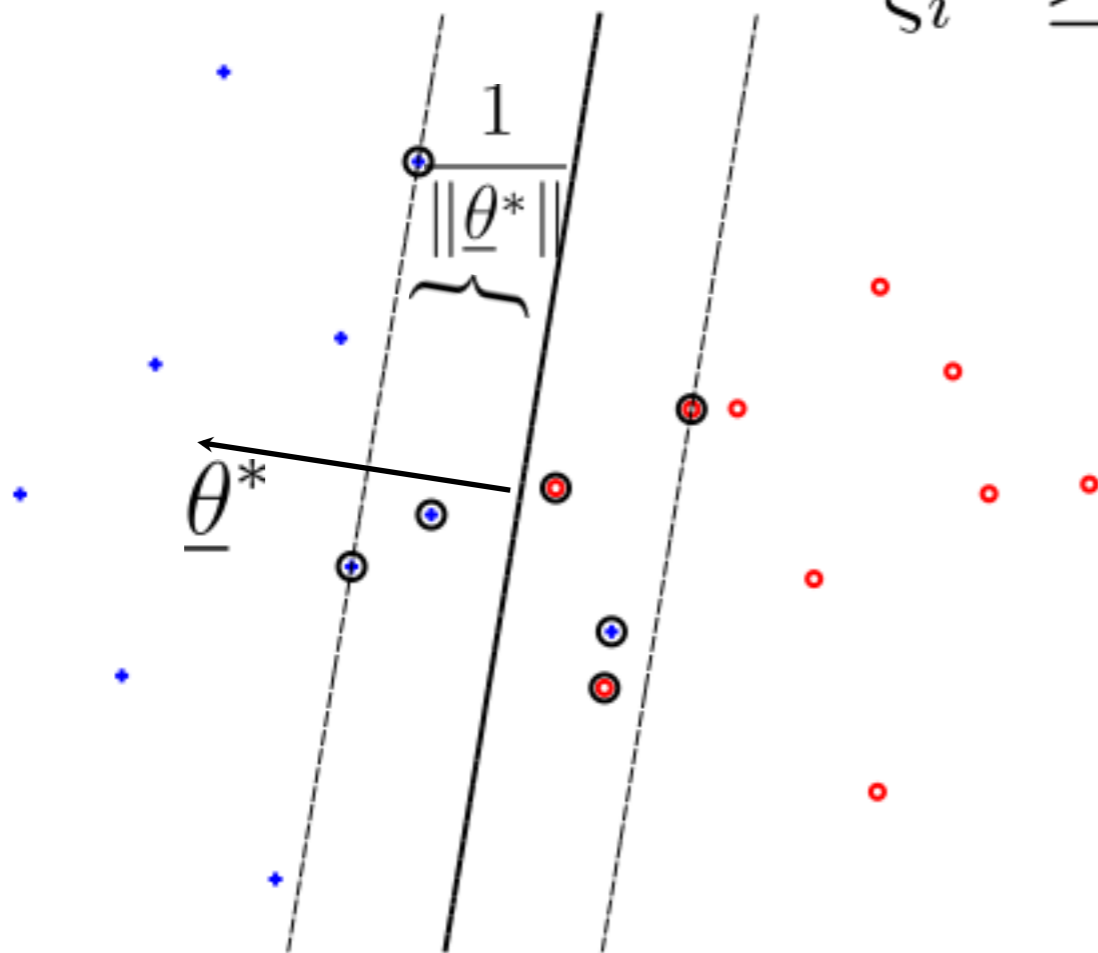
# Support vector machine

- Relaxed quadratic optimization problem

$$\text{minimize } \frac{1}{2} \|\underline{\theta}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \quad \text{subject to}$$

$$y_i(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x}_i + \theta_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

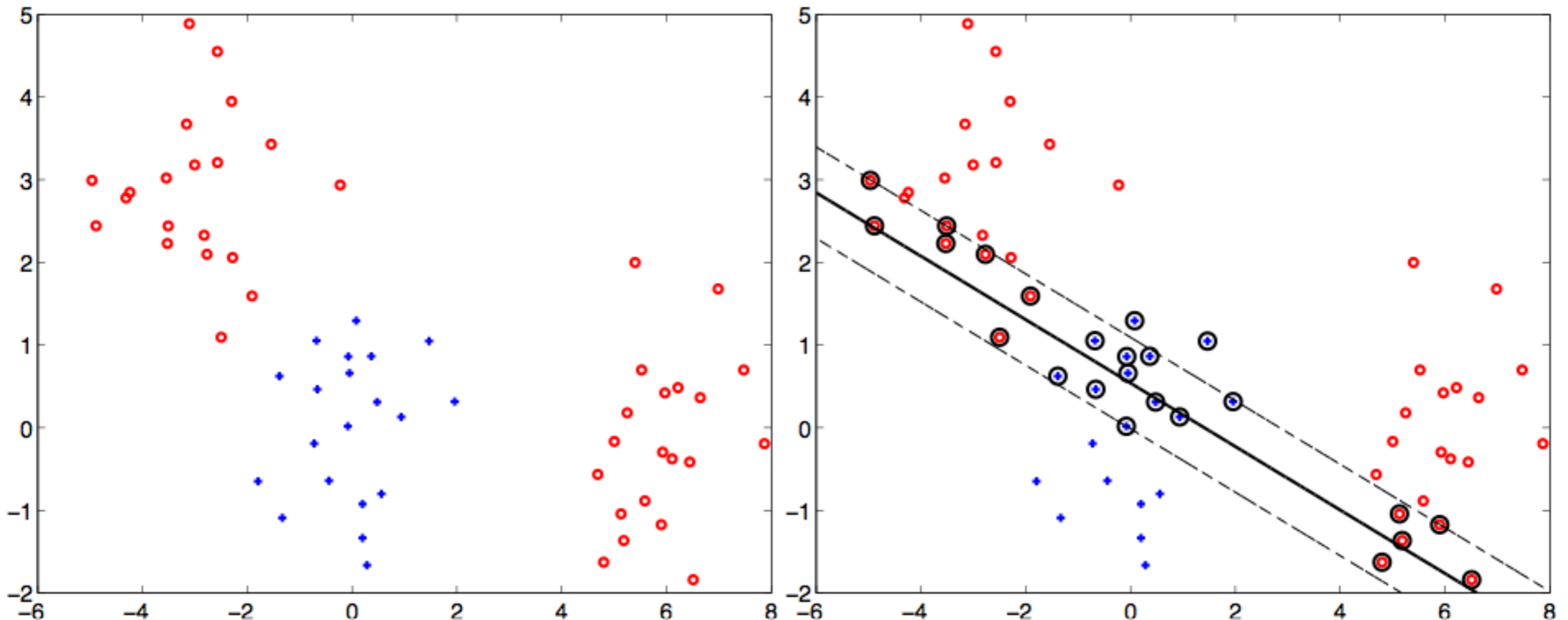
$$\xi_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$



The value of  $C$  is an additional parameter we have to set

# Beyond linear classifiers...

- Many problems are not solved well by a linear classifier even if we allow misclassified examples (SVM with slack)
- E.g., data from experiments typically involve “clusters” of different types of examples



# Non-linear feature mappings

- The easiest way to make the classifier more powerful is to add non-linear coordinates to the feature vectors
- The classifier is still linear in the parameters, not inputs

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \underline{\phi}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \theta_0) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x} + \theta_0)$$

linear classifier

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non-linear classifier

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linear classifier

$$\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x} + \theta_0 = 0$$

$$f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \theta_0) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) + \theta_0)$$

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linear classifier

$$\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{x} + \theta_0 = 0$$

$$\theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_0 = 0$$

linear decision  
boundary

$$f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \theta_0) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) + \theta_0)$$

non-linear classifier



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non-linear classifier

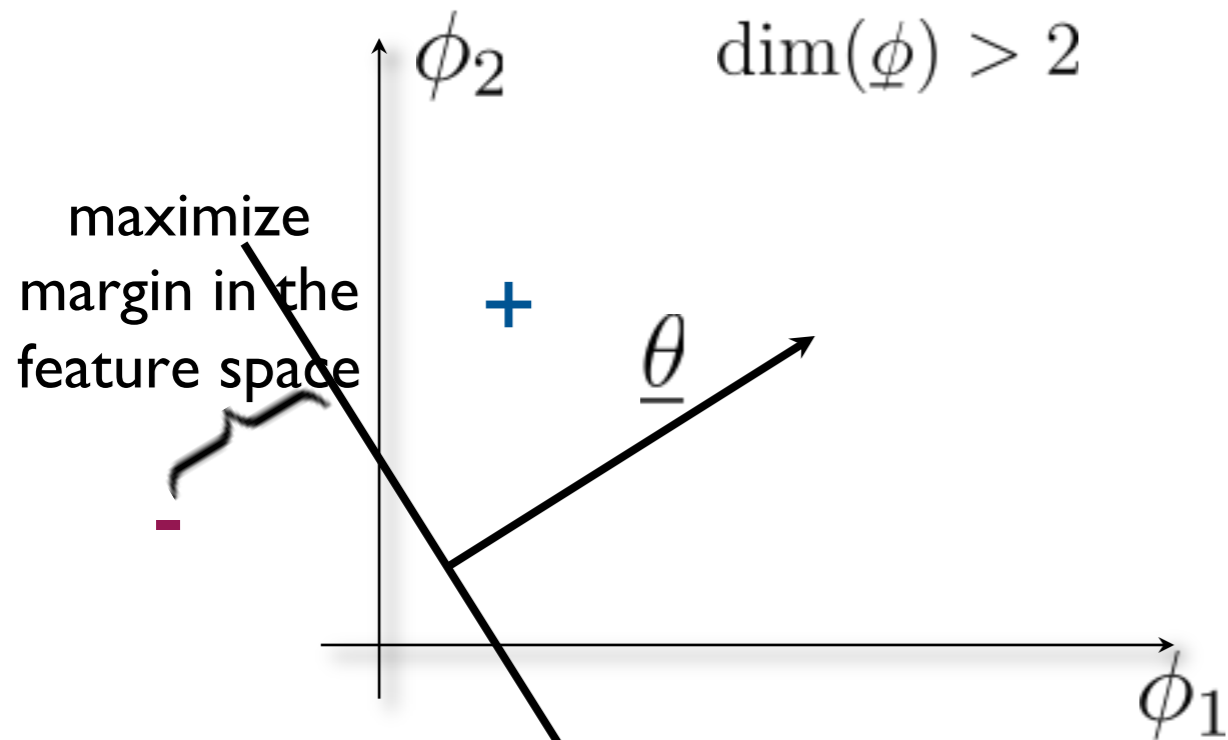
$$\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) + \theta_0 = 0$$

$$\theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_3 x_1^2 + \theta_4 \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2 + \theta_5 x_2^2 + \theta_0 = 0$$

non-linear decision boundary

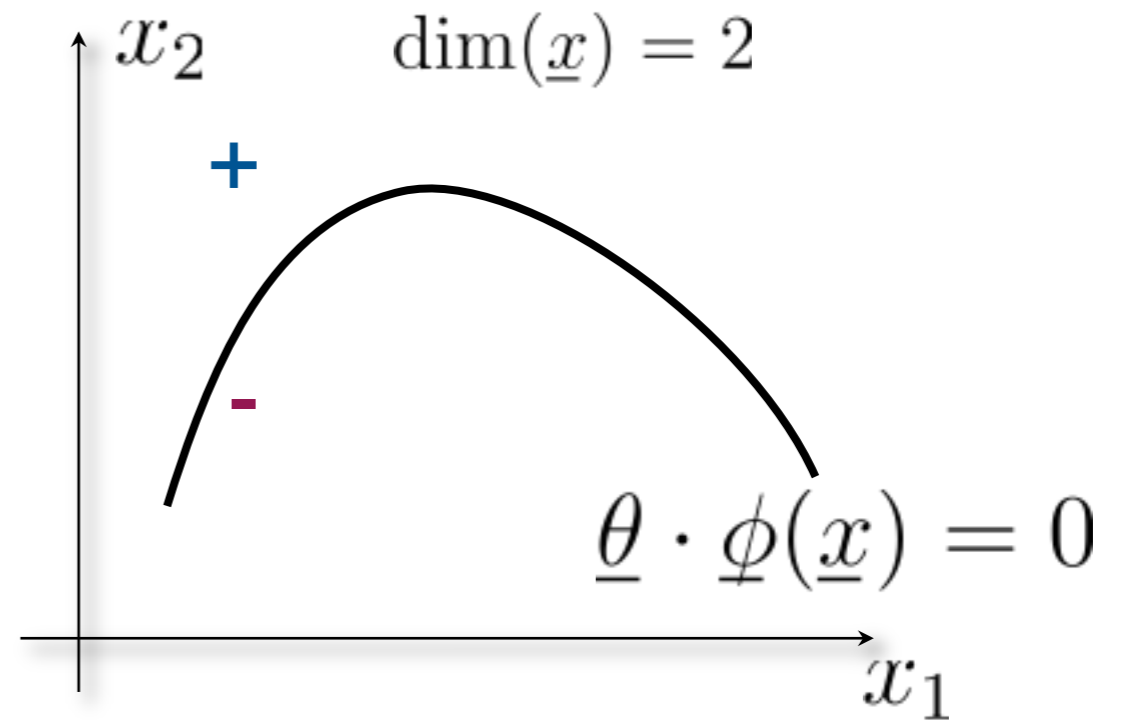
# Non-linear feature mappings

- By expanding the feature coordinates, we still have a linear classifier in the new feature coordinates but a non-linear classifier in the original coordinates



$$\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi} = 0$$

$$f(\underline{\phi}; \underline{\theta}, \theta_0) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi} + \theta_0)$$



$$f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \theta_0) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) + \theta_0)$$

# Learning non-linear classifiers

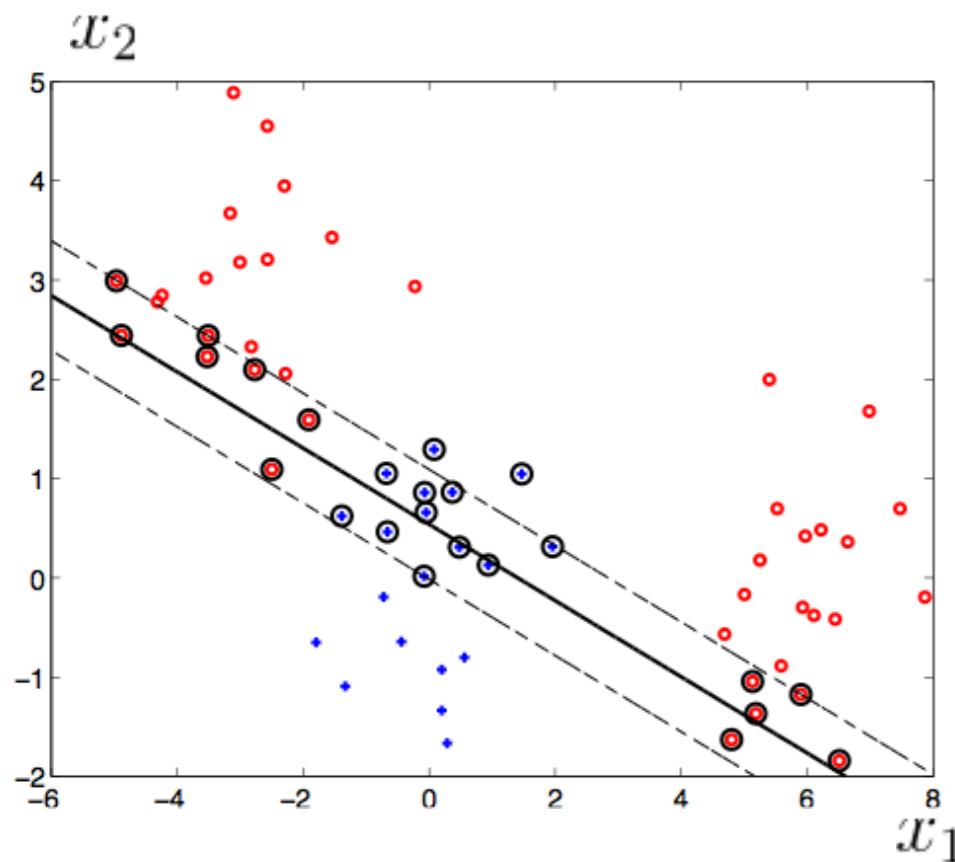
- We can apply the same SVM formulation, just replacing the input examples with (higher dimensional) feature vectors

$$\begin{aligned} \text{minimize } & \frac{1}{2} \|\underline{\theta}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \quad \text{subject to} \\ & y_i(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_i) + \theta_0) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \\ & \xi_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

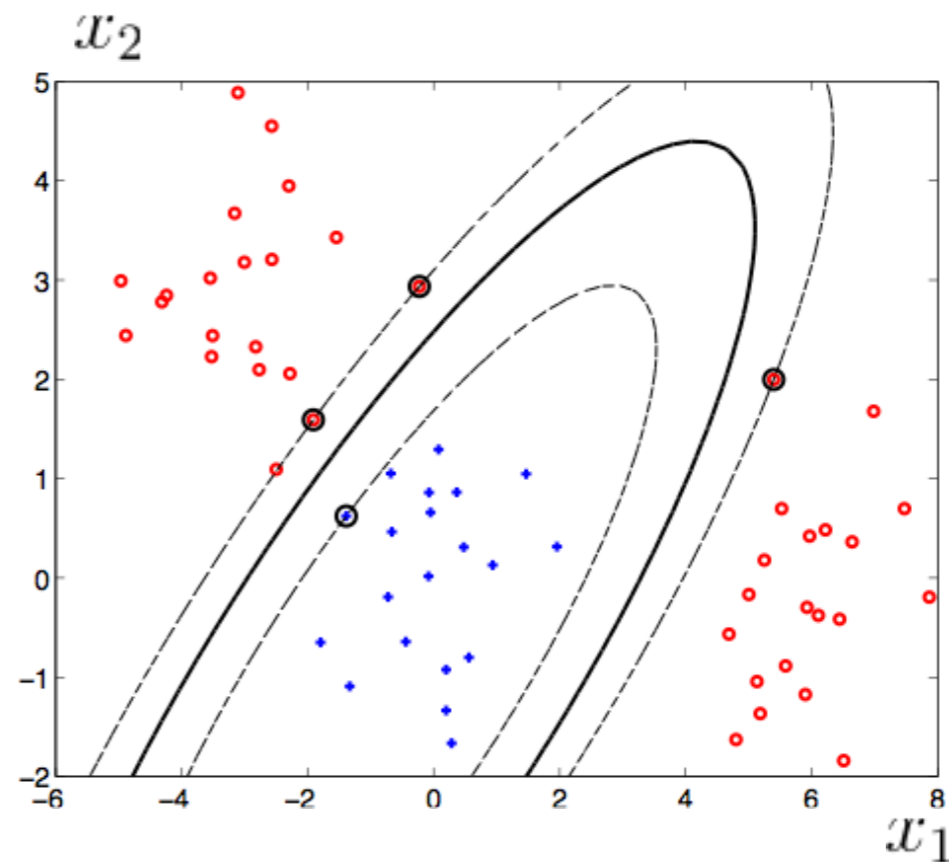
- Note that the cost of solving this quadratic programming problem increases with the dimension of the feature vectors (we will avoid this issues by solving the dual instead)

# Non-linear classifiers

- Many (low dimensional) problems are not solved well by a linear classifier even with slack
- By mapping examples to feature vectors, and maximizing a linear margin in the feature space, we obtain non-linear margin curves in the original space



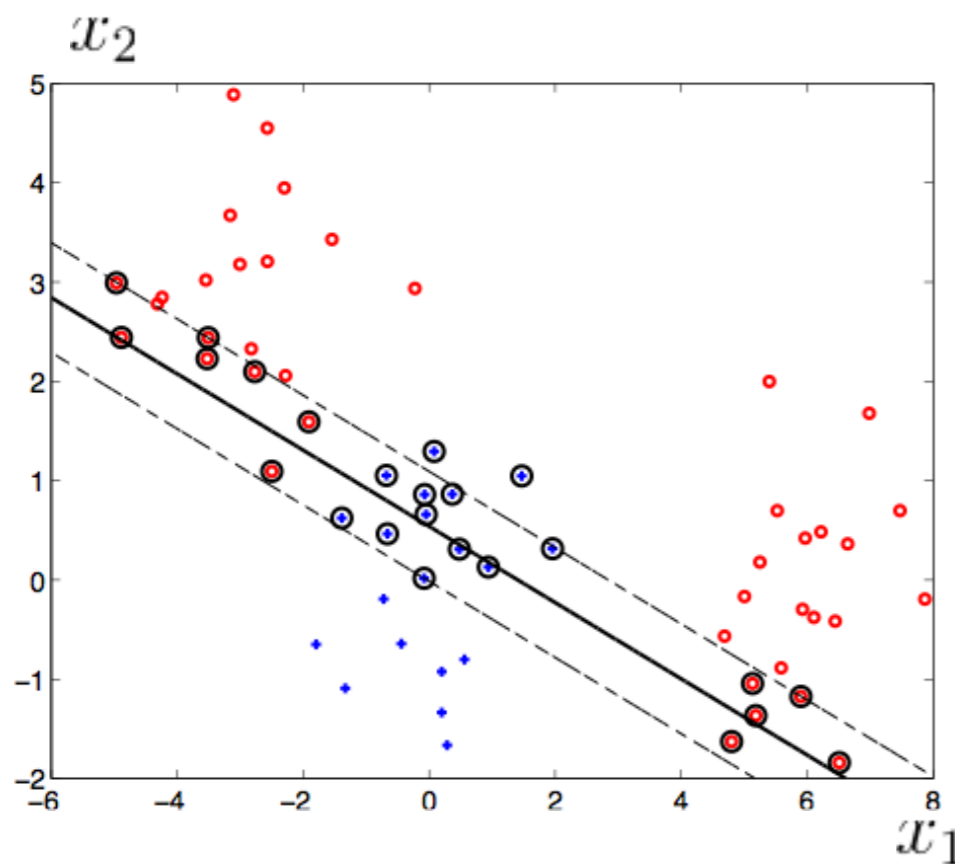
linear features



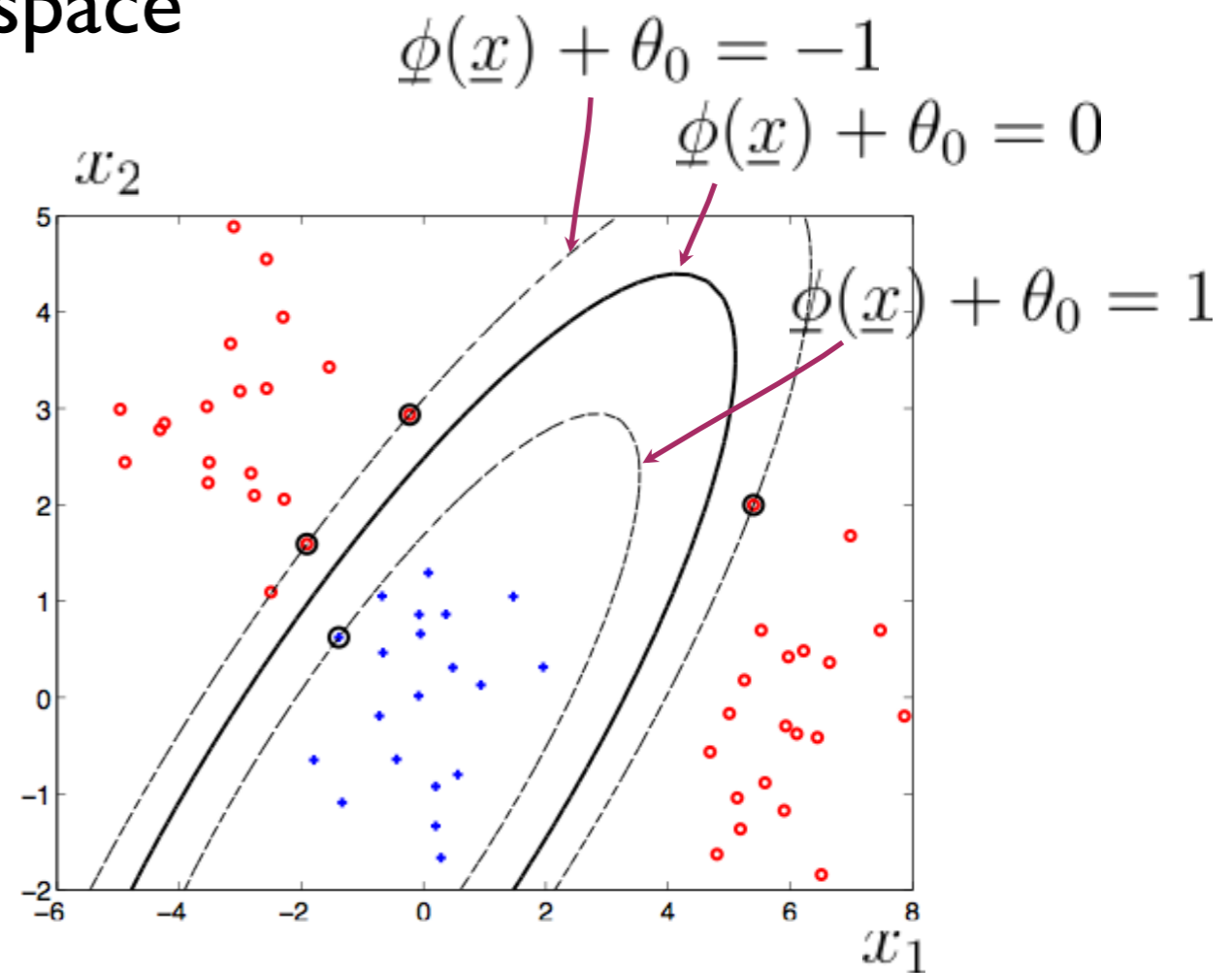
2nd order features

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linear features

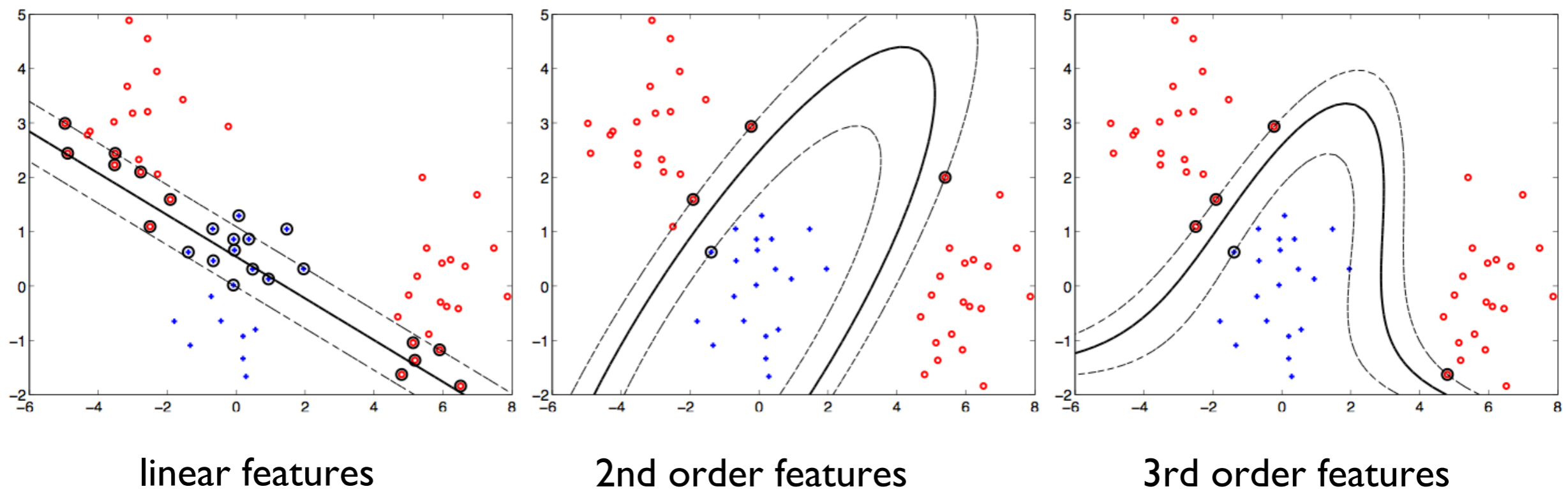


2nd order features

# Problems to resolve

By using non-linear feature mappings we get more powerful sets of classifiers

- Computational efficiency?
  - the cost of using higher dimensional feature vectors (seems to) increase with the dimension
- Model selection?
  - how do we choose among different feature mappings?



# Non-linear perceptron, kernels

- Non-linear feature mappings can be dealt with more efficiently through their inner products or “kernels”
- We will begin by turning the perceptron classifier with non-linear features into a “kernel perceptron”
- For simplicity, we drop the offset parameter

$$f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}))$$

Initialize:  $\underline{\theta} = 0$

For  $t = 1, 2, \dots$  (applied in a sequence or repeatedly over a fixed training set)

if  $y_t(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_t)) \leq 0$  (mistake)

$$\underline{\theta} \leftarrow \underline{\theta} + y_t \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_t)$$



# On perceptron updates

- Each update adds  $y_t \phi(\underline{x}_t)$  to the parameter vector
- Repeated updates on the same example simply result in adding the same term multiple times
- We can therefore write the current perceptron solution as a function of how many times we performed an update on each training example

$$\underline{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \phi(\underline{x}_i)$$

$$\alpha_i \in \{0, 1, \dots\}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = \# \text{ of mistakes}$$

# Kernel perceptron

- By switching to the “count” representation, we can write the perceptron algorithm entirely in terms of inner products between the feature vectors

$$f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \text{sign}(\underline{\theta} \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x})) = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i [\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_i) \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x})]\right)$$

Initialize:  $\alpha_i = 0, i = 1, \dots, n$

Repeat until convergence:

for  $t = 1, \dots, n$

if  $y_t \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i [\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_i) \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_t)] \right) \leq 0$  (mistake)

$\alpha_t \leftarrow \alpha_t + 1$

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# Feature mappings and kernels

- In the kernel perceptron algorithm, the feature vectors appear only as inner products
- Instead of explicitly constructing feature vectors, we can try to explicate their inner product or kernel
- $K : \mathcal{R}^d \times \mathcal{R}^d \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is a kernel function if there exists a feature mapping such that

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$$

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- Examples of polynomial kernels

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}')$$

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}') + (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}')^2$$

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}') + (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}')^2 + (\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}')^3$$

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = (1 + \underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}')^p, \quad p = 1, 2, \dots$$

# Radial basis kernel

- The feature “vectors” corresponding to kernels may also be infinite dimensional (functions)
- This is the case, e.g., for the radial basis kernel

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \exp \left( -\beta \|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'\|^2 \right), \quad \beta > 0$$

- Any distinct set of training points, regardless of their labels, are separable using this kernel function!

# Kernel perceptron cont'd

- We can now apply the kernel perceptron algorithm without ever explicating the feature vectors

$$f(\underline{x}; \alpha) = \text{sign} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}) \right)$$

Initialize:  $\alpha_i = 0, i = 1, \dots, n$

Repeat until convergence:

for  $t = 1, \dots, n$

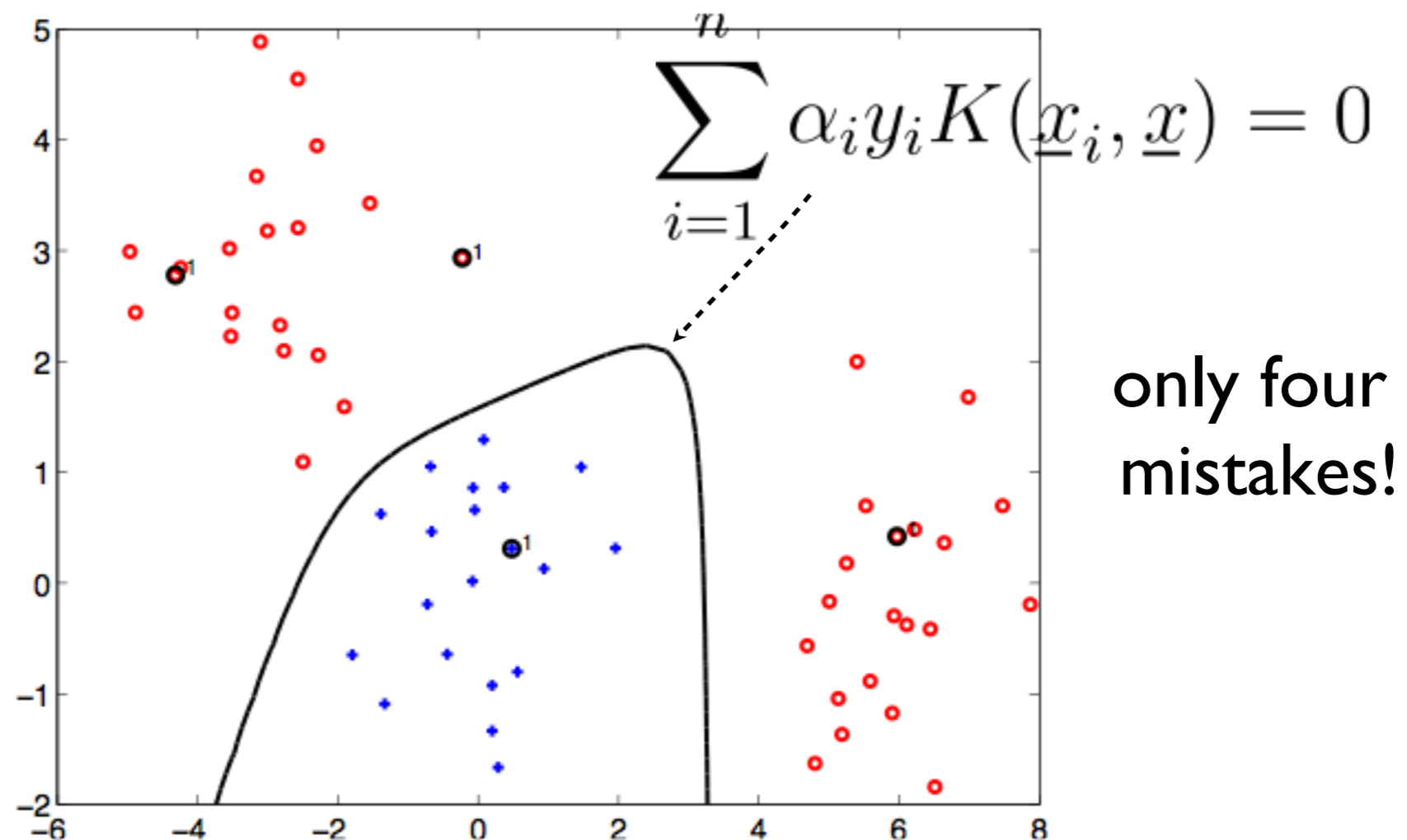
if  $y_t \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}_t) \right) \leq 0$  (mistake)

$\alpha_t \leftarrow \alpha_t + 1$

# Kernel perceptron: example

- With a radial basis kernel

$$f(\underline{x}; \alpha) = \text{sign} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}) \right)$$

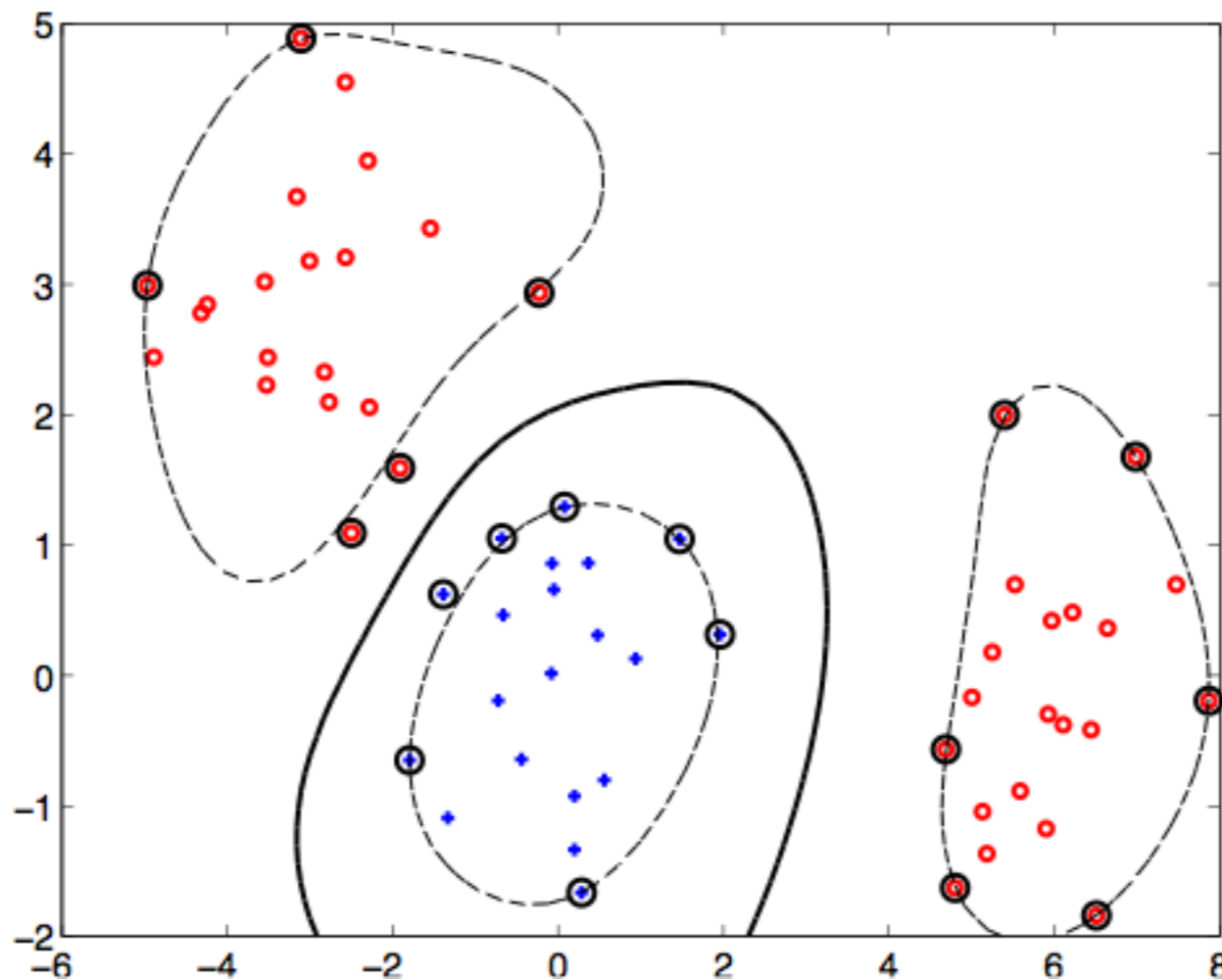




# Kernel SVM

- We can also turn SVM into its dual (kernel) form and implicitly find the max-margin linear separator in the feature space, e.g., corresponding to the radial basis kernel

$$f(\underline{x}; \alpha) = \text{sign} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(\underline{x}_i, \underline{x}) + \theta_0 \right)$$



Extra Slides

# Composition rules for kernels

- We can construct valid kernels from simple components
- For any function  $f : R^d \rightarrow R$ , if  $K_1$  is a kernel, then so is

$$1) \quad K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = f(\underline{x})K_1(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')f(\underline{x}')$$

- The set of kernel functions is closed under addition and multiplication: if  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are kernels, then so are

$$2) \quad K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = K_1(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') + K_2(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$$

$$3) \quad K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = K_1(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')K_2(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$$

- The composition rules are also helpful in verifying that a kernel is valid (i.e., corresponds to an inner product of some feature vectors)

# Radial basis kernel

- The feature “vectors” corresponding to kernels may also be infinite dimensional (functions)
- This is the case, e.g., for the radial basis kernel

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- We can use the composition rules to show that this is indeed a valid kernel

$$\exp\{-\beta\|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'\|^2\} = \exp\{-\beta\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x} + 2\beta\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}' - \beta\underline{x}' \cdot \underline{x}'\}$$

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$$e^z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!} = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots$$

← Infinite Taylor series expansion

# Kernels

- By writing the algorithm in a “kernel” form, we can try to work with the kernel (inner product) directly rather than explicating the high dimensional feature vectors

$$\begin{aligned} K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') &= \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}') \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} ? \\ \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} ? \\ \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \exp(-\|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'\|^2) \quad (\text{e.g.}) \end{aligned}$$

- All we need to ensure is that the kernel is “valid”, i.e., there exists some underlying feature representation



# Valid kernels

- A kernel function is valid (is a kernel) if there exists some feature mapping such that

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) \cdot \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$$

- Equivalently, a kernel is valid if it is symmetric and for all training sets, the Gram matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} K(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_1) & \cdots & K(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_n) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ K(\underline{x}_n, \underline{x}_1) & \cdots & K(\underline{x}_n, \underline{x}_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

is positive semi-definite