CS5489 - Machine Learning

Lecture 4a - Non-Linear Classifiers

Prof. Antoni B. Chan

Dept. of Computer Science, City University of Hong Kong

Outline

- 1. Nonlinear classifiers
- 2. Kernel trick and kernel SVM
- 3. Ensemble Methods Boosting, Random Forests
- 4. Classification Summary

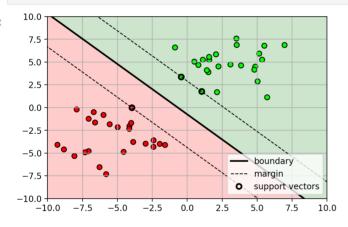
Linear Classifiers

- · So far we have only looked at linear classifiers
 - separate classes using a hyperplane (line, plane).
 - e.g., support vector machine, logistic regression



maxmfig



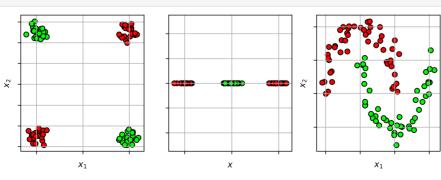


Non-linear decision boundary

• What if the data is separable, but not linearly separable?

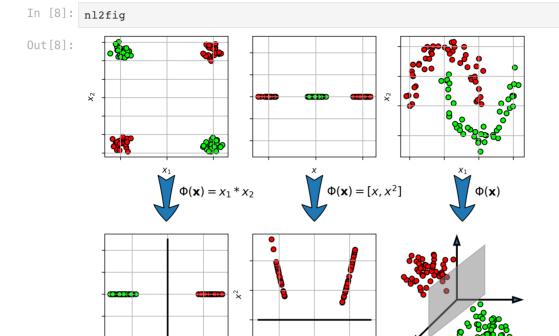
In [6]: nlfig

Out[6]:



Idea - transform the input space

- map from input space $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to a new high-dimensional space $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^D$.
 - $\mathbf{z} = \Phi(\mathbf{x})$, where $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ is the transformation function.
- learn the linear classifier in the new space
 - if dimension of new space is large enough (D>d), then the data should be linearly separable



Example

- Let's try it...
 - 2-dimensional vector inputs

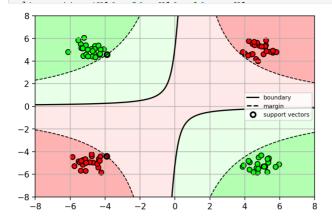
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

 X_1X_2

transformation consists of quadratic terms

$$egin{aligned} \circ \; \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = egin{bmatrix} x_1^2 \ x_1x_2 \ x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

high-dimensional features space



SVM with transformed input

- Given a training set $\{\mathbf{x}_i,y_i\}_{i=1}^N$, the original SVM training is:

$$rgmin_{\mathbf{w},b} rac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} \quad ext{s. t. } y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b) \geq 1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq N$$

• Apply high-dimensional transform to input ${f x} o \Phi({f x})$:

$$rgmin_{\mathbf{w},b} rac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} \quad ext{s. t. } y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + b) \geq 1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq N$$

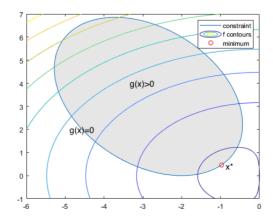
- **Note:** the hyperplane $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is now in the high-dimensional space!
 - if D is very large,
 - \circ calculating feature vector $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ could be time consuming.
 - o optimization could be very inefficient in high-dimensional space.
 - To solve this problem requires some optimization theory...

Review of Constrained Optimization

• Consider an optimization problem with inequality constraints:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ s.t. } g(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$$

- $f(\mathbf{x})$ is the objective function (for SVM, it's the inverse margin).
- $g(\mathbf{x})$ is the constraint function (for SVM, it's the margin constraint).



• Use Langrange multipliers to solve this problem:

- introduce Lagrange multiplier: $\lambda \geq 0$
- form the Lagrangian: $L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = f(\mathbf{x}) \lambda g(\mathbf{x})$
- find the stationary point $(\mathbf{x}^*, \lambda^*)$ of the Lagrangian
 - find solution of $\frac{dL}{d\mathbf{x}} = 0$ and $\frac{dL}{d\lambda} = 0$.
- at the solution, the Langrange multiplier indicates the mode of the inequality constraint
 - when $\lambda^* > 0$, then $g(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ (called "active equality").
 - $\circ \;$ when $\lambda^*=0$, then $g(\mathbf{x}^*)>0$ (called "inactive").

Duality

- We can rewrite the original (primal) problem into its dual form:
 - dual function: $q(\lambda) = \min_{\mathbf{x}} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda)$
 - dual problem: $\max_{\lambda \geq 0} q(\lambda)$
- Solve for λ , rather than original variable \mathbf{x} .
 - can recover the value of \mathbf{x} from λ .
- If the optimization problem is convex...
 - solving the dual is equivalent to solving the **primal**
 - $\bullet \min_{\mathbf{x}, q(\mathbf{x}) > 0} f(\mathbf{x}) = \max_{\lambda > 0} q(\lambda).$
- Note: The SVM problem is convex, so we can obtain an equivalent dual problem.

Lagrange multipliers & SVM

• introduce a Langrange multiplier $lpha_i$ for each constrain

$$L(\mathbf{w}, lpha) = rac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} - \sum_i lpha_i [y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1]$$

- Lagrange multiplier tells us which points are on the margin:
 - If $\alpha_i = 0$, then $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) > 1$ (\mathbf{x}_i is beyond margin).
 - If $\alpha_i > 0$, then $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) = 1$ (\mathbf{x}_i is on the margin).
 - i.e., the point is a support vector.

SVM Dual Problem

• The SVM problem can be rewritten as a dual problem:

$$egin{aligned} rgmax \sum_{lpha} lpha_i - rac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N lpha_i lpha_j y_i y_j \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \ \mathrm{s.\,t.} \sum_{i=1}^N lpha_i y_i = 0, \quad lpha_i \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

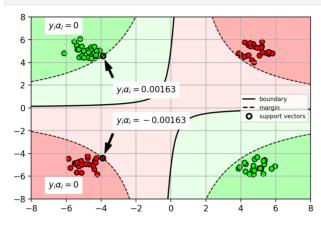
- The new variable α_i corresponds to each training sample (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) .
 - instead of solving for \mathbf{w} , we now solve for α
- For soft-margin SVM, the constraint on lpha is $C \geq lpha_i \geq 0$
- Recover the hyperplane **w** using α :
 - weighted combination of (transformed) data points.
 - $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- Classify a new point \mathbf{x}_*

$$y_* = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_*) + b) \tag{1}$$

- Interpretation of α_i
 - $lpha_i=0$ when the sample \mathbf{x}_i is not on the margin.
 - $\alpha_i > 0$ when the sample \mathbf{x}_i is on the margin (or violates).
 - \circ i.e., the sample \mathbf{x}_i is a support vector.
 - $\circ \ y_i \alpha_i > 0$ margin sample for positive class
 - $y_i \alpha_i < 0$ margin sample for negative class.

In [13]: alfig





Kernel function

- the SVM dual problem is completely written in terms of inner product between the high-dimensional feature vectors: $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- So rather than explicitly calculate the high-dimensional vector $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$,
 - we only need to calculate the inner product between two high-dim feature vectors.
- We call this a kernel function
 - $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
 - calculating the kernel will be less expensive than explicitly calculating the high-dimensional feature vector and the inner product.

Example: Polynomial kernel

$$ullet$$
 input vector $\mathbf{x} = egin{bmatrix} x_1 \ dots \ x_d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

ullet kernel between two vectors is a p-th order polynomial:

•
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^p = (\sum_{i=1}^d x_i x_i')^p$$

• For example, p=2,

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2 = (\sum_{i=1}^d x_i x_i')^2$$
 (3)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} (x_i x_i' x_j x_j') = \Phi(\mathbf{x})^T \Phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

$$(4)$$

• transformed feature space is the quadratic terms of the input vector:

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = egin{bmatrix} x_1x_1 \ x_1x_2 \ dots \ x_2x_1 \ x_2x_2 \ dots \ x_dx_1 \ dots \ \end{bmatrix}$$

- Comparison of number of multiplications
 - for kernel: O(d)
 - explicit transformation Φ : $O(d^2)$

Kernel trick

- Replacing the inner product with a kernel function in the optimization problem is called the kernel trick.
 - turns a linear classification algorithm into a non-linear classification algorithm.
 - the shape of the decision boundary is determined by the kernel.

Kernel SVM

• Replace inner product in linear SVM with kernel function:

$$egin{aligned} rgmax \sum_{lpha} lpha_i - rac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N lpha_i lpha_j y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \ & ext{s. t.} \sum_{i=1}^N lpha_i y_i = 0, \quad lpha_i \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

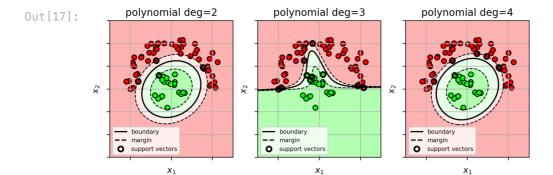
- Prediction
 - $y_* = \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_*) + b)$

Example: Kernel SVM with polynomial kernel

- decision surface is a "cut" of a polynomial surface
- higher polynomial-order yields more complex decision boundaries.

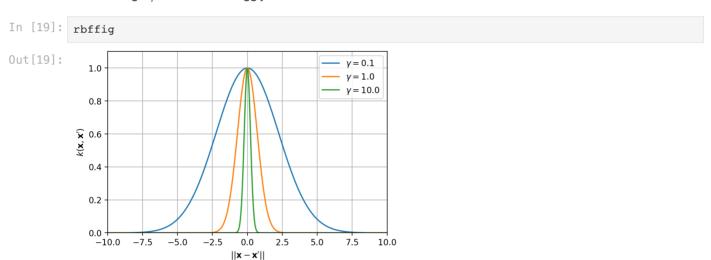
```
In [15]: # fit SVM (poly kernel with different degrees)
    degs = [2,3,4]

    clf = {}
    for d in degs:
        clf[d] = svm.SVC(kernel='poly', degree=d, C=100)
        clf[d].fit(X4, Y4)
In [17]: polysvmfig
```



RBF kernel

- RBF kernel (radial basis function)
 - $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = e^{-\gamma \|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}'\|^2}$
 - similar to a Gaussian
- gamma $\gamma > 0$ is the inverse bandwidth parameter of the kernel
 - controls the smoothness of the function
 - small $\gamma \rightarrow$ wider RBF \rightarrow smooth functions
 - \blacksquare large $\gamma \to \operatorname{thin} \operatorname{RBF} \to \operatorname{wiggly}$ function

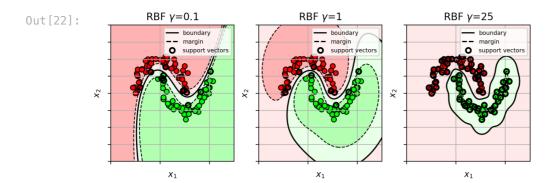


Kernel SVM with RBF kernel

- try different γ
 - each γ yields different levels of smoothness of the decision boundary

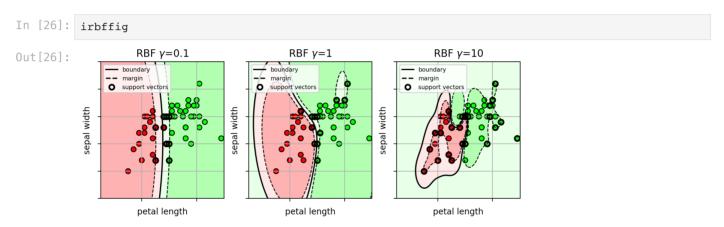
```
In [20]: # fit SVM (RBF)
gammas = [0.1, 1, 25]

clf = {}
for i in gammas:
        clf[i] = svm.SVC(kernel='rbf', gamma=i, C=1000)
        clf[i].fit(X3, Y3)
In [22]: rbfsvmfig
```



Example on Iris data

• Large γ yields a complicated wiggly decision boundary.



How to select the best kernel parameters?

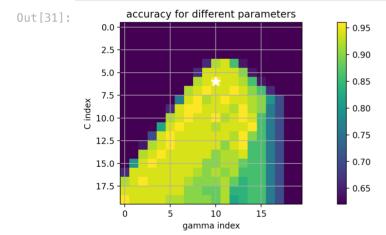
- use cross-validation over possible kernel parameter (γ) and SVM C parameter
 - if a lot of parameters, can be computationally expensive!

```
# setup the list of parameters to try
paramgrid = {'C': logspace(-2,3,20),
              gamma': logspace(-4,3,20) }
print(paramgrid)
# setup the cross-validation object
# pass the SVM object w/ rbf kernel, parameter grid, and number of CV folds
svmcv = model_selection.GridSearchCV(svm.SVC(kernel='rbf'), paramgrid, cv=5,
                                    n jobs=-1, verbose=True)
# run cross-validation (train for each split)
svmcv.fit(trainX, trainY);
print("best params:", svmcv.best_params_)
{'C': array([1.00000000e-02, 1.83298071e-02, 3.35981829e-02, 6.15848211e-02,
       1.12883789e-01, 2.06913808e-01, 3.79269019e-01, 6.95192796e-01,
       1.27427499e+00, 2.33572147e+00, 4.28133240e+00, 7.84759970e+00,
       1.43844989e+01, 2.63665090e+01, 4.83293024e+01, 8.85866790e+01,
       1.62377674e+02, 2.97635144e+02, 5.45559478e+02, 1.00000000e+03]), 'gamma':
array([1.00000000e-04, 2.33572147e-04, 5.45559478e-04, 1.27427499e-03,
       2.97635144e-03, 6.95192796e-03, 1.62377674e-02, 3.79269019e-02,
       8.85866790e-02, 2.06913808e-01, 4.83293024e-01, 1.12883789e+00,
       2.63665090e+00, 6.15848211e+00, 1.43844989e+01, 3.35981829e+01,
       7.84759970e+01, 1.83298071e+02, 4.28133240e+02, 1.00000000e+03])}
Fitting 5 folds for each of 400 candidates, totalling 2000 fits
best params: {'C': 0.37926901907322497, 'gamma': 0.4832930238571752}
```

```
In [28]: # show the test error for the first 25 parameter sets
           N = 25
           for m,p in zip(svmcv.cv results ['mean test score'][0:N], svmcv.cv results ['params'][0:N]):
               print("mean={:.4f} {}".format(m,p))
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.0001}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.00023357214690901214}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.000545559478116852}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.0012742749857031334}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.002976351441631319}
mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.0069519279617756054}
mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.01623776739188721}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.0379269019073225}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.08858667904100823}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.2069138081114788}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 0.4832930238571752}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 1.1288378916846884}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 2.6366508987303554}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 6.1584821106602545}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 14.38449888287663}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 33.59818286283781}
mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 78.47599703514607}
mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 183.29807108324337}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 428.1332398719387}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.01, 'gamma': 1000.0}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.018329807108324356, 'gamma': 0.0001}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.018329807108324356, 'gamma': 0.00023357214690901214}
           mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.018329807108324356, 'gamma': 0.000545559478116852}
```

mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.018329807108324356, 'gamma': 0.0012742749857031334} mean=0.6200 {'C': 0.018329807108324356, 'gamma': 0.002976351441631319}

In [31]: paramfig



```
In [32]: # show classifier with training data
plt.figure()
plot_posterior_svm(svmcv.best_estimator_, axbox, trainX)
plt.scatter(trainX[:,0], trainX[:,1], c=trainY, cmap=mycmap, edgecolors='k')
plt.xlabel('petal length'); plt.ylabel('sepal width')
plt.title('class boundary with training data');
plt.show()
```



```
In [33]: # predict from the model
    predY = svmcv.predict(testX)

# calculate accuracy
    acc = metrics.accuracy_score(testY, predY)
    print("test accuracy =", acc)

test accuracy = 0.88
```

Custom kernel function

- we can use any kernel function, as long as it is positive semi-definite:
 - 1. it can be written as an inner-product of a feature transformation: $k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2) \rangle$.
 - 2. for all possible datasets $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots \mathbf{x}_N\}$ of all possible sizes N, the kernel matrix $K = [k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)]_{i,j}$ is a positive definite matrix.
 - \circ **K** is a positive semi-definite matrix iff $\mathbf{z}^T\mathbf{K}\mathbf{z} \geq 0, \forall \mathbf{z}$
- in sklearn, pass a callable function as the kernel parameter.

Example: Laplacian kernel

```
• k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \exp(-\alpha ||\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2||)
```

```
In [34]: from scipy import spatial

# create a custom kernel function
# Laplacian kernel: exp( -alpha*||x1-x2|| )

def mykernel(X1, X2, alpha=1.0):
        # X1,X2 are (N1 x d) and (N2 x d) matrices of N1 and N2 d-dim vectors
        # alpha is the hyperparameter

# compute pairwise euclidean distance
D = spatial.distance.cdist(X1, X2, metric='euclidean')

# return the kernel matrix
    return exp(-alpha*D)
```

```
In [35]: alphas = [0.1, 1., 10.]

clf = {}

for i in alphas:
    # make a temporary kernel function with the selected alpha value
    tmpkern = lambda X1, X2, alpha=i: mykernel(X1, X2, alpha=alpha)

# create the SVM with custom kernel function
    clf[i] = svm.SVC(kernel=tmpkern, C=100)
    clf[i].fit(trainX, trainY)
```

```
In [37]: ilapfig
```

Kernel SVM Summary

· Kernel Classifier:

petal length

- Kernel function defines the shape of the non-linear decision boundary.
 - o implicitly transforms input feature into high-dimensional space.

petal length

petal length

- uses linear classifier in high-dim space.
- the decision boundary is non-linear in the original input space.

• Training:

- Maximize the margin of the training data.
 - i.e., maximize the separation between the points and the decision boundary.
- ullet Use cross-validation to pick the hyperparameter C and the kernel hyperparameters.

· Advantages:

- non-linear decision boundary for more complex classification problems
- some intuition from the type of kernel function used.
- kernel function can also be used to do non-vector data.

· Disadvantages:

- sensitive to the kernel function used.
- ullet sensitive to the C and kernel hyperparameters.
- computationally expensive to do cross-validation.
- need to calculate the kernel matrix
 - $\circ N^2$ terms where N is the size of the training set
 - \circ for large N, uses a large amount of memory and computation.

Kernels on other types of data

- Histograms: $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \cdots, x_d]$, x_i is a bin value.
 - Bhattacharyya:

$$k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \sum_{i=1}^d \sqrt{x_i x_i'}$$

• histogram intersection:

$$k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \sum_i \min(x_i,x_i')$$

• χ^2 -RBF:

$$k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')=e^{-\gamma\chi^2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')}$$

 $\circ \ \gamma$ is a inverse bandwidth parameter

$$\circ~\chi^2$$
 distance: $\chi^2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')=\sum_{i=1}^drac{(x_i-x_i')^2}{rac{1}{2}(x_i+x_i')}$

• **Strings**: **x** = "...." (strings can be different sizes)

$$k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \sum_s w_s \phi_s(\mathbf{x}) \phi_s(\mathbf{x}')$$

- $\phi_s(\mathbf{x})$ is the number of times substring s appears in \mathbf{x} .
- $w_s > 0$ is a weight.
- Sets: $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ (sets can be different sizes)
 - intersection kernel:

$$k(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}')=2^{|\mathbf{X}\cap\mathbf{X}'|}$$

 $\circ |\mathbf{X} \cap \mathbf{X}'|$ = number of common elements.