

Mathematical optimization (Recap)

Target optimization problem:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{w \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\mathsf{Minimize}} & f(w) \\ \mathsf{Subject to} & f_i(w) \leq 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, \, p \\ & g_i(w) = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, \, q \end{array} \tag{Primal}$$

The Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}^q \to \mathbb{R}$ of the above problem is defined to be

$$\mathcal{L}(w,\lambda,\nu) = f(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i f_i(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{q} \nu_i g_i(w).$$

 $\lambda=(\lambda_1,\ldots,\,\lambda_p)$ and $\nu=(\nu_1,\ldots,\,\nu_q)$ are called **dual variables** or **Lagrange multipliers**.

Lagrange dual problem (Recap)

The Lagrange dual function $\phi: \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}^q \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined to be

$$\phi(\lambda,\nu) := \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathcal{L}(w,\lambda,\nu) = \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \left(f(w) + \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i f_i(w) + \sum_{i=1}^q \nu_i g_i(w) \right).$$

The Lagrange dual problem is defined to be

fined to be
$$\lambda_{\mathbf{t+1}} = \overline{I_{\mathbf{J}}} \left(\lambda_{\mathbf{t}} - \mathbf{\gamma} \right)$$

$$\underset{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{p}, \ \nu \in \mathbb{R}^{q}}{\text{Maximize}} \phi(\lambda, \nu)$$

$$\underset{\lambda \text{biject to}}{\text{Subject to}} \lambda \succeq 0$$
(Dual)

Note: (Dual) is a convex optimization problem even when (Primal) is not convex.

Strong duality and KKT conditions (Recap)

Let p^* and d^* be the optimal values of (Primal) and (Dual), resp. Then, $p^* \ge d^*$.

Strong duality: when $p^* = d^*$.

KKT conditions: Necessary conditions for optimality (under strong duality and differentiability).

KKT conditions are also **sufficient if the primal is convex and differentiable.** Strong duality is for free in that case.

Soft-margin linear SVM (Recap)

Dataset
$$S = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$$
, with $x_i \in \mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ and $y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$.

Primal optimization problem:

 $c \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$ is the misclassification penalty and r > 1.

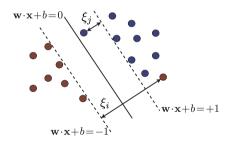


Figure: Linear classification with soft-margin.

Solution to linear SVM (Recap)

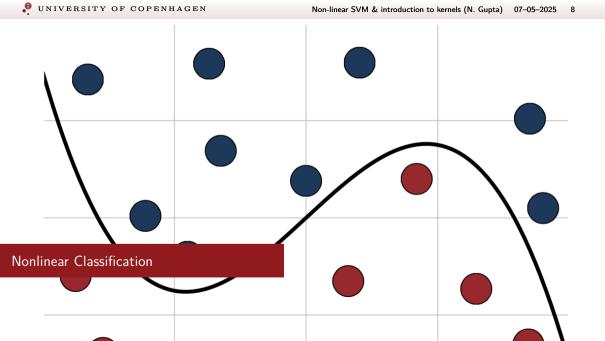
Dual optimization problem (for r = 1):

Dual optimization problem (for
$$r=1$$
):
$$\text{Maximize} \quad \phi(\lambda) \coloneqq \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i - \frac{1}{2} \| \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i x_i \|^2$$
 Subject to $0 \le \lambda_i \le c$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i = 0$$

Support vectors: set of points (x_i, y_i) for which $\lambda_i^* > 0$.

Optimal weights. $w^* = \sum_{i \in SV} \lambda_i^* y_i x_i$, where $SV \subseteq [n]$ is indices of support vectors.

For $i \in SV$ with $\lambda_i^* < c$ (i.e., x_i lies on the marginal hyperplane), $\langle w^*, x_i \rangle + b^* = y_i$. Thus, $b^* = y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^* y_i \langle x_i, x_i \rangle$.



Linear classifiers can be suboptimal

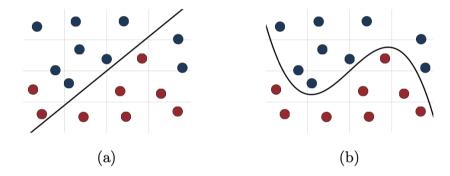
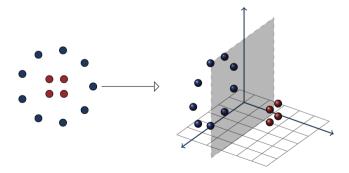


Figure: (a) Linear classifier. (b) Nonlinear classifier.

Nonlinear transformation for inducing linear separability

Nonlinear mapping to a higher dimensional space.

For example, in the case below with input space $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, by mapping x to $\Psi(x) = ([x]_1, [x]_2, \|x\|)$ we obtain linear separability.



Linear SVM with input space transformation

Consider feature mapping $\Psi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Z}$, where \mathcal{Z} is referred to as the feature space.

Dual problem of linear SVM over transformed data points:

Maximize
$$\phi(\lambda) \coloneqq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i - \frac{1}{2} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i y_i \Psi(x_i) \right\|^2$$

Subject to $0 \le \lambda_i \le c$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i y_i = 0$

By analogy to original SVM problem, $w^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^* y_i \Psi(x_i) \in \mathcal{Z}$. For i such that $0 < \lambda_i^* < c$ we obtain $b^* = y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^* y_i \langle \Psi(x_i), \Psi(x_j) \rangle$.

Hypothesis: $h(x) = \text{Sign}(\langle w^*, \Psi(x) \rangle + b^*).$

Caveat: Computational cost for $\Psi(x)$ is in $\mathcal{O}(\dim(\mathcal{Z}))$ and can be prohibitively high in practice.

Linear SVM on XOR-type data

Consider feature mapping $\Psi(x)=([x]_1,[x]_2,[x]_1[x]_2).$

$$(1,1) \longrightarrow (1,1,1)$$

$$(1,-1,-1) \longrightarrow (1,-1,-1)$$

$$(-1,-1) \longrightarrow (-1,-1,1)$$

$$(-1,1) \longmapsto (-1,1,-1)$$

$$[\Psi(x)]_{3} > 0 \longrightarrow 0$$

Kernels: Efficient incorporation of nonlinear transformation

We can write
$$\phi(\lambda) := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \lambda_i \lambda_j y_i y_j \langle \Psi(x_i), \Psi(x_j) \rangle$$
. $\langle \Psi(x_i), \Psi(x_j) \rangle = \langle (\chi_i, \chi_j) \rangle$ Moreover, the hypothesis $h(x) = \operatorname{Sign} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i^* y_i \langle \Psi(x_i), \Psi(x_i) \rangle + b^* \right)$

These computations involving inner-products can be performed without explicitly computing $\Psi.$

Kernels: A function $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$.

K is **positive definite symmetric** (PDS) if for any $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \subset \mathcal{X}$, the *Gram matrix* $\mathbf{K} = [K(x_i, x_j)]_{ij}$ is (symmetric) positive semi-definite.

Theorem. If K is **PDS** then K defines an inner product in a Hilbert space \mathcal{Z} , and there exists $\Psi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Z}$ such that $K(x, x') = \langle \Psi(x), \Psi(x') \rangle$.

Linear SVM with kernel K

Replacing $\langle \Psi(x_i), \Psi(x_i) \rangle$ by $K(x_i, x_i)$ in the dual SVM problem we obtain:

The resulting hypothesis is given by (why?)

$$h(x) = \operatorname{Sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{*} y_{i} K(x_{i}, x) + b^{*}\right),$$

where $b^* = y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^* y_i K(x_i, x_i)$ with $i \in [n]$ such that $0 < \lambda_i^* < c$.

Linear SVM with kernel K (derivation)

The resulting hypothesis is given by:

$$h(x) = \operatorname{Sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{*} y_{i} K(x_{i}, x) + b^{*}\right),\,$$

Examples of PDS kernels

$$\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{X}_{i}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{X}_{i}^{T}, \mathcal{X}_{i} \\ \vdots \\ \mathcal{X}_{n}^{T}, \mathcal{X}_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$



• **Exponential.** For
$$a \in \mathbb{R}$$
, exponential kernel is $K(x, x') = \exp\left(\frac{x^{\mathsf{T}} x'}{a^2}\right)$.

• **Normalized.** For a PDS K, its normalized kernel \widehat{K} (defined below) is also PDS.

$$\widehat{K}(x,x') = \begin{cases} 0, & K(x,x) = 0 \lor K(x',x') = 0\\ \frac{K(x,x')}{\sqrt{K(x,x)}K(x',x')}, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

• **Gaussian**. For $a \in \mathbb{R}$, Gaussian kernel (or *radial basis function* (RBF)) is

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

• **Sigmoid.** For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}_+$, a sigmoidal kernel is $K(x, x') = \tanh(ax^{\mathsf{T}}x' + b)$.

Gaussian versus exponential kernels

Gaussian. For $a \in \mathbb{R}$, Gaussian kernel (or radial basis function (RBF)) is $K(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - x'\|^2}{2a^2}\right)$.

Exponential. For
$$a \in \mathbb{R}$$
, exponential kernel is $K(x, x') = \exp\left(\frac{x^\mathsf{T} x'}{a^2}\right)$.

* RBF is uponalized =
$$\frac{\text{kep}(xx')}{\sqrt{\text{Kep}(x,x)} \cdot \text{Kep}(x,x')}$$

Example of XOR

Polynomial kernel.
$$K(x, x') = (x^{\mathsf{T}}x' + a)^2$$
.

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Reproducing property of PDS kernels

Kernels can be used to define a large class of functions on \mathcal{X} .

If $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Z}$ is PDS, then

• For all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $K(x, \cdot) \in \mathcal{Z}$.

- \mathcal{Z} is a **reproducing kernel Hilbert space** associated to K. Specifically, any $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ defines a mapping from \mathcal{X} to \mathbb{R} whose value at any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is given by a linear combination:

$$z(x) = \langle z, \underline{K(x,\cdot)} \rangle.$$

Therefore, for a PDS K we can define $\Psi(x) = K(x, \cdot)$.

For SVM with K, an optimal hyperplane (ignoring the offset) is given by $z^* := \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i K(x_i, \cdot)$.

Geometric interpretation

For a PDS K we can define $\Psi(x) = K(x,\cdot)$ and $(z(x)) = \langle z, K(x,\cdot) \rangle$. For SVM with K, an optimal hyperplane (ignoring the offset) is given by $z^* \coloneqq \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i K(x_i,\cdot)$.

The interest of the offset is given by
$$2 := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i y_i \mathcal{N}(x_i, y_i)$$
.

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Beyond SVM: wider application of kernels

We can also apply kernels in other machine learning tasks like regression, dimensionality reduction or clustering.

Consider the following optimization problem associated with a mapping z induced over \mathcal{X} by a **PDS kernel** $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Z}$.

$$\underset{z \in \mathcal{Z}}{\mathsf{Minimize}} \ M(\|z\|) + \mathcal{L}(z(x_1), \dots, z(x_n)), \tag{Opt K}$$

where $M: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is monotonically non-decreasing and $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$.

Representer theorem: (Opt K) admits a solution $z^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i K(x_i, \cdot)$.

What is M and C for SVM with PDS K?

Limitations of kernel trick

- Kernel selection is challenging. Requires domain expertise and lot of experimentation.
- Not very scalable. Can be expensive to implement on large datasets. Can be tackled to certain extent through approximate kernel feature maps.
- High sensitivity to kernel parameters. A small change in kernel parameters can drastically change SVM's performance.

References & further readings

The lecture notes are based on Chapter 6 of "Foundations of Machine Learning" by M. Mohri, A. Rostamizadeh, and A. Talwalkar.

Additional reading:

- Learning guarantee of a PDS kernel based method: Section 6.3.3.
- Approximate kernel feature maps: Section 6.6.