Lecture 7: Kernels for Classification and Regression CS 194-10, Fall 2011

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Motivations

Linear classification and regression

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Examples

$$y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}$$

$$y_t = w_1 + w_2 y_{t-1} + w_3 y_{t-2}, \ t = 1, ..., T.$$

This writes $y_t = w^T x_t$, with x_t the "feature vectors"

$$x_t := (1, y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}), t = 1, ..., T.$$

Model fitting via least-squares:

$$\min_{w} \|X^T w - y\|_2^2$$

Prediction rule:
$$\hat{y}_{T+1} = w_1 + w_2 y_T + w_3 y_{T-1} = w^T x_{T+1}$$
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Nonlinear auto-regressive model for time-series: y_t quadratic function of y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}

$$y_t = w_1 + w_2 y_{t-1} + w_3 y_{t-2} + w_4 y_{t-1}^2 + w_5 y_{t-1} y_{t-2} + w_6 y_{t-2}^2.$$

This writes $y_t = w^T \phi(x_t)$, with $\phi(x_t)$ the augmented feature vectors

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_t) := \left(1, y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, y_{t-1}^2, y_{t-1}y_{t-2}, y_{t-2}^2\right).$$

Everything the same as before, with x replaced by $\phi(x)$.

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Nonlinear classification

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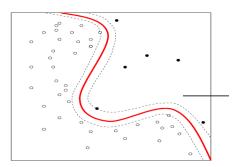
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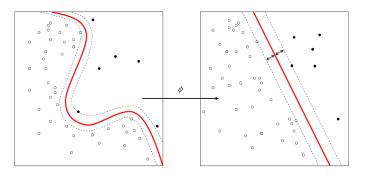
Non-linear (e.g., quadratic) decision boundary

$$w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_1^2 + w_4x_1x_2 + w_5x_2^2 + b = 0.$$

Writes $w^T \phi(x) + b = 0$, with $\phi(x) := (x_1, x_2, x_1^2, x_1 x_2, x_2^2)$.

In principle, it seems can always augment the dimension of the feature space to make the data linearly separable. (See the video at

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3liCbRZPrZA)



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How do we do it in a computationally efficient manner?



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where

- $X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is the $m \times n$ matrix of data points.
- ▶ $y \in \mathbf{R}^m$ is the "response" vector,
- w contains regression coefficients.
- $\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter.

Prediction rule: $y = w^T x$, where $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is a new data point.

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where

- $X = [x_1, \dots, x_m]$ is the $n \times m$ matrix of data points in \mathbb{R}^n .
- ▶ $y \in \{-1, 1\}^m$ is the label vector.
- w, b contain classifer coefficients.
- $\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter.

In the sequel, we'll ignore the bias term (for simplicity only).

Classification rule: $y = sign(w^T x + b)$, where $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is a new data point.

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$$\min_{w} L(X^T w, y) + \lambda ||w||_2^2$$

where

- ▶ $X = [x_1, ..., x_n]$ is a $m \times n$ matrix of data points.
- ▶ $y \in \mathbf{R}^m$ contains a response vector (or labels).
- w contains classifier coefficients.
- ▶ *L* is a "loss" function that depends on the problem considered.
- $\lambda \geq 0$ is a regularization parameter.

Prediction/classification rule: depends only on $w^T x$, where $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is a new data point.

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$$L(z, y) = ||z - y||_2^2.$$

Hinge loss: (for SVMs)

$$L(z, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \max(0, 1 - y_i z_i)$$

► Logistic loss: (for logistic regression)

$$L(z,y) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log(1 + e^{-y_i z_i}).$$

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For the generic problem:

$$\min_{w} L(X^{T}w) + \lambda ||w||_{2}^{2}$$

the optimal w lies in the span of the data points (x_1, \ldots, x_m) :

$$w = Xv$$

for some vector $v \in \mathbf{R}^m$.



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$$w = Xv + r$$

where $X^T r = 0$ (that is, r is in the nullspace $\mathcal{N}(X^T)$).

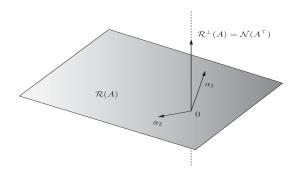


Figure shows the case $X = A = (a_1, a_2)$.

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For the generic problem:

$$\min_{w} L(X^T w) + \lambda ||w||_2^2$$

the optimal w can be written as w = Xv for some vector $v \in \mathbf{R}^m$.

Hence training problem depends only on $K := X^T X$:

$$\min_{v} L(Kv) + \lambda v^{T} Kv.$$

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$$K_{ij} = \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

K contains the scalar products between all data point pairs.

The prediction/classification rule depends on the scalar products between new point x and the data points x_1, \ldots, x_m :

$$w^{T}x = v^{T}X^{T}x = v^{T}k, \quad k := X^{T}x = (x^{T}x_{1}, \dots, x^{T}x_{m}).$$

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Computational advantages

Once K is formed (this takes O(n)), then the training problem has only m variables.

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When n >> m, this leads to a dramatic reduction in problem size.

How about the nonlinear case?

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In the nonlinear case, we simply replace the feature vectors x_i by some "augmented" feature vectors $\phi(x_i)$, with ϕ a non-linear mapping.

Example: in classification with quadratic decision boundary, we use

$$\phi(\mathbf{X}) := (\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \mathbf{X}_1^2, \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{X}_2, \mathbf{X}_2^2).$$

This leads to the modified kernel matrix

$$K_{ij} = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j), \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq m.$$

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The kernel function associated with mapping ϕ is

$$k(x,z) = \phi(x)^T \phi(z).$$

It provides information about the metric in the feature space, e.g.:

$$\|\phi(x)-\phi(z)\|_2^2=k(x,x)-2k(x,z)+k(z,z).$$

The computational effort involved in

- solving the training problem;
- making a prediction,

depends only on our ability to quickly evaluate such scalar products.

We can't choose k arbitrarily; it has to satisfy the above for some ϕ .

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$$\phi(x) = (1, x_1, x_2, x_1^2, x_1 x_2, x_2^2).$$

Fact: given two vectors $x, z \in \mathbf{R}^2$, we have

$$\phi(x)^T\phi(z)=(1+x^Tz)^2.$$

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$$\phi(x)^T\phi(z)=(1+x^Tz)^d.$$

Computational effort grows linearly in *n*.

This represents a dramatic reduction in speed over the "brute force" approach:

- Form $\phi(x)$, $\phi(z)$;
- evaluate $\phi(x)^T \phi(z)$.

Computational effort grows as n^d .

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$$k(x,z) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-z\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right),\,$$

where $\sigma > 0$ is a scale parameter. Allows to ignore points that are too far apart. Corresponds to a non-linear mapping ϕ to infinite-dimensional feature space.

Other kernels

There is a large variety (a zoo?) of other kernels, some adapted to structure of data (text, images, etc).

In practice

- Kernels need to be chosen by the user.
- Choice not always obvious; Gaussian or polynomial kernels are popular.
- Control over-fitting via cross validation (wrt say, scale parameter of Gaussian kernel, or degree of polynomial kernel).
- ▶ Kernel methods not well adapted to *l*₁-norm regularization.



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