

Basis Expansion

Big Data Lectures – Chapter 5

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Outline

- ▶ list of topics:
 - ▶ basis expansion: basics
 - ▶ splines
 - ▶ linear and cubic splines
 - ▶ polynomial regression splines
 - ▶ natural cubic splines
 - ▶ smoothing splines
 - ▶ multidimensional splines
 - ▶ generalized additive model
 - ▶ wavelet
 - ▶ kernel methods



Basis Expansion: Basics



Introduction

- ▶ why linear models?
 - ▶ convenient and easy to fit
 - ▶ easy to interpret
 - ▶ the first-order Taylor approximation to $f(\mathbf{X}) = E(Y|\mathbf{X})$
 - ▶ when n is small and/or p is large, linear models do not overfit



Introduction

- ▶ why linear models?
 - ▶ convenient and easy to fit
 - ▶ easy to interpret
 - ▶ the first-order Taylor approximation to $f(\mathbf{X}) = E(Y|\mathbf{X})$
 - ▶ when n is small and/or p is large, linear models do not overfit
- ▶ **basis expansion**:
 - ▶ key idea: augment or replace the original input features with their **transformations**, then fit a linear model in the new space of derived input features
 - ▶ a more **flexible** representation:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m h_m(\mathbf{X}) = \beta_1 h_1(\mathbf{X}) + \beta_2 h_2(\mathbf{X}) + \dots + \beta_M h_M(\mathbf{X})$$

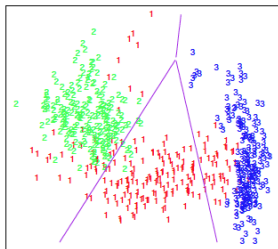
where $h_m(\cdot)$ are **basis functions**



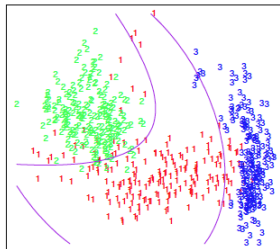
Introduction

► example:

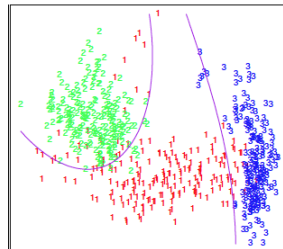
LDA on x_1, x_2



LDA on x_1, x_2
 x_1x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2



QDA on x_1, x_2



Introduction

- ▶ more examples:

- ▶ generalized additive model:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \alpha + f_1(X_1) + \dots + f_p(X_p)$$

- ▶ projection pursuit model:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m \sigma(\alpha_{m0} + \alpha_m^T \mathbf{X})$$

restrictive, only considers a linear combination of the predictors

still fit a linear regression model but after fitting a function on the predictors



Introduction

- ▶ more examples:
 - ▶ generalized additive model:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \alpha + f_1(X_1) + \dots + f_p(X_p)$$

- ▶ projection pursuit model:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m \sigma(\alpha_{m0} + \alpha_m^\top \mathbf{X})$$

- ▶ key components:
 - ▶ **dictionary**: a collection of very large number of basis functions
 - ▶ **complexity control**:
 - ▶ restriction method: use a (small) number of pre-specified transformation functions; e.g., splines
 - ▶ regularized selection: use the entire dictionary but restrict the coefficients through regularization; e.g., wavelet
 - ▶ implicit basis transformation: kernel methods



Splines



Splines

- ▶ what are splines:
 - ▶ **piecewise polynomial functions**
 - ▶ divide the domain of \mathbf{X} into continuous intervals and fit separate polynomials in each interval
- ▶ examples:
 - ▶ linear splines, cubic splines, B-splines, natural cubic splines, smoothing splines, ...
- ▶ knots: assume the range of x is $[a, b]$. Let the points

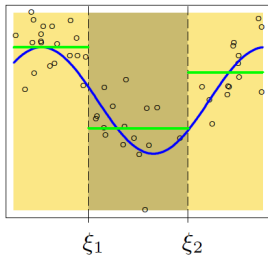
$$a < \xi_1 < \xi_2 < \cdots < \xi_K < b$$

be a partition of the interval $[a, b]$

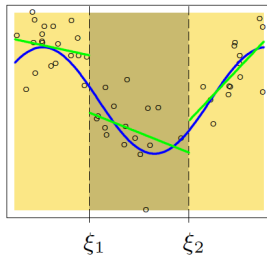
- ▶ call $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_K\}$ the interior knots
- ▶ call $\{\xi_0 = a, \xi_{K+1} = b\}$ the boundary knots. It is possible $a = -\infty$ and $b = \infty$
- ▶ fixed knots: often use quantiles of x



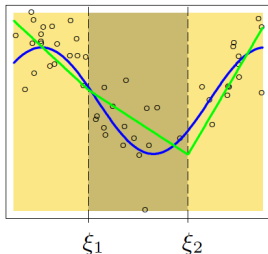
Piecewise Constant



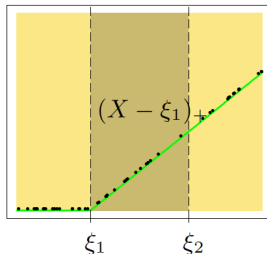
Piecewise Linear



Continuous Piecewise Linear

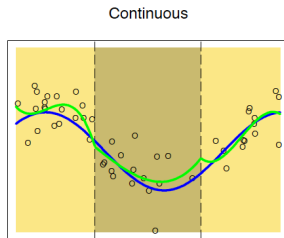
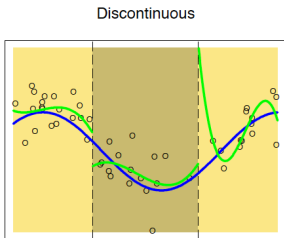


Piecewise-linear Basis Function



Piecewise Cubic Polynomials

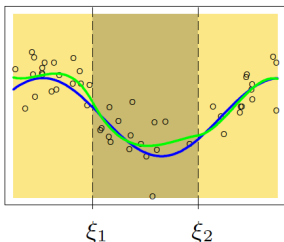
how many
predictors are
we looking at?
Just one
predictor (and
one response
variable) this is
too simple to be
useful



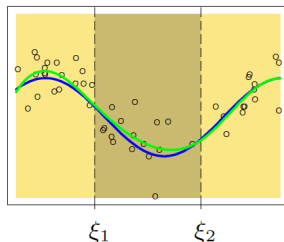
how to choose inner knot?

0 inner knots is a regular linear regression VS. use every training sample as an inner knot

Continuous First Derivative



Continuous Second Derivative



Cubic splines

- ▶ piecewise constant, piecewise linear function
- ▶ piecewise cubic function: for each interval $[\xi_j, \xi_{j+1}), j = 0, \dots, K$,

$$f(x) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}x + \beta_{2j}x^2 + \beta_{3j}x^3$$

- ▶ having continuous first and second derivatives at the interior knots,

$$f(\xi_j^-) = f(\xi_j^+)$$

$$f'(\xi_j^-) = f'(\xi_j^+)$$

$$f''(\xi_j^-) = f''(\xi_j^+), \quad j = 1, \dots, K$$

- ▶ what is the total degrees of freedom? $K + 4$

$(K + 1)$ regions \times (4 parameters per region)

$-K$ knots \times (3 constraints per knots)



Cubic splines

- ▶ a more direct way to take care of continuity constraints: use a basis that is piecewise polynomial and continuous at knots
- ▶ truncated power series basis:

- ▶ piecewise linear with continuity at knots

$$h_1(x) = 1, h_2(x) = x, h_3(x) = (x - \xi_1)_+, \dots, h_{K+2}(x) = (x - \xi_K)_+.$$

- ▶ piecewise cubic with continuous first and second derivatives at knots

$$1, x, h_3(x) = x^2, h_4(x) = x^3, h_5(x) = (x - \xi_1)_+^3, \dots, h_{K+4}(x) = (x - \xi_K)_+^3.$$

for cubic splines,

$$\text{Model space} = \text{span}\{h_1(x), \dots, h_{K+4}(x)\}$$



Cubic splines

- ▶ **polynomial regression splines** with order M
 - ▶ K fixed (interior) knots: ξ_1, \dots, ξ_K
 - ▶ piecewise polynomial of order $M - 1$;
continuous derivatives up to order $M - 2$
- ▶ the truncated power series basis functions are

$$h_j(x) = x^{j-1}, \quad j = 1, \dots, M; \quad h_{M+l}(x) = (x - \xi_l)_+^{M-1}, \quad l = 1, \dots, K.$$

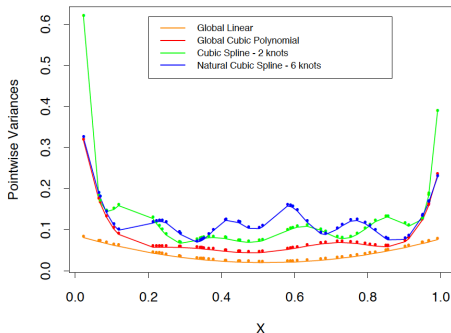
- ▶ total degrees of freedom is $df = K + M$
- ▶ popular choices of $M = 1, 2, 4$:
 - ▶ piecewise constant is order-1 spline
 - ▶ piecewise linear with continuity is order-2 spline
 - ▶ cubic spline is order-4 spline

cubic splines are the lowest-order spline for which knot-discontinuity is not visible to human eyes.



Natural cubic splines

- ▶ boundary effects:
 - ▶ the behavior of polynomials fit tends to be erratic near the boundaries
 - ▶ the polynomials fit beyond the boundary knots behave more wildly than the corresponding global polynomials in that region
- ▶ check the point-wise variance of spline function fits by least squares
 - ▶ In general, the variance near the boundary is large for all spline fits
 - ▶ cubic spline has the worst (largest) point-wise variance near the boundary



Natural cubic splines

- ▶ **natural cubic splines:** add additional constraint such that the function is linear beyond the two boundary knots
- ▶ remarks:
 - ▶ frees up four degrees of freedom, which can be spent more profitably by putting more knots in the interior region
 - ▶ the price is the bias near two boundaries
 - ▶ since there is less information, assuming the function being linear near the boundaries is reasonable
- ▶ degrees of freedom: $K + 4 - 4 = K$ (same as the number of knots)
- ▶ basis functions:

$$N_1(x) = 1, N_2(x) = x, N_{k+2}(x) = d_k(x) - d_{k-1}(x),$$

where

$$d_k(x) = \frac{(x - \xi_k)_+^3 - (x - \xi_K)_+^3}{\xi_K - \xi_k}, \quad k = 1, \dots, K - 2,$$

each of these basis functions have zero second and third derivatives for $x > \xi_K$.



Example – South African heart disease

- ▶ South African heart disease – coronary risk-factor study (CORIS) baseline survey
 - ▶ rural areas in Western Cape, South Africa (high-incidence region)
 - ▶ to establish the intensity of ischemic heart disease risk factors
- ▶ data set
 - ▶ white males between age 15-64
 - ▶ 160 cases and 302 controls
 - ▶ Y = the presence of absence of myocardial infarction (MI) at the time of the survey (the overall prevalence of MI was 5.1% in that region)
- ▶ natural cubic spline fitting model:

$$\log[\Pr(chd)] = \theta_0 + h_1(X_1)^T \theta_1 + \cdots + h_p(X_p)^T \theta_p,$$

θ_j is the vector of coefficients of natural spline basis functions h_j .



Example – South African heart disease

- ▶ derived input features:
 - ▶ X_1 =systolic blood pressure
 $h_1(X_1)$ = a basis consisting of four basis functions
 - ▶ similarly for variables: tobacco, ldl, obesity, age
 - ▶ X_4 =family history (two-level factor): dummy; single coefficient
- ▶ spline model fit: for each variable j ,

$$\hat{f}_j(X_j) = h_j(X_j)^\top \hat{\theta}_j$$

- ▶ the variance of parameter estimator

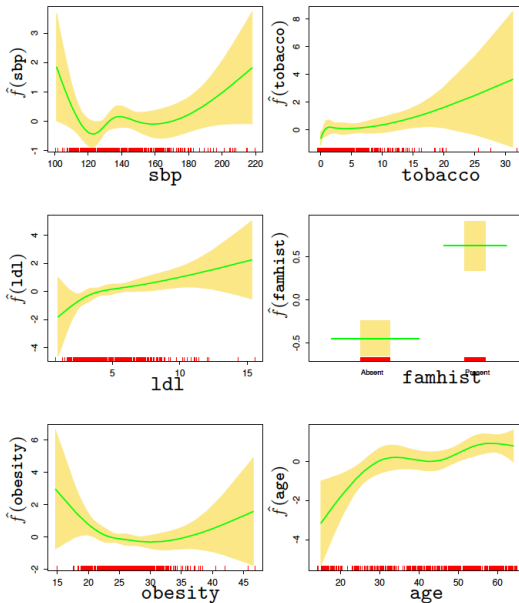
$$\widehat{\text{cov}}(\hat{\theta}) = \hat{\Sigma} = (H^\top W H)^{-1}$$

W the diagonal weight matrix from logistic regression, $w_j = p_j(1 - p_j)$

- ▶ the pointwise variance function of \hat{f}_j

$$\text{var}[\hat{f}(X_j)] = h_j(X_j)^\top \hat{\Sigma}_{jj} h_j(X_j)$$





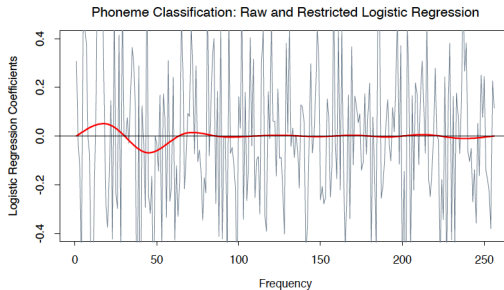
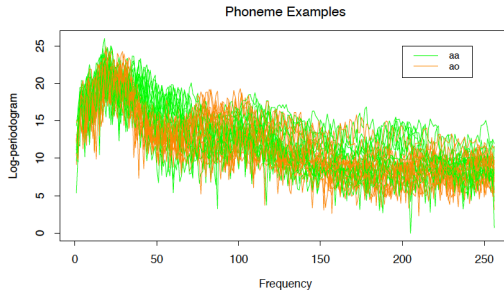
Example – phoneme recognition

- ▶ phoneme recognition
 - ▶ two phonemes "aa" and "ao" measured at 256 frequencies
 - ▶ to classify a spoken phoneme
- ▶ data set
 - ▶ 695 "aa" and 1022 "ao"
 - ▶ functional modeling

$$\log \frac{\Pr(aa|\mathbf{X})}{\Pr(ao|\mathbf{X})} = \int X(t)\beta(t)dt$$

- ▶ approximate by an unrestricted logistic regression $\sum_{j=1}^{256} X_j \beta_j$
- ▶ **smooth regularization** via natural cubic splines
 - ▶ represent $\beta(t)$ as an expansion of splines $\beta(t) = \sum_{m=1}^M h_m(t)\theta_m$
 - ▶ $\beta = \mathbf{H}\theta$, where \mathbf{H} is a $p \times M$ natural cubic splines basis matrix, with knots uniformly placed on $1, 2, \dots, 256$
 - ▶ replace the input features \mathbf{X} with its filtered version $\mathbf{X}^* = \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{X}$
 $\hat{\beta}(t) = h(t)^T \hat{\theta}$





Smoothing splines

- ▶ motivation: use all observations as knots, so **avoid knot selection**

- ▶ solve:

$$\min_{f \in W_2[a,b]} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - f(x_i)]^2 + \lambda \int_a^b [f''(x)]^2 dx$$

- ▶ first term measures the closeness/loyalty of the model to the data; related to the bias
- ▶ second term penalizes the roughness/curvature of the function; related to the variance of the estimate; the **roughness penalty** (regularization)
- ▶ $\lambda = 0$: point-wise interpolation; $\lambda = \infty$: least squares line ($f''(x) = 0$)
- ▶ solution:
 - ▶ natural spline basis: $f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n N_j(x)\theta_j$
 - ▶ fitted values:

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N} + \lambda \mathbf{\Omega})^{-1} \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{S}_{\lambda} \mathbf{y}$$

where $\mathbf{N}_{ij} = N_j(\mathbf{x}_i)$, $\mathbf{\Omega}_{jk} = \int N_j''(t) N_k''(t) dt$, and $\mathbf{N}, \mathbf{\Omega} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$



Multidimensional splines

- ▶ tensor product basis
 - ▶ so far, we have focused on $X \in \mathbb{R}^1$
 - ▶ suppose $X \in \mathbb{R}^2$:
 - ▶ a set of basis $h_{1k}(X_1)$, $k = 1, \dots, M_1$, for functions of coordinate X_1
 - ▶ a set of basis $h_{2k}(X_2)$, $k = 1, \dots, M_2$, for functions of coordinate X_2
- the $M_1 \times M_2$ dimensional **tensor product basis** is

$$g_{jk}(X_1, X_2) = h_{1j}(X_1)h_{2k}(X_2), \quad j = 1, \dots, M_1, \quad k = 1, \dots, M_2$$

- ▶ then represent a two-dimensional function as

$$g(X_1, X_2) = \sum_{j=1}^{M_1} \sum_{k=1}^{M_2} \theta_{jk} g_{jk}(X_1, X_2)$$

- ▶ thin-plate splines via regularization



Generalized Additive Model



Generalized additive model

- ▶ generalized additive models (GAM):

$$g(\mu(\mathbf{X})) = \alpha + f_1(X_1) + \dots + f_p(X_p)$$

- ▶ $g(\mu) = \mu$, the identity link for Gaussian response
- ▶ $g(\mu) = \log\{\mu/(1 - \mu)\}$, the logit link for binary response
- ▶ $g(\mu) = \Phi^{-1}(\mu)$, the probit link for binary response, where Φ is the Gaussian cumulative distribution function
- ▶ $g(\mu) = \log(\mu)$, the log-linear link for Poisson count response
- ▶ remarks:
 - ▶ the key idea is to replace each predictor (also, a linear identity function of the predictor) with a flexible function of the predictor that may identify and characterize nonlinear regression effects
 - ▶ provide a useful extension of linear models, making them more flexible, while still retaining much of their interpretability
 - ▶ fit each f_j using a scatterplot smoother: cubic smoothing spline or kernel smoother (this is a 1-dimensional regression)
 - ▶ can have limitations when p is very large

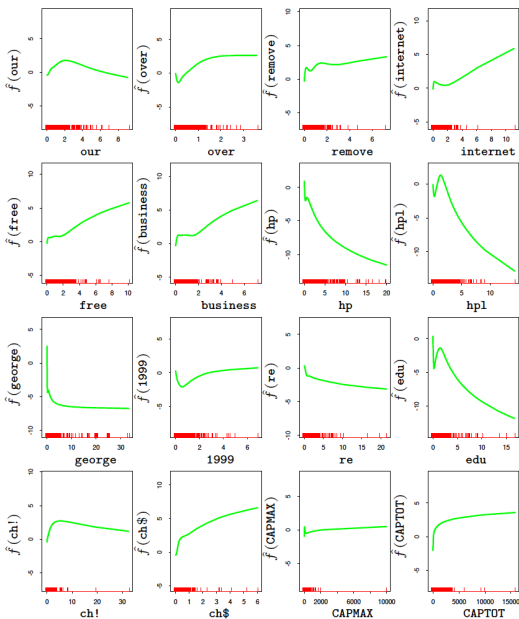


Example – email spams prediction

- ▶ spam email data:
 - ▶ screen email for "spam" (junk email): $Y = 1/0$ if a spam/not spam
 - ▶ totally 4601 email messages, randomly divided to a training data of 3605 and a testing data of 1536
 - ▶ $p = 57$ predictors: 54 quantitative percentage of words/characters in the email matching a given word (e.g., "free", "business", "george") or character (e.g., "\$"), the average/max/sum of length of uninterrupted sequences of capital letters
- ▶ a GAM fit:
 - ▶ most predictors have a very long tails; log-transform each variable
 - ▶ use a cubic smoothing spline with $df = 4$ for each predictor
- ▶ classification result:

True	Prediction	
	email (0)	spam (1)
email (0)	58.3%	2.5%
spam (1)	3.0%	36.3%





Generalized additive model

- ▶ model fitting: **backfitting**
 - ▶ the key idea is to fit one $f_j(X_j)$ at a time
 - ▶ the building block is the scatterplot smoother for fitting nonlinear effects in a flexible way
- ▶ additive regression model:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ y_i - \alpha - \sum_{j=1}^p f_j(x_{ij}) \right\}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_j \int f_j''(t_j)^2 dt_j$$

the backfitting algorithm:

initialize: $\hat{\alpha} = \bar{y}$, $\hat{f}_j = 0$

repeat

for $j = 1, \dots, p$ **do**

$$\hat{f}_j = S_j \left[\left\{ y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \sum_{k \neq j} \hat{f}_k(x_{ik}) \right\}_1^n \right]$$

end for

until \hat{f}_j changes less than a threshold



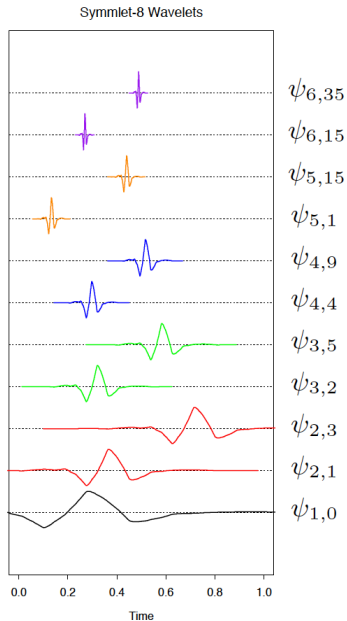
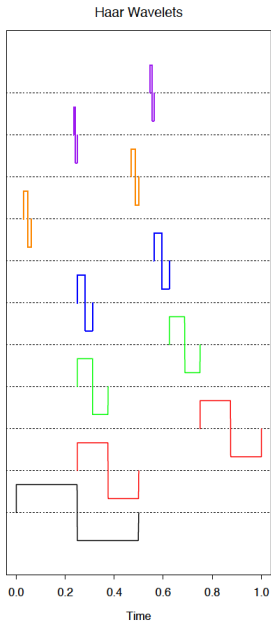
Wavelet



Wavelet

- ▶ wavelet basis:
 - ▶ use a set of **complete orthonormal** basis functions
 - ▶ shrink and select the coefficients towards a **sparse** representation
- ▶ applications:
 - ▶ very popular in signal processing and compression
 - ▶ capable of representing both smooth and locally bumpy functions in an efficient way
- ▶ some popular wavelet basis:
 - ▶ Harr wavelets (simpler)
 - ▶ Daubechies symmlet-8 wavelets (smoother)
- ▶ good statistical properties:
 - ▶ adapt for spatially inhomogeneous curves
 - ▶ nearly minimax (rate) for a large class of functions with unknown degrees of smoothness
- ▶ a very brief glimpse of this vast and growing field



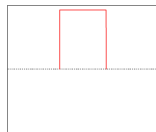


Wavelet

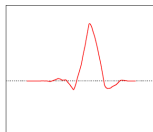
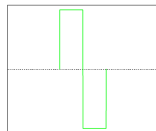
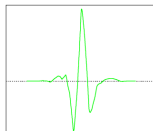
► Haar wavelet construction:

- father wavelet: $\phi(x) = I(x \in [0, 1])$, $\phi_{j,k}(x) = 2^{j/2}\phi(2^jx - k)$
("grand mean", "rough")
- mother wavelet: $\psi(x) = \phi(2x) - \phi(2x - 1)$, $\psi_{j,k}(x) = 2^{j/2}\psi(2^jx - k)$
("contrast", "detail")

Haar Basis

 $\phi(x)$

Symmlet Basis

 $\phi(x)$  $\psi(x)$  $\psi(x)$

Wavelet

- ▶ adaptive wavelet filtering:
 - ▶ wavelets are particularly useful when the data are measured on a uniform lattice, such as a discretized signal, image, or time series
 - ▶ Stein Unbiased Risk Estimation (SURE) Donoho and Johnstone (1994)

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{W}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2 + 2\lambda\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_1$$

where \mathbf{y} is the response vector, and \mathbf{W} is the $n \times n$ orthonormal wavelet basis matrix evaluated at the n uniformly spaced observations

- ▶ the least squares coefficients are translated toward zero, and truncated at zero

$$\hat{\theta}_j = \text{sign}(y_j^*)(|y_j^*| - \lambda)_+$$

where $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{y}$ is the wavelet transform of \mathbf{y}

- ▶ the basis are hierarchically structured from coarse to detailed
- the L_1 penalty does both shrinkage and selection



Kernel Methods



Kernel methods

- ▶ kernel methods
 - ▶ extremely popular in machine learning literature
 - ▶ powerful, flexible, $n < p$, ...
 - ▶ we do **not** mean **kernel smoothing** here
- ▶ reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS)
- ▶ some representative kernel methods:
 - ▶ **kernel (nonlinear) support vector machine**
 - ▶ kernel least squares and kernel logistic regression
 - ▶ kernel principal component analysis
 - ▶ can "**kernelize**" many learning methods ...
- ▶ some challenges:
 - ▶ develop appropriate kernel functions
 - ▶ variable selection for the kernel methods





Reproducing kernel Hilbert space

- ▶ space:
 - ▶ a **Hilbert space** is an infinite dimensional Euclidean space; it is a vector space (i.e., is closed under addition and scalar multiplication, obeys the distributive and associative laws, etc.); it is also endowed with an **inner product** $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$
 - ▶ a **reproducing kernel Hilbert space** is, conceptually, a "smaller" Hilbert space that contains restricted, smooth functions
- ▶ kernel:
 - ▶ **kernel function**: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$
 - ▶ **Gram matrix** $\mathbf{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ given $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$: $K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$
 - ▶ k is a positive definite kernel if its Gram matrix is positive definite
 - ▶ **reproducing kernel map**: $\Phi : \mathbf{x} \rightarrow k(\cdot, \mathbf{x})$
- ▶ commonly used kernels:
 - ▶ d th degree polynomial: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^d$
 - ▶ Gaussian radial basis: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\gamma \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2)$
 - ▶ neural network: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \tanh(\kappa_1 \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle + \kappa_2)$



Reproducing kernel Hilbert space

► construction:

- consider the space of functions generated by all linear combinations of the functions $k(\cdot, \mathbf{x})$:

$$f(\cdot) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

- define an inner product: let $g(\cdot) = \sum_{j=1}^{m'} \beta_j k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}'_j)$, and

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{m'} \alpha_i \beta_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}'_j)$$

► properties:

- the representer of evaluation:

$$\langle k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}), f \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$$

- the reproducing property:

$$\langle k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}), k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}') \rangle = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$$



Kernel methods

- ▶ a general optimization problem with regularization:

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda J(f) \right]$$

- ▶ $L(y, f(\mathbf{x}))$ is a point-wise loss function, $J(f)$ is a penalty functional, and \mathcal{H} is a space of candidate functions
- ▶ an important subclass of problems:

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{K}}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{K}}}^2 \right]$$

- ▶ narrow the search to a subclass of functions in a RKHS



Kernel methods

- ▶ **the representer theorem**: the minimizer has the form

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

- ▶ basis expansion with basis function: $h_i(\mathbf{x}) = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$
- ▶ solution hinges on estimating $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- ▶ the equivalent optimization problem:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} [L(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{K}\boldsymbol{\alpha}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}^\top \mathbf{K} \boldsymbol{\alpha}]$$

- ▶ thanks to the reproducing property:

$$J(f) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \alpha_i \alpha_j$$

- ▶ optimization is now over a **finite dimensional** $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n$



Kernel methods

▶ transformed predictor view:

- ▶ $k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_i)$ acts as basis function
- ▶ recall the reproducing kernel map $\Phi : \mathbf{x} \rightarrow k(\cdot, \mathbf{x})$, $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ can be viewed as a transformation of the original feature vector \mathbf{x}

▶ kernel trick

$$\langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle = \langle k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}), k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}') \rangle = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$$

▶ an example:

- ▶ a degree-2 (quadratic) polynomial kernel with $p = 2$:

$$\begin{aligned} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') &= (1 + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle)^2 \\ &= (1 + x_1 x'_1 + x'_2 x'_2)^2 \\ &= 1 + 2x_1 x'_1 + 2x'_2 x'_2 + (x_1 x'_1)^2 + (x'_2 x'_2)^2 + 2x_1 x'_1 x'_2 x'_2 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ a set of 6 basis functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) &= 1 & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}) &= \sqrt{2}x_1 & \phi_3(\mathbf{x}) &= \sqrt{2}x_2 \\ \phi_4(\mathbf{x}) &= x_1^2 & \phi_5(\mathbf{x}) &= x_2^2 & \phi_6(\mathbf{x}) &= \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle$



Kernel support vector machine

- ▶ **linear** support vector machine:

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{1 - y_i(\beta_0 + \beta^\top \mathbf{x}_i)\}_+ + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\beta\|^2 \right]$$

- ▶ $\beta = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$
- ▶ $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \beta + \beta_0$

- ▶ **kernel** support vector machine:

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{K}}} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{1 - y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)\}_+ + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{K}}}^2 \right]$$

or "equivalently", transformed predictor / basis expansion $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta_\phi} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{1 - y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_\phi^\top \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i))\}_+ + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\beta_\phi\|^2 \right]$$



Kernel support vector machine

► **kernel** support vector machine: (cont'd)

- $\beta_\phi = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- $f(\mathbf{x}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \beta_\phi + \beta_{0\phi}$, then

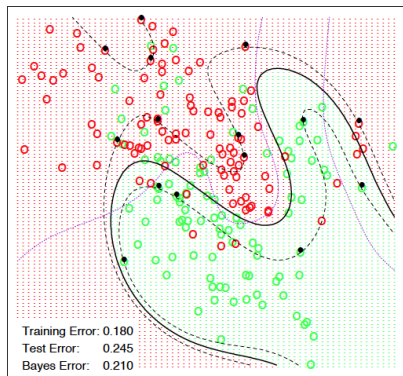
$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}) &= \Phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + \beta_{0\phi} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle + \beta_{0\phi} \end{aligned}$$

- all we need to know is: $\langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$
do not need to know anything about the actual $\Phi(\cdot)$
- can deal with $p \gg n$

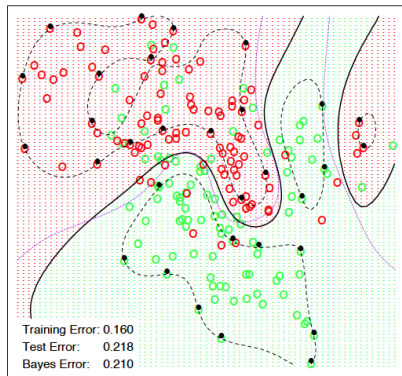


Kernel support vector machine

SVM - Degree-4 Polynomial in Feature Space



SVM - Radial Kernel in Feature Space



Additional readings

- ▶ Hastie, H., Tibshirani, R., and Friedman, J. (2001). *Elements of Statistical Learning*. Springer. Chapters 5, 9, 12

