

Kernel Methods

COMP9417, 22T2

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Kernel Methods

Primal vs. Dual Algorithms

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Instead of pure parameter based learning (i.e minimising a loss function etc.), dual algorithms introduce **instance-based** learning.

This is where we 'remember' mistakes in our data and adjust the corresponding weights accordingly.

We then use a *similarity function* or **kernel** in our predictions to weight the influence of the training data on the prediction.

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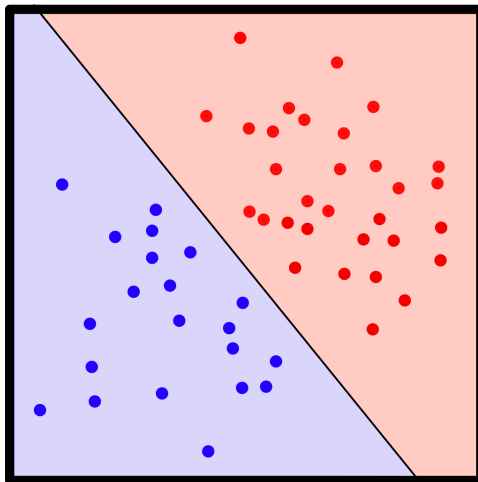
$$\alpha_i \quad \text{for } i \in [1, n]$$

meaning we learn parameters for each of the n **data-points**.

α_i represents the *importance* of a data point (x_i, y_i) .

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The Dual/Kernel Perceptron

Recall the *primal* perceptron:

```
converged  $\leftarrow 0$   
while not converged do  
  converged  $\leftarrow 1$   
  for  $x_i \in X, y_i \in y$  do  
    if  $y_i w \cdot x_i \leq 0$  then  
       $w \leftarrow w + \eta y_i x_i$   
      converged  $\leftarrow 0$   
    end if  
  end for  
end while
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If we define the number of iterations the perceptron makes as $K \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and assume $\eta = 1$. We can derive an expression for the final weight vector $w^{(K)}$:

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If we define the number of iterations the perceptron makes as $K \in \mathbb{N}^+$ and assume $\eta = 1$. We can derive an expression for the final weight vector $w^{(K)}$:

$$w^{(K)} = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbf{1}_{\{y_i w^{(j)} \cdot x_i \leq 0\}} y_i x_i$$

We can simplify our expression and take out the indicator variable:

$$\begin{aligned}w^{(K)} &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbf{1}_{\{y_i w^{(j)} x_i \leq 0\}} y_i x_i \\&= \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i x_i\end{aligned}$$

where α_i is the number of times the perceptron makes a mistake on a data point (x_i, y_i) .

If we sub in $w^{(K)} = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i y_i x_i$. We get the algorithm for the **dual** perceptron.

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    if  $y_i \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j x_j \cdot x_i \leq 0$  then
       $\alpha_i \leftarrow \alpha_i + 1$ 
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    end if
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Gram Matrix

The Gram matrix represents the *inner product* of two vectors.
For a dataset X we define $G = X^T X$. That is:

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$$G = \begin{bmatrix} \langle x_1, x_1 \rangle & \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_1, x_n \rangle \\ \langle x_2, x_1 \rangle & \langle x_2, x_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_2, x_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle x_n, x_1 \rangle & \langle x_n, x_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_n, x_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$
$$G_{i,j} = \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$

Transformations

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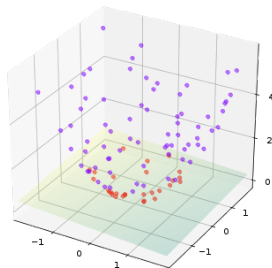
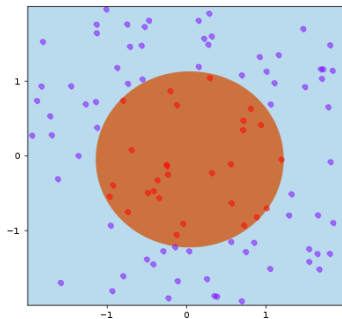
How do we go about solving **non-linearly separable** datasets with linear classifiers?

Project them to higher dimensional spaces through a transformation $\phi : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$.

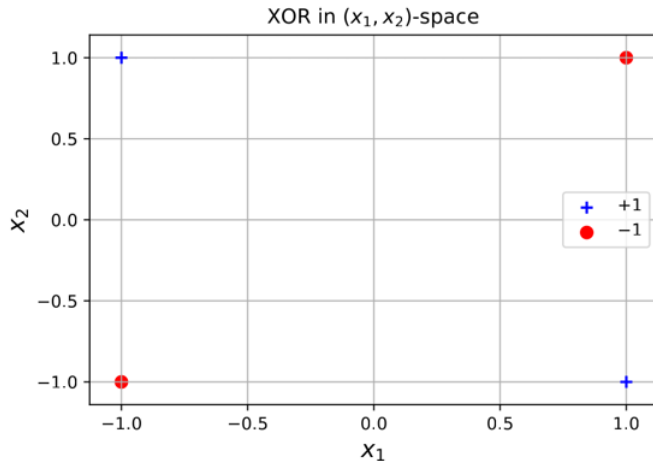
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Let's revisit the XOR.



A solution:

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For our input vectors in the form $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$, use a transformation:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\phi\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \phi\left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \phi\left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \phi\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

For the negative class:

$$\phi \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)_{2,6} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\phi \left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)_{2,6} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

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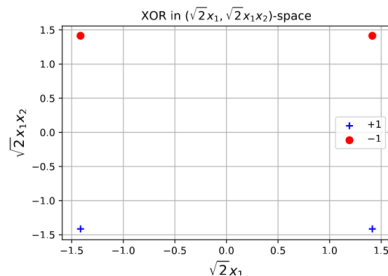
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We may have a problem, recall the **dual perceptron**.

converged $\leftarrow 0$

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for $x_i \in X, y_i \in y$ **do**

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$$G = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \phi(x_1), \phi(x_1) \rangle & \langle \phi(x_1), \phi(x_2) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \phi(x_1), \phi(x_n) \rangle \\ \langle \phi(x_2), \phi(x_1) \rangle & \langle \phi(x_2), \phi(x_2) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \phi(x_2), \phi(x_n) \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle \phi(x_n), \phi(x_1) \rangle & \langle \phi(x_n), \phi(x_2) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \phi(x_n), \phi(x_n) \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

the Gram matrix becomes far too complex to compute.

The Kernel Trick

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An absolute mathematical idea which allows us to calculate the values of the Gram matrix for cheap.

Recall the transformation to the XOR data:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Recall the transformation to the XOR data:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1 \\ \sqrt{2}x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}y_1 \\ \sqrt{2}y_2 \\ y_1^2 \\ y_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2}y_1y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{y}) = 1 + 2x_1y_1 + 2x_2y_2 + x_1^2y_1^2 + x_2^2y_2^2 + 2x_1x_2y_1y_2$$

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Why is this useful?

Support Vector Machines