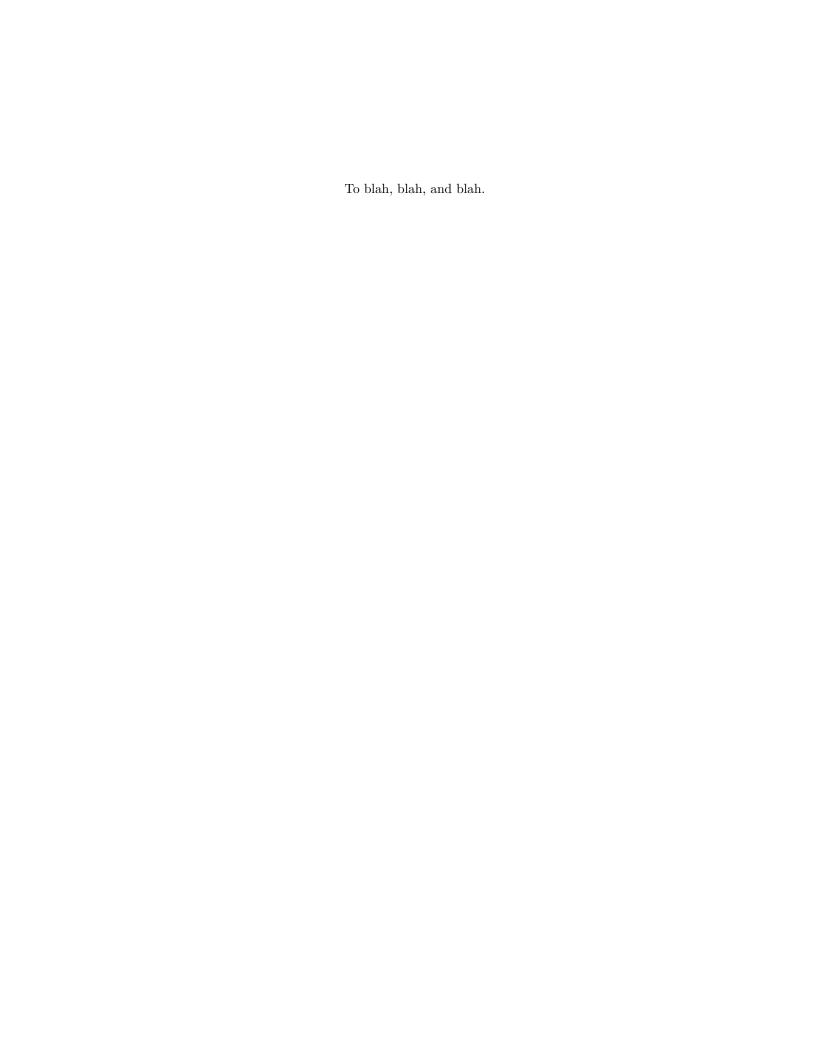
Pengantar Sain Data Konsep dan Aplikasi untuk Bisnis



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Selamat di Pengantar Sain Data

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This textbook and its supplements, including slides, labs, and interactive tutorials, may be downloaded for free at openintro.org/book/ims¹.

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Source files for this book can be found on GitHub at github.com/OpenIntroStat/ims³.

¹http://openintro.org/book/ims

²https://www.openintro.org/go/?id=creativecommons_org&referrer=ims1_pdf

³https://github.com/OpenIntroStat/ims

Charting in Colaboratory

A common use for notebooks is data visualization using charts. Colaboratory makes this easy with several charting tools available as Python imports.

0.1 Matplotlib

Matplotlib⁴ is the most common charting package, see its documentation⁵ for details, and its examples⁶ for inspiration.

0.1.1 Line Plots

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

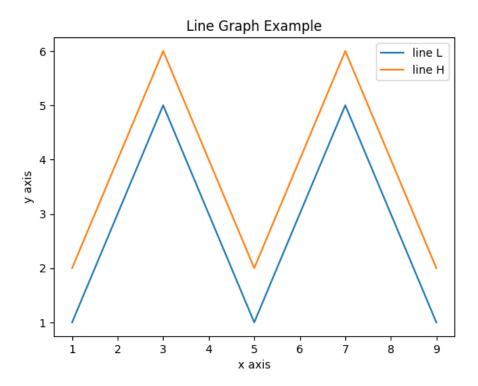
x = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
y1 = [1, 3, 5, 3, 1, 3, 5, 3, 1]
y2 = [2, 4, 6, 4, 2, 4, 6, 4, 2]
plt.plot(x, y1, label="line L")
plt.plot(x, y2, label="line H")
plt.plot()

plt.xlabel("x axis")
plt.ylabel("y axis")
plt.title("Line Graph Example")
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

 $^{^4}$ http://matplotlib.org/

⁵http://matplotlib.org/api/pyplot_api.html

⁶http://matplotlib.org/gallery.html#statistics



0.1.2 Bar Plots

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# Look at index 4 and 6, which demonstrate overlapping cases.
x1 = [1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9]
y1 = [4, 7, 2, 4, 7, 8, 3]

x2 = [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
y2 = [5, 6, 2, 6, 2]

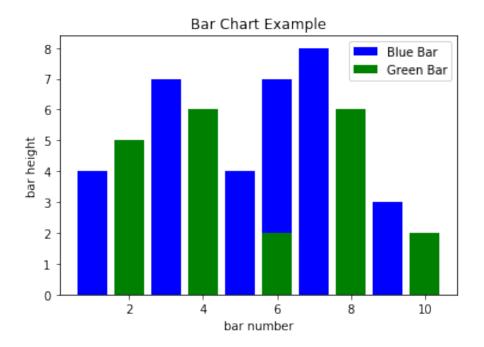
# Colors: https://matplotlib.org/api/colors_api.html

plt.bar(x1, y1, label="Blue Bar", color='b')
plt.bar(x2, y2, label="Green Bar", color='g')
plt.plot()

plt.xlabel("bar number")
plt.ylabel("bar height")
```

0.1 Matplotlib xi

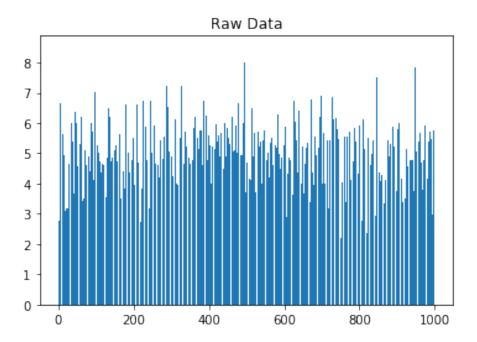
```
plt.title("Bar Chart Example")
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```



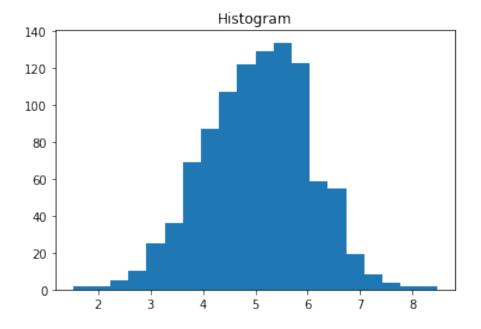
0.1.3 Histograms

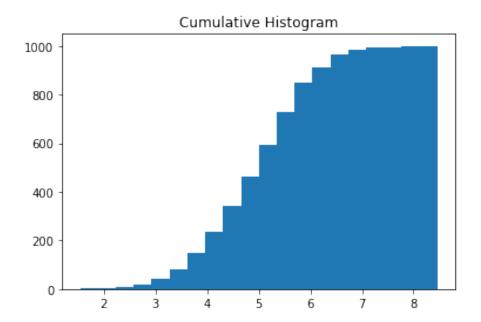
```
plt.show()

plt.hist(n, cumulative=True, bins=20)
plt.title("Cumulative Histogram")
plt.show()
```



0.1 Matplotlib xiii





0.1.4 Scatter Plots

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

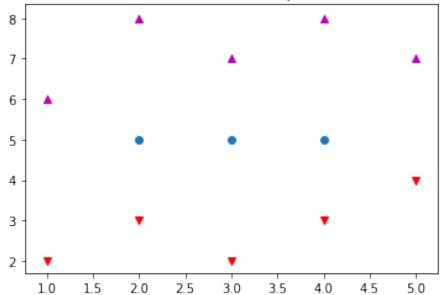
x1 = [2, 3, 4]
y1 = [5, 5, 5]

x2 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
y2 = [2, 3, 2, 3, 4]
y3 = [6, 8, 7, 8, 7]

# Markers: https://matplotlib.org/api/markers_api.html

plt.scatter(x1, y1)
plt.scatter(x2, y2, marker='v', color='r')
plt.scatter(x2, y3, marker='^', color='m')
plt.title('Scatter Plot Example')
plt.show()
```

Scatter Plot Example



0.1 Matplotlib xv

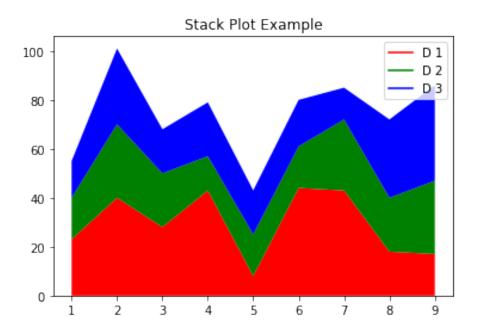
0.1.5 Stack Plots

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

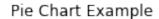
idxes = [ 1,  2,  3,  4,  5,  6,  7,  8,  9]
arr1 = [23, 40, 28, 43,  8, 44, 43, 18, 17]
arr2 = [17, 30, 22, 14, 17, 17, 29, 22, 30]
arr3 = [15, 31, 18, 22, 18, 19, 13, 32, 39]

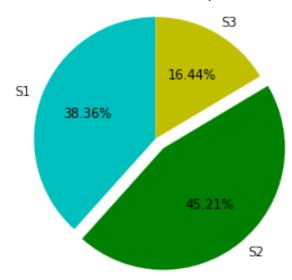
# Adding legend for stack plots is tricky.
plt.plot([], [], color='r', label = 'D 1')
plt.plot([], [], color='g', label = 'D 2')
plt.plot([], [], color='b', label = 'D 3')

plt.stackplot(idxes, arr1, arr2, arr3, colors= ['r', 'g', 'b'])
plt.title('Stack Plot Example')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```



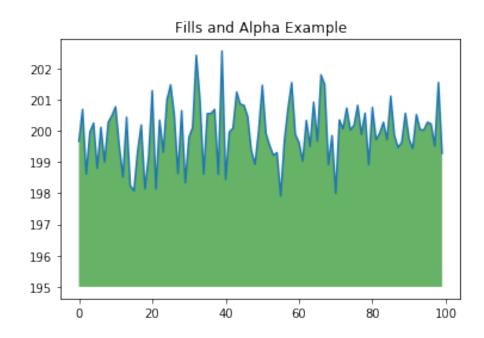
0.1.6 Pie Charts





0.1 Matplotlib xvii

0.1.7 fill_between and alpha



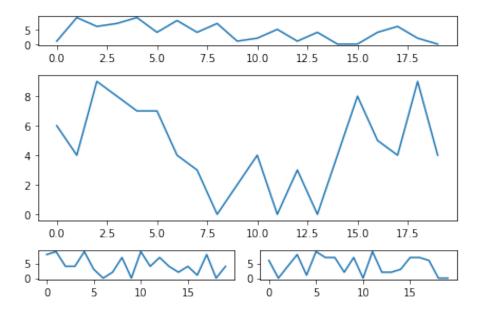
0.1.8 Subplotting using Subplot2grid

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

def random_plots():
```

```
xs = []
 ys = []
  for i in range(20):
   x = i
   y = np.random.randint(10)
   xs.append(x)
   ys.append(y)
 return xs, ys
fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = plt.subplot2grid((5, 2), (0, 0), rowspan=1, colspan=2)
ax2 = plt.subplot2grid((5, 2), (1, 0), rowspan=3, colspan=2)
ax3 = plt.subplot2grid((5, 2), (4, 0), rowspan=1, colspan=1)
ax4 = plt.subplot2grid((5, 2), (4, 1), rowspan=1, colspan=1)
x, y = random_plots()
ax1.plot(x, y)
x, y = random_plots()
ax2.plot(x, y)
x, y = random_plots()
ax3.plot(x, y)
x, y = random_plots()
ax4.plot(x, y)
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```

0.2 Plot styles xix



0.2 Plot styles

Colaboratory charts use Seaborn's⁷ custom styling by default. To customize styling further please see the matplotlib docs⁸.

0.3 3D Graphs

0.3.1 3D Scatter Plots

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import axes3d

fig = plt.figure()
ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection = '3d')
```

 $^{^{7} \}rm https://seaborn.pydata.org$

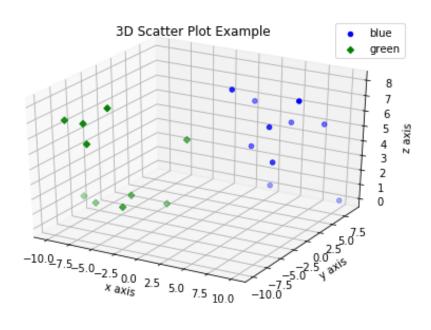
 $^{^{8} \}rm https://matplotlib.org/users/style_sheets.html$

```
x1 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
y1 = np.random.randint(10, size=10)
z1 = np.random.randint(10, size=10)

x2 = [-1, -2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9, -10]
y2 = np.random.randint(-10, 0, size=10)
z2 = np.random.randint(10, size=10)

ax.scatter(x1, y1, z1, c='b', marker='o', label='blue')
ax.scatter(x2, y2, z2, c='g', marker='D', label='green')

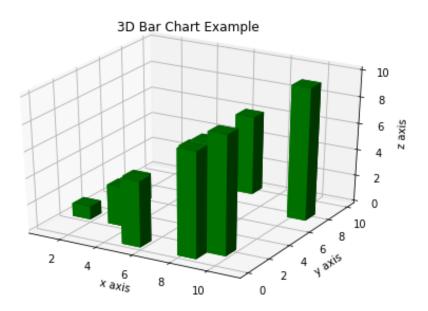
ax.set_xlabel('x axis')
ax.set_ylabel('y axis')
ax.set_zlabel('z axis')
plt.title("3D Scatter Plot Example")
plt.legend()
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



0.3 3D Graphs xxi

0.3.2 3D Bar Plots

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
fig = plt.figure()
ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection = '3d')
x = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
y = np.random.randint(10, size=10)
z = np.zeros(10)
dx = np.ones(10)
dy = np.ones(10)
dz = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
ax.bar3d(x, y, z, dx, dy, dz, color='g')
ax.set_xlabel('x axis')
ax.set_ylabel('y axis')
ax.set_zlabel('z axis')
plt.title("3D Bar Chart Example")
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



0.3.3 Wireframe Plots

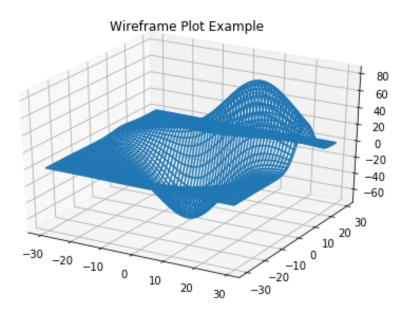
```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

fig = plt.figure()
ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection = '3d')

x, y, z = axes3d.get_test_data()

ax.plot_wireframe(x, y, z, rstride = 2, cstride = 2)

plt.title("Wireframe Plot Example")
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



0.4 Seaborn

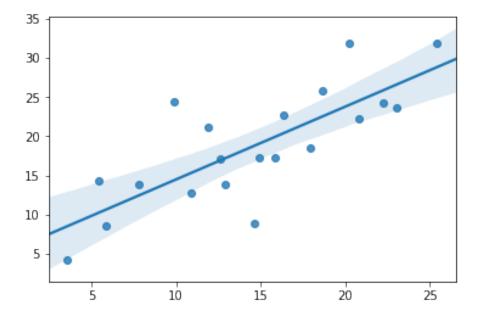
There are several libraries layered on top of Matplotlib that you can use in Colab. One that is worth highlighting is $Seaborn^9$:

 $^{^9 {}m http://seaborn.pydata.org}$

0.4 Seaborn xxiii

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
import seaborn as sns

# Generate some random data
num_points = 20
# x will be 5, 6, 7... but also twiddled randomly
x = 5 + np.arange(num_points) + np.random.randn(num_points)
# y will be 10, 11, 12... but twiddled even more randomly
y = 10 + np.arange(num_points) + 5 * np.random.randn(num_points)
sns.regplot(x, y)
plt.show()
```



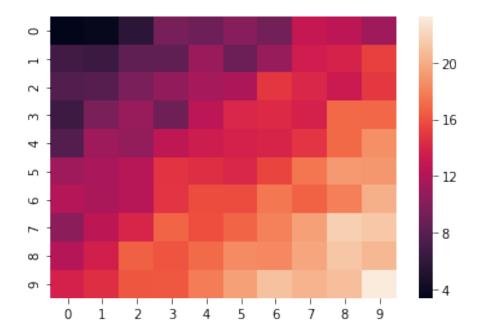
That's a simple scatterplot with a nice regression line fit to it, all with just one call to Seaborn's regplot 10 .

Here's a Seaborn heatmap¹¹:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
```

 $^{^{10} \}rm http://seaborn.pydata.org/generated/seaborn.regplot.html\#seaborn.regplot$

 $^{^{11} \}rm https://seaborn.pydata.org/generated/seaborn.heatmap.html$



0.5 Altair

Altair 12 is a declarative visualization library for creating interactive visualizations in Python, and is installed and enabled in Colab by default.

¹²http://altair-viz.github.io

0.6 Plotly xxv

For example, here is an interactive scatter plot:

```
import altair as alt
from vega_datasets import data
cars = data.cars()

alt.Chart(cars).mark_point().encode(
    x='Horsepower',
    y='Miles_per_Gallon',
    color='Origin',
).interactive()
```

alt.Chart(...)

For more examples of Altair plots, see the Altair snippets notebook 13 or the external Altair Example Gallery 14 .

0.6 Plotly

0.6.1 Sample

```
from plotly.offline import iplot
import plotly.graph_objs as go

data = [
    go.Contour(
        z=[[10, 10.625, 12.5, 15.625, 20],
        [5.625, 6.25, 8.125, 11.25, 15.625],
        [2.5, 3.125, 5., 8.125, 12.5],
        [0.625, 1.25, 3.125, 6.25, 10.625],
        [0, 0.625, 2.5, 5.625, 10]]
   )

j
iplot(data)
```

<IPython.core.display.HTML object>

Unable to display output for mime type(s): text/html

¹³/notebooks/snippets/altair.ipynb

¹⁴ https://altair-viz.github.io/gallery/

Unable to display output for mime type(s): application/vnd.plotly.v1+json, text/html

0.7 Bokeh

0.7.1 Sample

```
import numpy as np
from bokeh.plotting import figure, show
from bokeh.io import output_notebook
# Call once to configure Bokeh to display plots inline in the

→ notebook.

output_notebook()
N = 4000
x = np.random.random(size=N) * 100
y = np.random.random(size=N) * 100
radii = np.random.random(size=N) * 1.5
colors = ["\#\%02x\%02x\%02x" % (r, g, 150) for r, g in

    zip(np.floor(50+2*x).astype(int),

¬ np.floor(30+2*y).astype(int))]

p = figure()
p.circle(x, y, radius=radii, fill_color=colors, fill_alpha=0.6,

    line_color=None)

show(p)
```

Unable to display output for mime type(s): text/html

Kernels and Feature maps: Theory and intuition

Table of Contents

- 1 Kernels and Feature maps: Theory and intuition
- 2 Theory and derivations
- 3 A visual example to help intuition
- 4 Python implementation of various feature maps and kernels
- 5 From Feature Maps to Kernels
- 5.1 Sklearn implementation of SVC with Gram matrix
- 5.2 Sklearn implementation using custom Kernel
- 5.3 Plot decision boundary

Following the series on SVM, we will now explore the theory and intuition behind Kernels and Feature maps, showing the link between the two as well as advantages and disadvantages.

The notebook is divided into two main sections: 1. Theory, derivations and pros and cons of the two concepts 2. An intuitive and visual interpretation in 3 dimensions

The of section this notebook seved bapart as the following answer on stats.stackexchange: https://stats.stackexchange.com/questions/152897/how-to-intuitivelyexplain-what-a-kernel-is/355046#355046

Theory and derivations

0.7.2 Notation and terminology

- Attributes of a problem are the original inputs: $x_1, x_2, ... x_n$
- Feature mapping is a function of the input attributes $\phi(x)$
- Features are the new set of quantities that result from applying the mapping

For example we could have

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \\ x^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

To obtain more complex, non linear, decision boundaries, we may want to apply the SVM algorithm to learn some features $\phi(x)$ rather than the input attributes x only. To do so we replace x everywhere in the previous formulas with $\phi(x)$ and repeat the optimization procedure.

The problem is that the features may live in very high dimensional space, possibly infinite, which makes the computation of the dot product $\langle \phi(x^{(i)}, \phi(x^{(j)}) \rangle$ very difficult. This is where we introduce the notion of a **Kernel** which will greatly help us perform these computations.

0.7.3 Kernels: definition and example

Given a feature mapping ϕ we define the corresponding Kernel as

$$K(x,z) = \phi(x)^T \phi(z)$$

Hence we can replace the inner product $\langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle$ with K(x,z) in the SVM algorithm. What is interesting is that the kernel may be very inexpensive to calculate, and may correspond to a mapping in very high dimensional space. So we can train an SVM in such space without having to explicitly calculate the inner product.

Consider the example where $x, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $K(x, z) = (x^T z)^2$. We can also write this as

$$K(x,z) = \left(\sum_{i}^{n} x_{i} z_{i}\right) \left(\sum_{j}^{n} x_{j} z_{j}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i}^{n} \sum_{j}^{n} x_{i} x_{j} z_{i} z_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{i,j}^{n} (x_{i} x_{j}) (z_{i} z_{j})$$

$$= \phi(x)^{T} \phi(z)$$

Where the feature mapping ϕ is given by (in this case n=2)

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 x_1 \\ x_1 x_2 \\ x_2 x_1 \\ x_2 x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculating the feature mapping is of complexity $O(n^2)$ due to the number of features, whereas calculating K(x,z) is of complexity O(n) as it is a simple inner product x^Tz which is then squared $K(x,z) = (x^Tz)^2$.

Another example of Kernel is

$$\begin{split} K(x,z) &= (x^Tz + c)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i,j}^n (x_ix_j)(z_iz_j) + \sum_i^n (\sqrt{2c}x_i)(\sqrt{2c}x_i) + c^2 \end{split}$$

which corresponds to the features mapping

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 x_1 \\ x_1 x_2 \\ x_2 x_1 \\ x_2 x_2 \\ \sqrt{2c} x_1 \\ \sqrt{2c} x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

so the parameter c controls the relative weighting of the first and second order polynomials. More generally the kernel $K(x,z)=(x^Tz+c)^d$ corresponds to a feature mapping to an $\binom{n+d}{d}$ feature space, corresponding to all monomials that are up to order d. Despite working in this $O(n^d)$ dimensional space, computing K(x,z) is of order O(n).

An intuitive view of Kernels would be that they correspond to functions that measure how closely related vectors x and z are. So when x and z are

similar the Kernel will output a large value, and when they are dissimilar K will be small. Knowing this justifies the use of the Gaussian Kernel as a measure of similarity

$$K(x,z) = \exp\left[\left(-\frac{||x-z||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\right]$$

because the value is close to 1 when they are similar and close to 0 when they are not.

Necessary and sufficient conditions

The following are necessary and sufficient conditions for a function to be a valid kernel. Let G be the **Kernel matrix** or **Gram matrix** which is square of size $m \times m$ and where each i, j entry corresponds to $G_{i,j} = K(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})$ of the data set $X = \{x^{(1)}, ..., x^{(m)}\}\$

- The function $K: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a valid kernel if and only if
- the kernel matrix G is symmetric, positive semi-definite

This is both a necessary and sufficient condition (i.e. goes both ways) and is called Mercer's theorem.

0.7.5 Properties

- Kernels are symmetric: K(x,y)=K(y,x)• Kernels are positive, semi-definite: $\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m c_i c_j K(x^{(i)},x^{(j)}) \geq 0$
- Sum of two kernels is a kernel: $K(x,y) = K_1(x,y) + K_2(x,y)$
- Product of two kernels is a kernel: K(x,y) = K 1(x,y) K 2(x,y)
- Scaling by any function on both sides is a kernel: K(x,y) $f(x)K_1(x,y)f(y)$
- Kernels are often scaled such that $K(x,y) \leq 1$ and K(x,x) = 1

0.7.6 Common Kernels

- Linear: is the inner product: $K(x,y) = x^T y$
- Gaussian / RBF / Radial : $K(x, y) = \exp(-\gamma(x y)^2)$
- Polynomial: is the inner product: $K(x,y) = (1 + x^T y)^p$
- Laplace: is the inner product: $K(x,y) = \exp(-\beta |x-y|)$
- Cosine: is the inner product: $K(x,y) = \exp(-\beta |x-y|)$

0.7.7Gaussian kernels

In general the Squared Exponential Kernel, or Gaussian kernel is defined as

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')^T \Sigma(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')\right)$$

If Σ is diagnonal then this can be written as

$$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2}(x_j - x_j')^2\right)$$

Where the parameter σ_j^2 is the characteristic length scale of dimension j. if $\sigma_j^2 = \infty$ the dimension is ignored, hence this is known as the **ARD** kernel.

Finally if Σ is sperical, we get the isotropic kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Which is a **radial basis function** or RBF kernel as it is only a function of $||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2$. σ^2 is known as the bandwidth parameter.

0.7.8 Gram Matrix vs Feature Map

Consider a dataset of m data points which are n dimensional vectors $\in \mathbb{R}^n$, the **gram matrix** is the $m \times m$ matrix for which each entry is the kernel between the corresponding data points.

$$G_{i,j} = K(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(j)})$$

Since a Kernel function corresponds to an inner product in some (possibly infinite dimensional) feature space, we can also write the kernel as a **feature** mapping

$$K(x^{(i)},x^{(j)}) = \phi(x^{(i)})^T \phi(x^{(j)})$$

When using a Kernel in a linear model, it is just like transforming the input data, then running the model in the transformed space.

For the linear kernel, the Gram matrix is simply the inner product $G_{i,j} = x^{(i)} T x^{(j)}$. For other kernels, it is the inner product in a feature space with feature map ϕ : i.e. $G_{i,j} = (x^{(i)})T (x^{(j)})$

0.7.9 Advantages and disadvantages of Gram matrix and Feature mapping

Grams matrix: reduces computations by pre-computing the kernel for all pairs of training examples

- On the other hand, the Gram matrix may be impossible to hold in memory for large m
- The cost of taking the product of the Gram matrix with weight vector may be large

Feature maps: are computationally very efficient

- As long as we can transform and store the input data efficiently
- The drawback is that the dimension of transformed data may be much larger than the original data
- memory required to store the features and cost of taking the product to compute the gradient.
- finally, feature maps may require infinite dimensional space (e.g. Gaussian Kernel) which requires approximation

As a result there exists systems trade offs and rules of thumb

- When the number of examples is very large, feature maps are better
- When transformed features have high dimensionality, **Grams matrices** are better

0.7.10 Sources and further reading

- http://www.cs.cornell.edu/courses/cs6787/2017fa/Lecture4.pdf
- $\bullet \ \ https://disi.unitn.it/\sim passerini/teaching/2014-2015/Machine Learning/slides/17_kernel_machines/hands/1014-1015/Machine Learning/slides/17_kernel_machines/hands/1014-1015/Machine Learning/slides/1014-1015/Machine Learning/slides/slide$
- Stanford CS229 Lecture notes
- Introduction to Statistical Learning
- Elements of Statistical Learning

A visual example to help intuition

 $From the following stats.stackexchange post: \\ https://stats.stackexchange.com/questions/152897/how-to-intuitively-explain-what-a-kernel-is/355046\#355046$

Consider the following dataset where the yellow and blue points are clearly not linearly separable in two dimensions.

If we could find a higher dimensional space in which these points were **linearly** separable, then we could do the following:

- Map the original features to the higher, transformer space (feature mapping)
- Perform linear SVM in this higher space
- Obtain a set of weights corresponding to the decision boundary hyperplane
- Map this hyperplane back into the original 2D space to obtain a non linear decision boundary

There are many higher dimensional spaces in which these points are linearly separable. Here is one example

$$\begin{aligned} x_1, x_2 &:\to z_1, z_2, z_3 \\ z_1 &= \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2 & z_2 = x_1^2 & z_3 = x_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

This is where the Kernel trick comes into play. Quoting the above great answers

Suppose we have a mapping $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ that brings our vectors in \mathbb{R}^n to some feature space \mathbb{R}^m . Then the dot product of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} in this space is $\varphi(\mathbf{x})^T \varphi(\mathbf{y})$. A kernel is a function k that corresponds to this dot product, i.e. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \varphi(\mathbf{x})^T \varphi(\mathbf{y})$

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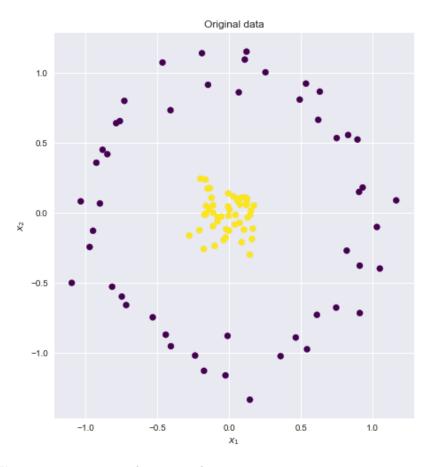


Figure 1: enter image description here

If we could find a kernel function that was equivalent to the above feature map, then we could plug the kernel function in the linear SVM and perform the calculations very efficiently.

0.7.11 Polynomial kernel

It turns out that the above feature map corresponds to the well known **polynomial kernel**: $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^d$. Let d=2 and $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$ we get

$$\begin{split} k(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix}) &= (x_1 x_2' + x_2 x_2')^2 \\ &= 2x_1 x_1' x_2 x_2' + (x_1 x_1')^2 + (x_2 x_2')^2 \\ &= (\sqrt{2}x_1 x_2 \ x_1^2 \ x_2^2) \ \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}x_1' x_2' \\ x_1'^2 \\ x_2'^2 \end{pmatrix} \\ k(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix}) &= \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}') \\ \phi(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}) &= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

0.7.12 Visualizing the feature map and the resulting boundary line

- Left hand side plot shows the points plotted in the transformed space together with the SVM linear boundary hyper plane
- Right hand side plot shows the result in the original 2-D space

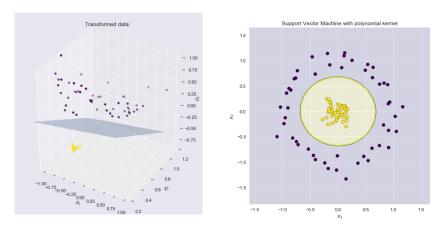


Figure 2: enter image description here

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Python implementation of various feature maps and kernels

0.7.13 Libraries

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import seaborn as sns
from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import Axes3D
from mpl_toolkits import mplot3d
from IPython.display import HTML, Image

%matplotlib inline
sns.set()
from sklearn.datasets.samples_generator import make_circles
```

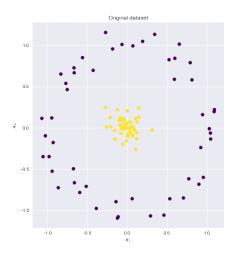
0.7.14 Feature map n. 1)

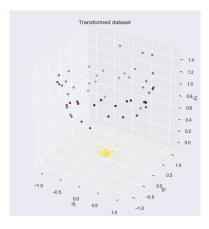
```
### Sum of polynomials \phi(x_1,x_2) = (z_1,z_2,z_3) = (x_1,x_2,x_1^2+x_2^2) def feature_map_1(X): return np.asarray((X[:,0], X[:,1], X[:,0]**2 + X[:,1]**2)).T  
#Generate dataset and feature-map from sklearn.datasets.samples_generator import make_circles X, y = make_circles(100, factor=.1, noise=.1)  
Z = feature_map_1(X)  
#2D scatter plot fig = plt.figure(figsize = (16,8))
```

```
ax = fig.add_subplot(1, 2, 1)
ax.scatter(X[:,0], X[:,1], c = y, cmap = 'viridis')
ax.set_xlabel('$x_1$')
ax.set_ylabel('$x_2$')
ax.set_title('Original dataset')

#3D scatter plot
ax = fig.add_subplot(1, 2, 2, projection='3d')
ax.scatter3D(Z[:,0],Z[:,1], Z[:,2],c = y, cmap = 'viridis')
ax.scatter3D(z[:,0],z[:,0],z[:,1],z[:,2],c = y, cmap = 'viridis')
ax.scatter3D(z[:,0],z[:,0],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],z[:,1],
```

Text(0.5,0.92,'Transformed dataset')





0.7.15 Feature map n. 2)

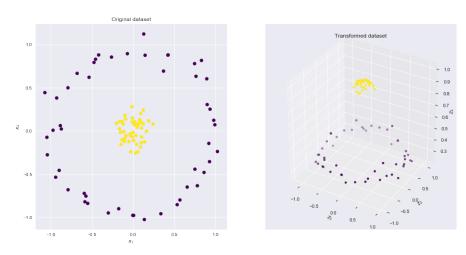
```
### Gaussian Radial Basis Function (RBF) centered at 0, 0 \phi(x_1,x_2) = (z_1,z_2,z_3) = (x_1,x_2,e^{-|x_1^2+x_2^2|})
```

```
#Generate dataset and feature-map
from sklearn.datasets.samples_generator import make_circles
X, y = make_circles(100, factor=.1, noise=.1)
Z = feature_map_2(X)
#2D scatter plot
fig = plt.figure(figsize = (16,8))
ax = fig.add_subplot(1, 2, 1)
ax.scatter(X[:,0], X[:,1], c = y, cmap = 'viridis')
ax.set_xlabel('$x_1$')
ax.set_ylabel('$x_2$')
ax.set_title('Original dataset')
#3D scatter plot
ax = fig.add_subplot(1, 2, 2, projection='3d')
ax.scatter3D(Z[:,0],Z[:,1], Z[:,2],c = y, cmap = 'viridis' )

    #,rstride = 5, cstride = 5, cmap = 'jet', alpha = .4,

⇔ edgecolor = 'none' )
ax.set_xlabel('$z_1$')
ax.set_ylabel('$z_2$')
ax.set_zlabel('$z_3$')
ax.set_title('Transformed dataset')
```

Text(0.5,0.92,'Transformed dataset')



0.7.16 Feature map n. 3) - also a polynomial kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^d$$

Let d = 2 and $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$ we get

$$\begin{split} k(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix}) &= (x_1 x_2' + x_2 x_2')^2 \\ &= 2x_1 x_1' x_2 x_2' + (x_1 x_1')^2 + (x_2 x_2')^2 \\ &= (\sqrt{2} x_1 x_2 \ x_1^2 \ x_2^2) \ \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} x_1' x_2' \\ x_1'^2 \\ x_2'^2 \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

$$k(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

Where

$$\phi(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

In the plot of the transformed data we map $x_1, x_2 : \to z_1, z_2, z_3$

$$z_1 = \sqrt{2}x_1x_2$$
 $z_2 = x_1^2$ $z_3 = x_2^2$

```
def feature_map_3(X):
    return np.asarray(( np.sqrt(2) *X[:,0] * X[:,1], X[:,0]**2,
     \hookrightarrow X[:,1]**2)).T
#Generate dataset and feature-map
from sklearn.datasets.samples_generator import make_circles
X, y = make_circles(100, factor=.1, noise=.1, random_state = 0)
Z = feature_map_3(X)
#2D scatter plot
fig = plt.figure(figsize = (16,8))
ax = fig.add_subplot(1, 2, 1)
ax.scatter(X[:,0], X[:,1], c = y, cmap = 'viridis')
ax.set_xlabel('$x_1$')
ax.set_ylabel('$x_2$')
ax.set_title('Original data')
#3D scatter plot
ax = fig.add_subplot(1, 2, 2, projection='3d')
```

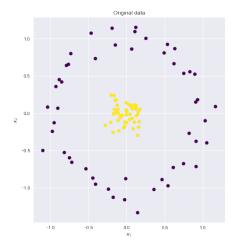
```
ax.scatter3D(Z[:,0],Z[:,1], Z[:,2],c = y, cmap = 'viridis' )

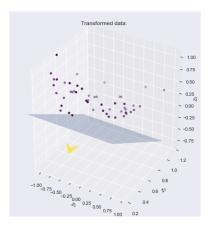
    #,rstride = 5, cstride = 5, cmap = 'jet', alpha = .4,

    edgecolor = 'none' )

ax.set_xlabel('$z_1$')
ax.set_ylabel('$z_2$')
ax.set_zlabel('$z_3$')
ax.set_title('Transformed data: ')
#SVM using kernel 3 - feature map 3
clf = svm.SVC(C = 1, kernel = 'linear')
clf.fit(Z, y)
w = clf.coef_.flatten()
b = clf.intercept_.flatten()
print('w=',w,'b=',b)
# create x,y
xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.linspace(-1,1), np.linspace(0,1))
# calculate corresponding z
boundary = (-w[0] * xx - w[1] * yy - b) * 1. /w[2]
# plot the surface
ax.plot_surface(xx, yy, boundary, alpha = .3)
ax.set_ylim(.2,1.2)
ax.set_zlim(-.9,1.1)
#ax.view_init(0, 260)
plt.show()
```

w= [-0.05481854 -2.53191791 -2.52028513] b= [1.14976292]





From Feature Maps to Kernels

- 0.7.17 Kernel as the inner product in the transformed space $K(\mathbf{x^{(i)}},\mathbf{x^{(j)}}) = \phi(\mathbf{x^{(i)}})^T\phi(\mathbf{x^{(j)}})$
- 0.7.18 Grams matrix as an outer product in the transformed space

$$G_{i,j} = K(\mathbf{x^{(i)}}, \mathbf{x^{(j)}})$$

$$G = \tilde{X}\tilde{X}^T$$

0.8 Sklearn implementation of SVC with Gram matrix

```
from sklearn import svm
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score

clf = svm.SVC(kernel='precomputed')
# kernel computation
gram = np.dot(feature_map_2(X), feature_map_2(X).T)
clf.fit(gram, y)

# prediction errors on training examples
np.sum(y - clf.predict(gram))
```

0

0.9 Sklearn implementation using custom Kernel

```
def my_kernel_1(X,Y):
    return np.dot(feature_map_1(X),feature_map_1(Y).T )
def my_kernel_2(X,Y):
    return np.dot(feature_map_2(X),feature_map_2(Y).T )
def my_kernel_3(X,Y):
    return np.dot(feature_map_3(X),feature_map_3(Y).T )
#SVM using kernel 1 - feature map 1
clf = svm.SVC(kernel=my_kernel_1)
clf.fit(X, y)
# predict on training examples - print accuracy score
print('Accuracy score using feature map n1',accuracy_score(y,

    clf.predict(X)))
#SVM using kernel 2 - feature map 2
clf = svm.SVC(kernel=my_kernel_2)
clf.fit(X, y)
# predict on training examples - print accuracy score
print('Accuracy score using feature map n2',accuracy_score(y,

    clf.predict(X)))
#SVM using kernel 3 - feature map 3
clf = svm.SVC(kernel=my_kernel_3)
clf.fit(X, y)
# predict on training examples - print accuracy score
print('Accuracy score using feature map n3',accuracy_score(y,

    clf.predict(X)))
```

Accuracy score using feature map n1 1.0 Accuracy score using feature map n2 1.0 Accuracy score using feature map n3 1.0

0.10 Plot decision boundary

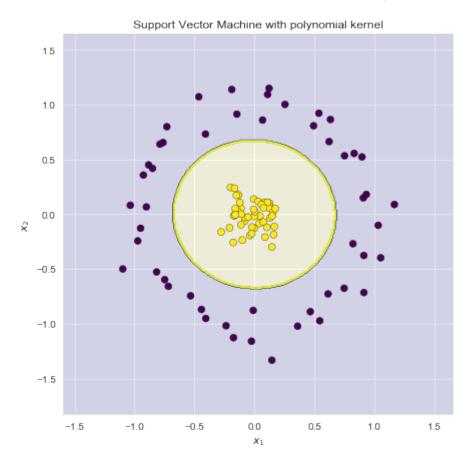
```
clf = svm.SVC(kernel=my_kernel_3, C = 1)
# kernel computation
clf.fit(X, y)
#Initialize data
h = .01 #Stepsize in the mesh
x_{min}, x_{max} = X[:, 0].min() - .5, X[:, 0].max() + .5
y_min, y_max = X[:, 1].min() - .5, X[:, 1].max() + .5
xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.arange(x_min, x_max, h),

¬ np.arange(y_min, y_max, h))

#Predict on meshgrid
Z = clf.predict(np.c_[xx.ravel(), yy.ravel()])
# Put the result into a color plot
Z = Z.reshape(xx.shape)
plt.figure(figsize = (7,7))
plt.contourf(xx, yy, Z,1, colors = ['darkblue', 'yellow'], alpha
plt.contour(xx, yy, Z, cmap = 'viridis')
# Plot also the training points
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=y, cmap='viridis', edgecolors =

  'k¹)
plt.title('Support Vector Machine with polynomial'
          ' kernel')
plt.xlabel('$x_1$')
plt.ylabel('$x_2$')
```

Text(0,0.5,'\$x_2\$')



Contoh

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i,j} \frac{\left(O_{ij} - E_{ij}\right)^2}{E_{ij}}$$

makanan itu dapat digunakan dengan x+2

```
pip install academics-scholar-scraper
```

Collecting academics-scholar-scraper

Downloading academics_scholar_scraper-0.1.1-py3-none-any.whl (5.5 kB)

Collecting argparse (from academics-scholar-scraper)

Downloading argparse-1.4.0-py2.py3-none-any.whl (23 kB)

Requirement already satisfied: requests in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from academics-scholated) requirement already satisfied: tqdm in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from academics-scholated) requirement already satisfie

Downloading openai-0.27.8-py3-none-any.whl (73 kB)

```
- 73.6/73.6 kB 3.5 MB/s eta 0:00:00
```

Requirement already satisfied: aiohttp in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from openai->acade Requirement already satisfied: urllib3<1.27,>=1.21.1 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from Requirement already satisfied: certifi>=2017.4.17 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from Requirement already satisfied: charset-normalizer~=2.0.0 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (Requirement already satisfied: idna<4,>=2.5 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from requests Requirement already satisfied: attrs>=17.3.0 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from aiohttp Requirement already satisfied: multidict<7.0,>=4.5 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from Requirement already satisfied: async-timeout<5.0,>=4.0.0a3 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from aiohttp Requirement already satisfied: frozenlist>=1.1.1 in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (from aiohttp Requirement already satisfied: aiosignal>=1.1.2 in /usr/local/lib/

Successfully installed academics-scholar-scraper-0.1.1 argparse-1.4.0 openai-0.27.8 Unable to display output for mime type(s): application/vnd.colab-display-data+json

pip install argparse requests tqdm concurrent.futures openai

Collecting argparse

1 Contoh

Using cached argparse-1.4.0-py2.py3-none-any.whl (23 kB)

Requirement already satisfied: requests in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (2.27.1)

Requirement already satisfied: tqdm in /usr/local/lib/python3.10/dist-packages (4.65.0)

ERROR: Could not find a version that satisfies the requirement concurrent.futures (from versions: none)

ERROR: No matching distribution found for concurrent.futures

$\mathbf{0}$

Summary

In summary, this book has no content whatsoever.

References