

Machine Learning

Part I: Introduction

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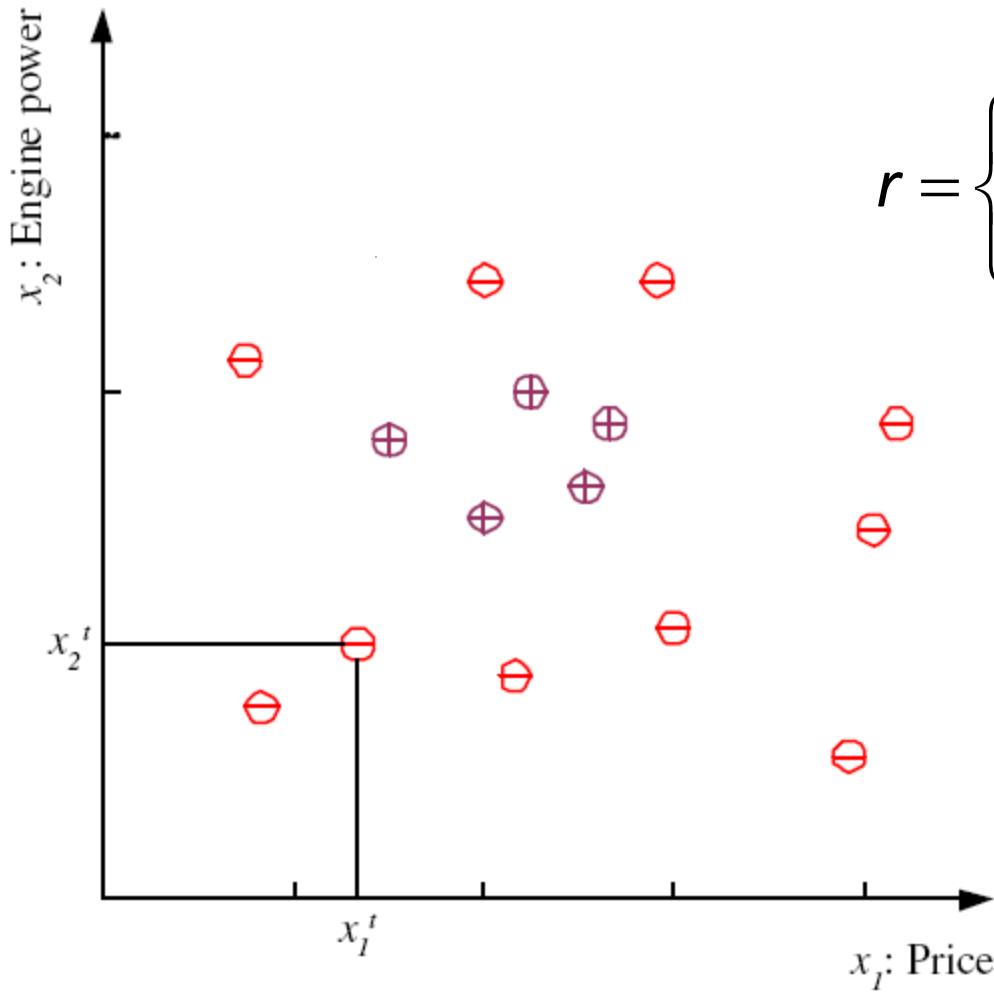
Ref: E. Alpaydın (2010). *Introduction to Machine Learning*, 2e, The MIT Press.

Learning a Class from Examples

- Class C of a “family car”
 - Prediction: Is car x a family car?
 - Knowledge extraction: What do people expect from a family car?
- Output:
 - Positive (+) and negative (−) examples
- Input representation:
 - x_1 : price, x_2 : engine power

Training set \mathcal{X}

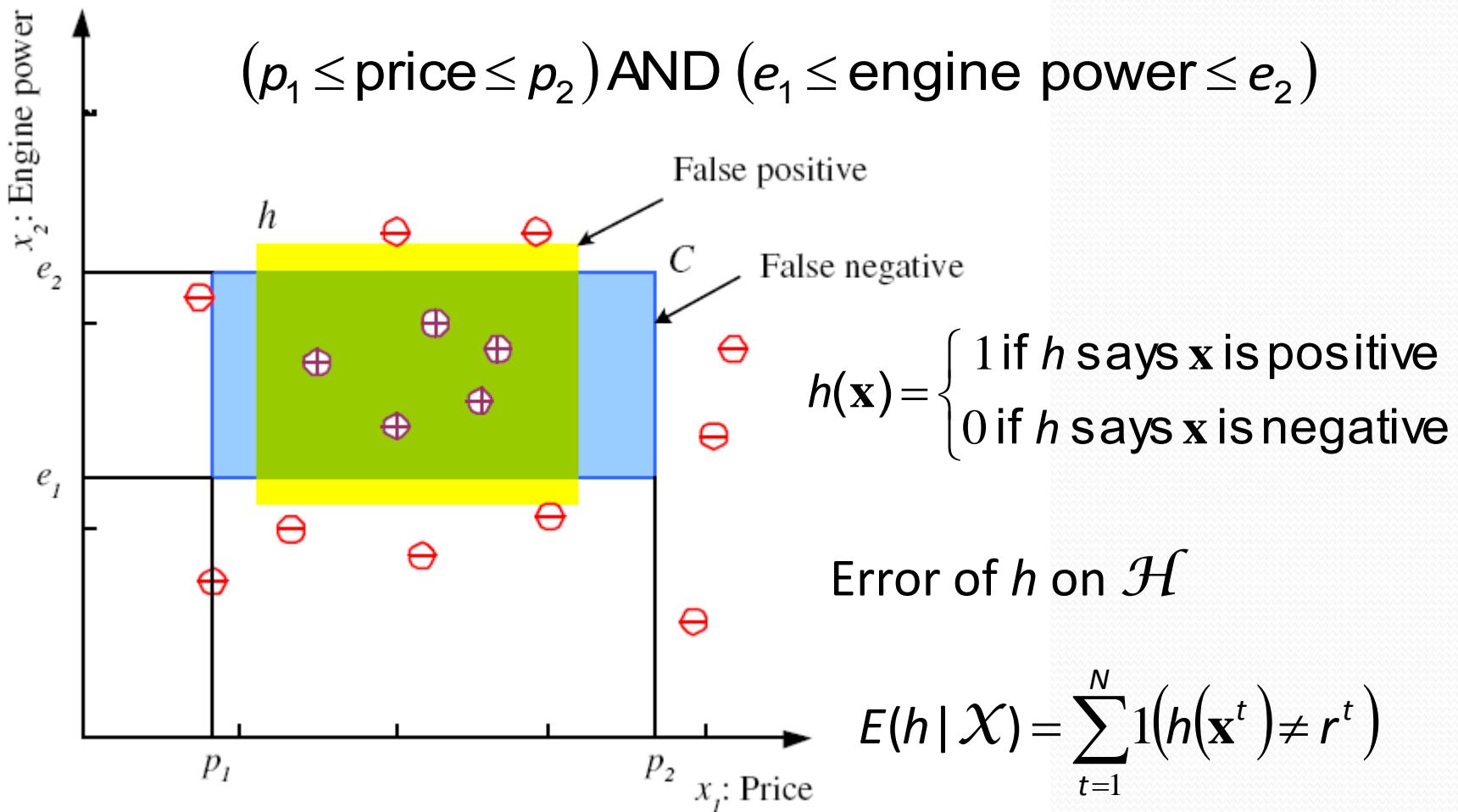
$$\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^t, r^t\}_{t=1}^N$$



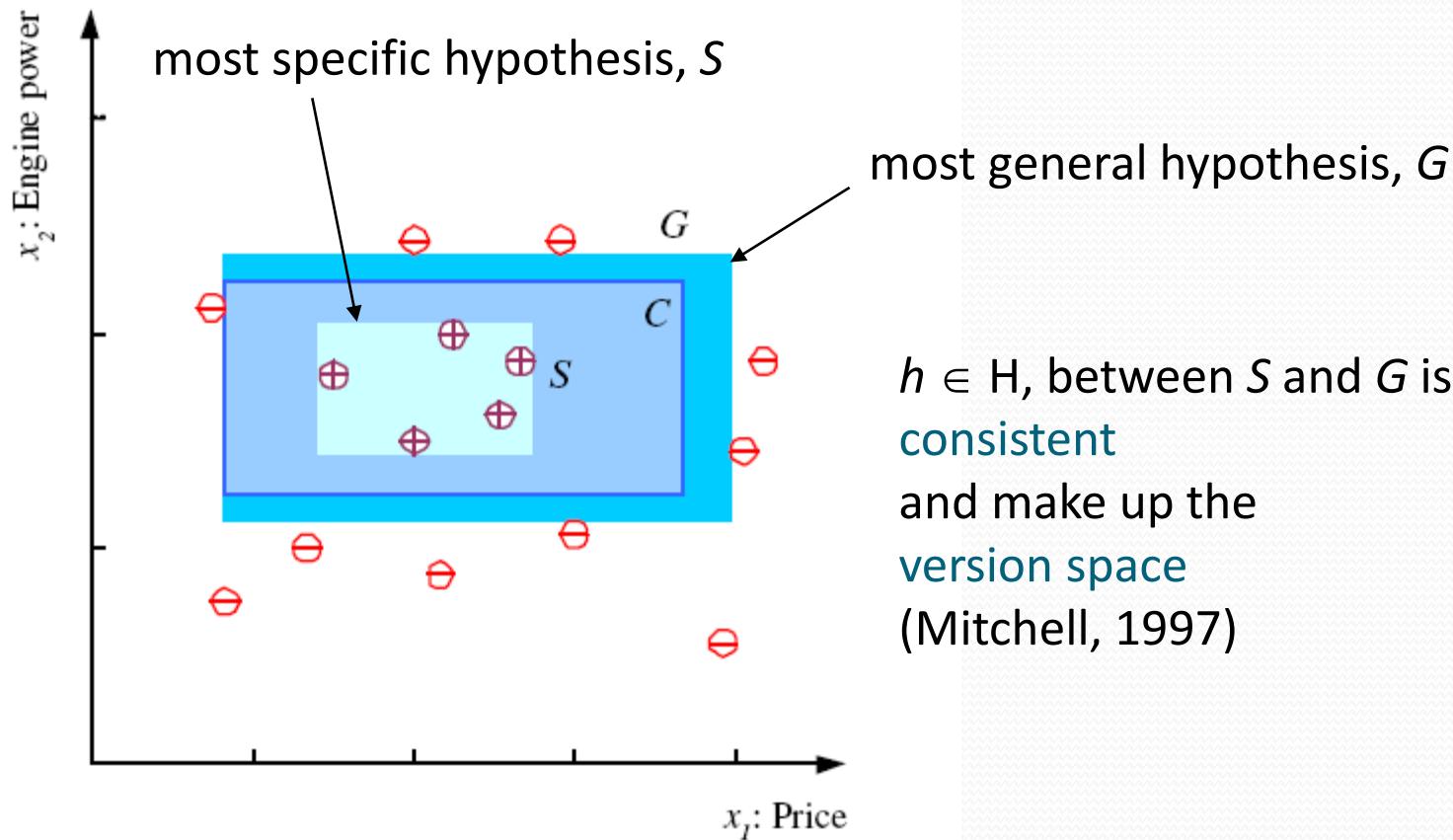
$$r = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is positive} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is negative} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hypothesis class \mathcal{H}

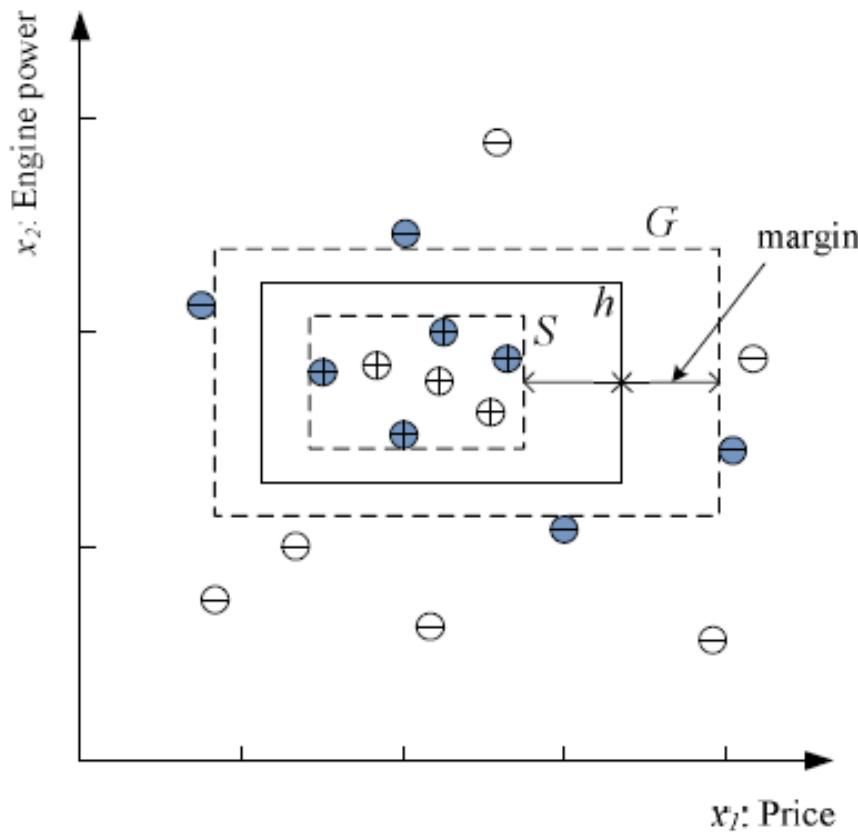


S , G , and the Version Space



Margin

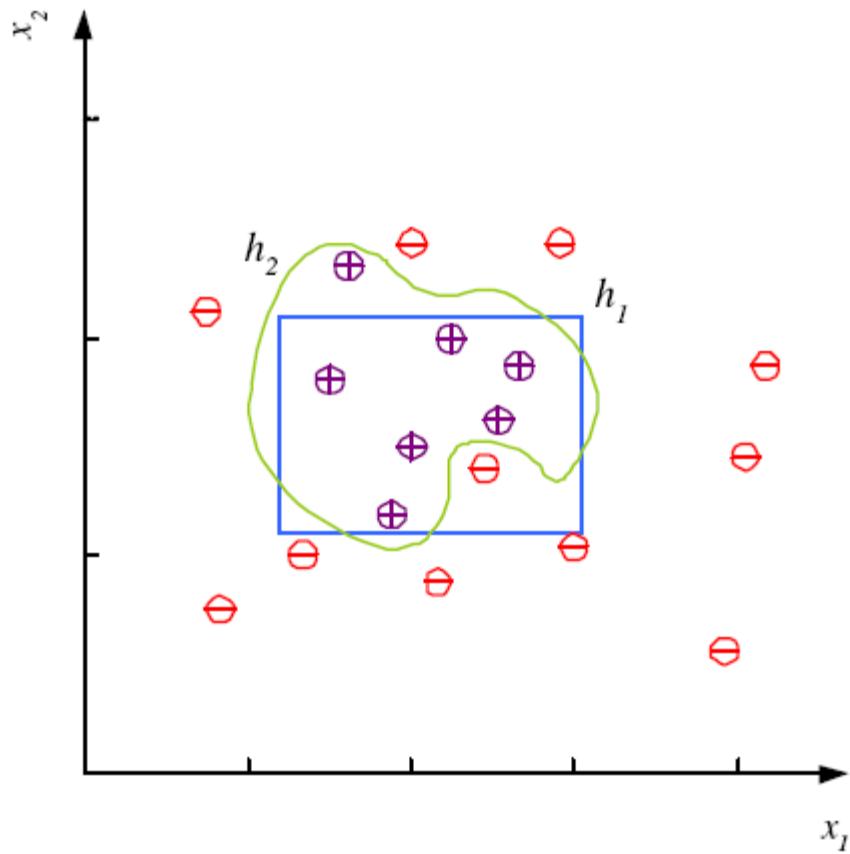
- Choose h with largest margin



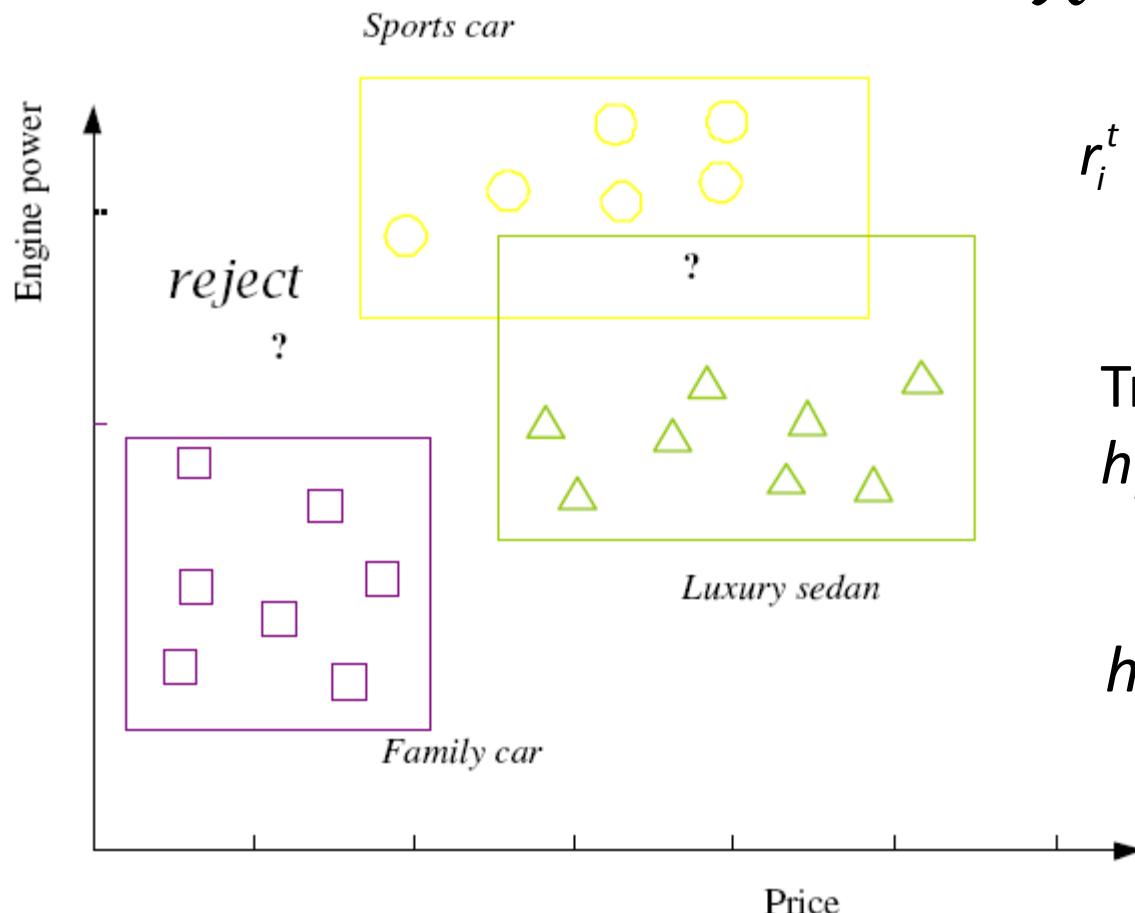
Noise and Model Complexity

Use the simpler one because

- Simpler to use
(lower computational complexity)
- Easier to train (lower space complexity)
- Easier to explain
(more interpretable)
- Generalizes better (lower variance - Occam's razor)



Multiple Classes, C_i $i=1,\dots,K$



$$\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^t, r^t\}_{t=1}^N$$

$$r_i^t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^t \in C_i \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^t \in C_j, j \neq i \end{cases}$$

Train hypotheses
 $h_i(\mathbf{x})$, $i = 1, \dots, K$:

$$h_i(\mathbf{x}^t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^t \in C_i \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^t \in C_j, j \neq i \end{cases}$$

Face Recognition

Training examples of a person and negative examples



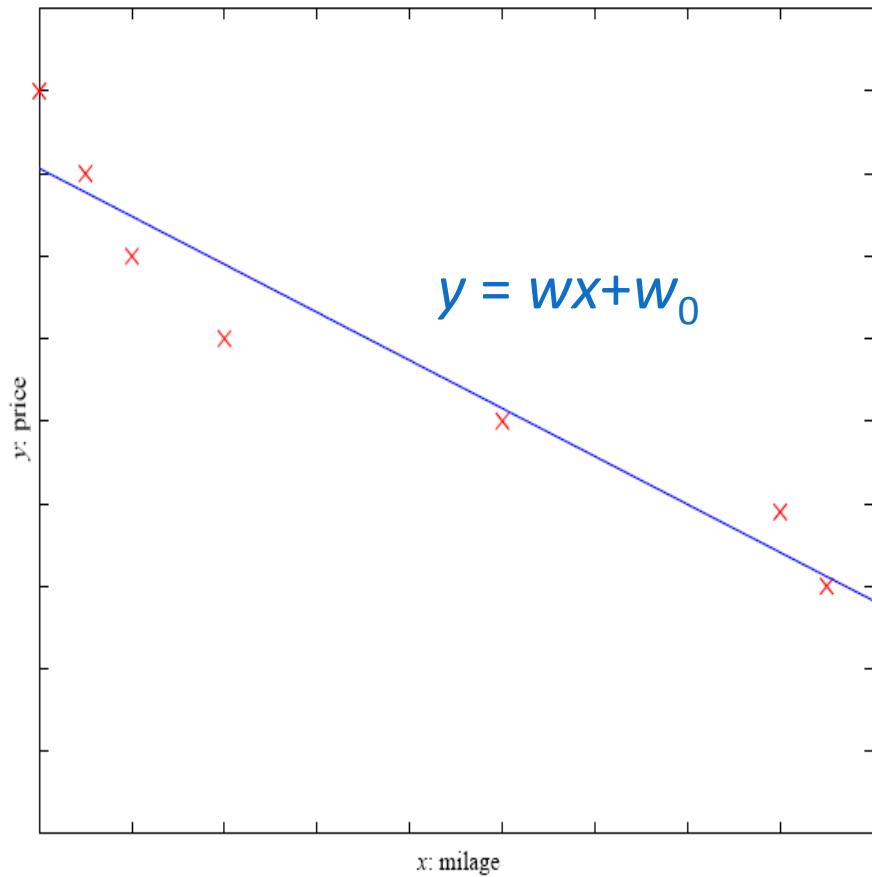
Test image



ORL dataset,
AT&T Laboratories, Cambridge UK

Regression

- Example: Price of a used car
 - x : car attributes
 y : price
- $$y = g(x|\theta)$$
- $g(\cdot)$ model,
 θ parameters



Regression

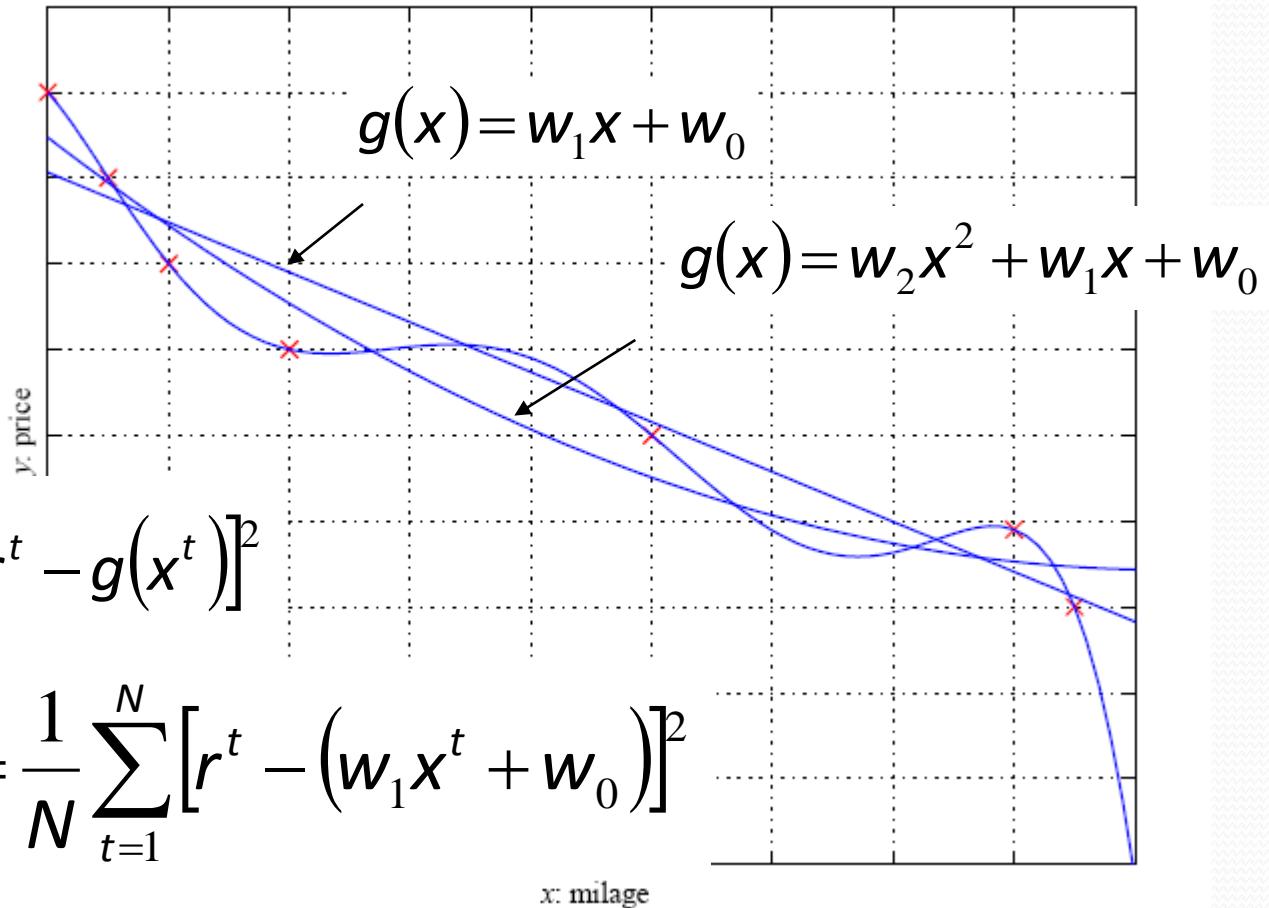
$$\mathcal{X} = \{x^t, r^t\}_{t=1}^N$$

$$r^t \in \Re$$

$$r^t = f(x^t) + \varepsilon$$

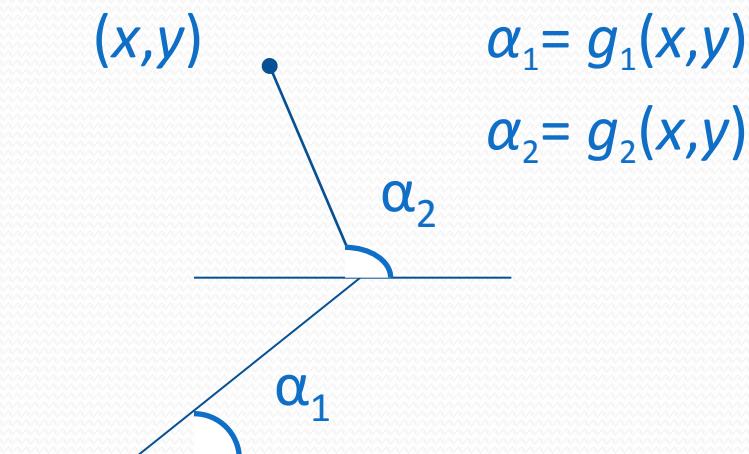
$$E(g | \mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N [r^t - g(x^t)]^2$$

$$E(w_1, w_0 | \mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N [r^t - (w_1 x^t + w_0)]^2$$



Regression Applications

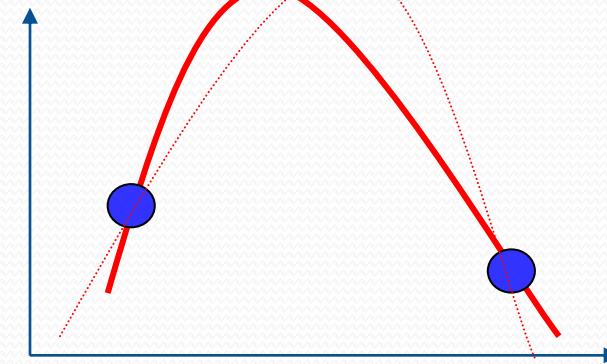
- Navigating a car: Angle of the steering wheel
- Kinematics of a robot arm



$$\alpha_1 = g_1(x, y)$$

$$\alpha_2 = g_2(x, y)$$

- Response surface design



Supervised Learning: Uses

- Prediction of future cases: Use the rule to predict the output for future inputs
- Knowledge extraction: The rule is easy to understand
- Compression: The rule is simpler than the data it explains
- Outlier detection: Exceptions that are not covered by the rule, e.g., fraud

Triple Trade-Off

- There is a trade-off between three factors (Dietterich, 2003):
 1. Complexity of \mathcal{H} , $c(\mathcal{H})$,
 2. Training set size, N ,
 3. Generalization error, E , on new data
- As $N, E \downarrow$
- As $c(\mathcal{H})$, first $E \downarrow$ and then E

Cross-Validation

- To estimate generalization error, we need data unseen during training. We split the data as
 - Training set (50%)
 - Validation set (25%)
 - Test (publication) set (25%)
- Resampling when the data set is small

Dimensions of a Supervised Learner

1. Model: $g(\mathbf{x} | \theta)$

2. Loss function: $E(\theta | \mathcal{X}) = \sum_t L(r^t, g(\mathbf{x}^t | \theta))$

3. Optimization procedure:

$$\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} E(\theta | \mathcal{X})$$

Model Selection & Generalization

- Learning is an ill-posed problem; data is not sufficient to find a unique solution
- The need for inductive bias, assumptions about \mathcal{H}
- Generalization: How well a model performs on new data
- Overfitting: \mathcal{H} more complex than C or f
- Underfitting: \mathcal{H} less complex than C or f

Bayesian Decision Theory

Estimating Probabilities

- Family car or not: Inputs are engine power and price.
Output is family-car vs not-family-car.
- Input: $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$, Output: $C \in \{0,1\}$
- Prediction:

choose
$$\begin{cases} C = 1 & \text{if } P(C=1 | x_1, x_2) > 0.5 \\ C = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

or

choose
$$\begin{cases} C = 1 & \text{if } P(C=1 | x_1, x_2) > P(C=0 | x_1, x_2) \\ C = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Bayes' Rule

$$P(C | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(C) p(\mathbf{x} | C)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

prior *likelihood*
posterior *evidence*

$$P(C = 0) + P(C = 1) = 1$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x} | C = 1)P(C = 1) + p(\mathbf{x} | C = 0)P(C = 0)$$

$$p(C = 0 | \mathbf{x}) + P(C = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = 1$$

Bayes' Rule: $K > 2$ Classes

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)P(C_i)}{p(\mathbf{x})} \\ &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)P(C_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x} | C_k)P(C_k)} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(C_i) \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^K P(C_i) = 1$$

choose C_i if $P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) = \max_k P(C_k | \mathbf{x})$

Losses and Risks

- Actions: α_i
- Loss of α_i when the state is C_k : λ_{ik}
- Expected risk (Duda and Hart, 1973)

$$R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda_{ik} P(C_k | \mathbf{x})$$

choose α_i if $R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) = \min_k R(\alpha_k | \mathbf{x})$

Losses and Risks: 0/1 Loss

$$\lambda_{ik} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = k \\ 1 & \text{if } i \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda_{ik} P(C_k | \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \sum_{k \neq i} P(C_k | \mathbf{x}) \\ &= 1 - P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

For minimum risk, choose the most probable class

Action of “reject”

Misclassification costs may not be symmetric

Discriminant Functions

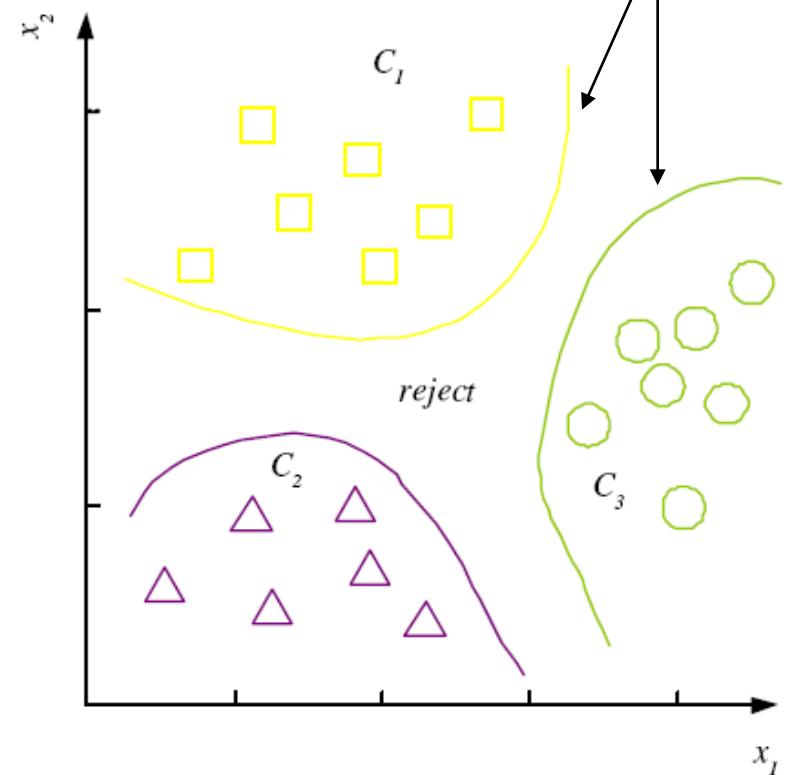
choose C_i if $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \max_k g_k(\mathbf{x})$

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} -R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) \\ P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) \\ p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)P(C_i) \end{cases}$$

K decision regions $\mathcal{R}_1, \dots, \mathcal{R}_K$

$$\mathcal{R}_i = \{\mathbf{x} | g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \max_k g_k(\mathbf{x})\}$$

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}), i = 1, \dots, K$$



Parametric Estimation of Densities

- $\mathcal{X} = \{x^t\}_t$ where $x^t \sim p(x)$

- Parametric estimation:

Assume a form for $p(x | \theta)$ and estimate θ , its sufficient statistics, using X

e.g., $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where $\theta = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Likelihood of θ given the sample \mathcal{X}

$$l(\theta|\mathcal{X}) = p(\mathcal{X}|\theta) = \prod_t p(x^t|\theta)$$

- Log likelihood

$$L(\theta|\mathcal{X}) = \log l(\theta|\mathcal{X}) = \sum_t \log p(x^t|\theta)$$

- Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)

$$\theta^* = \operatorname{argmax}_\theta L(\theta|\mathcal{X})$$

Bayes' Estimator

- Treat θ as a random var with prior $p(\theta)$
- Bayes' rule: $p(\theta|\mathcal{X}) = p(\mathcal{X}|\theta) p(\theta) / p(\mathcal{X})$
- Full: $p(x|\mathcal{X}) = \int p(x|\theta) p(\theta|\mathcal{X}) d\theta$
- Maximum a Posteriori (MAP): $\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} p(\theta|\mathcal{X})$
- Maximum Likelihood (ML): $\theta_{\text{ML}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} p(\mathcal{X}|\theta)$
- Bayes': $\theta_{\text{Bayes'}} = E[\theta|\mathcal{X}] = \int \theta p(\theta|\mathcal{X}) d\theta$

Parametric Classification

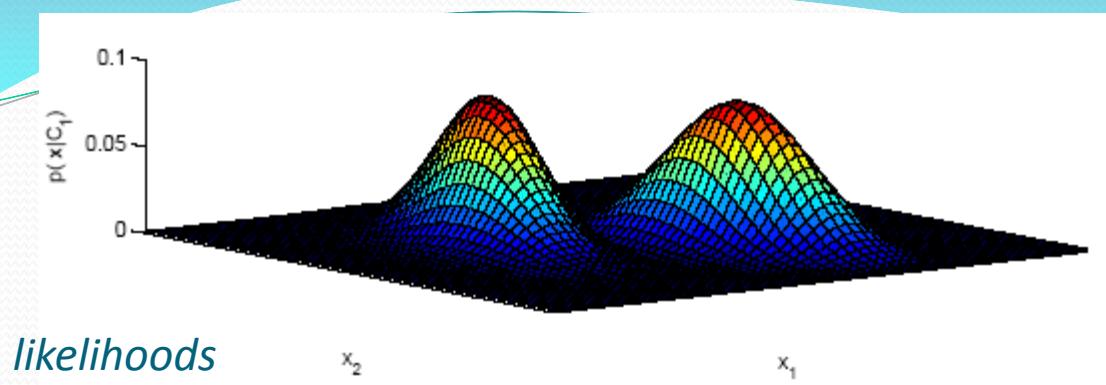
- If $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \Sigma_i)$

$$p(\mathbf{x}|C_i) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma_i|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)\right]$$

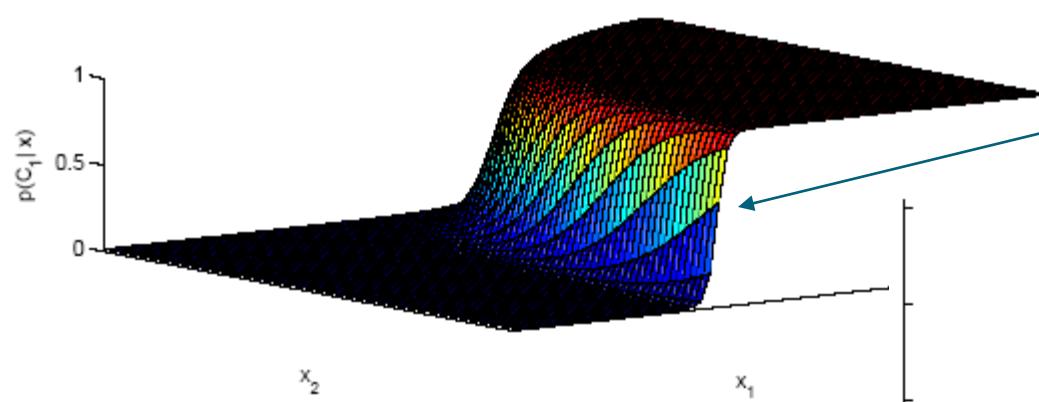
- Discriminant functions

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}|C_i) + \log P(C_i)$$

$$= -\frac{d}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_i| - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i) + \log P(C_i)$$

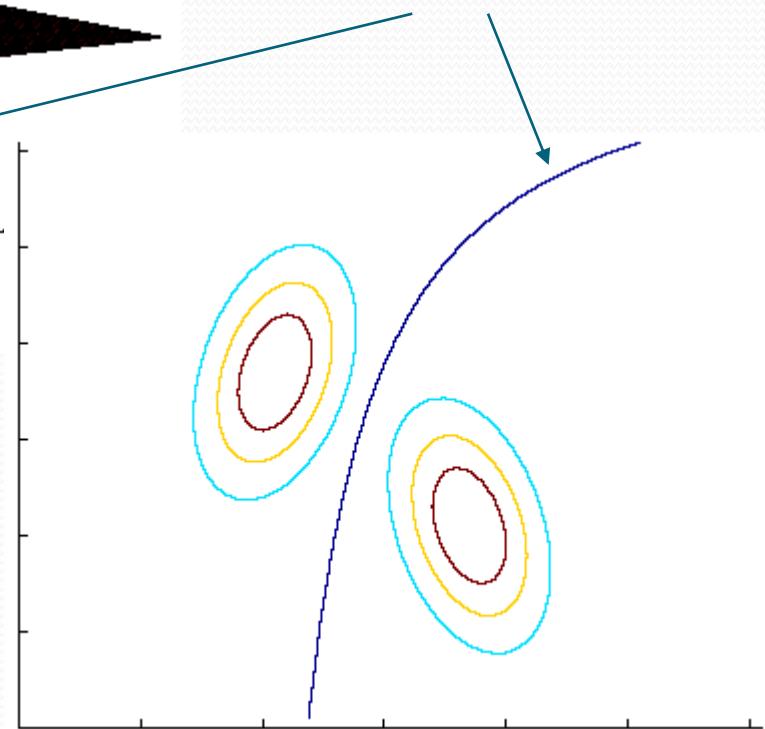


likelihoods



posterior for C_1

discriminant:
 $P(C_1|x) = 0.5$

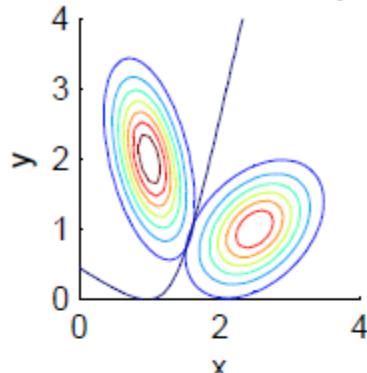


Model Selection

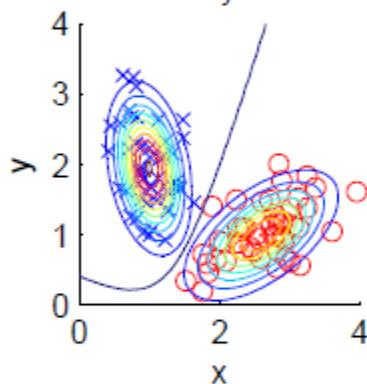
<i>Assumption</i>	<i>Covariance matrix</i>	<i>No of parameters</i>
Shared, Hyperspheric	$\mathbf{S}_i = \mathbf{S} = s^2 \mathbf{I}$	1
Shared, Axis-aligned	$\mathbf{S}_i = \mathbf{S}$, with $s_{ij} = 0$	d
Shared, Hyperellipsoidal	$\mathbf{S}_i = \mathbf{S}$	$d(d+1)/2$
Different, Hyperellipsoidal	\mathbf{S}_i	$K d(d+1)/2$

- As we increase complexity (less restricted \mathbf{S}), bias decreases and variance increases
- Assume simple models (allow some bias) to control variance (regularization)

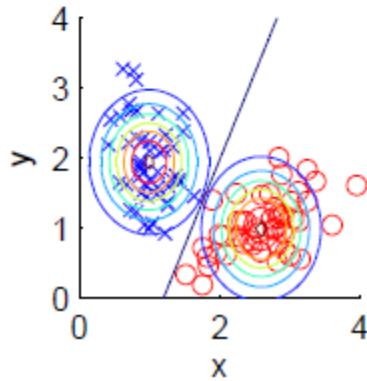
Population likelihoods and posteriors



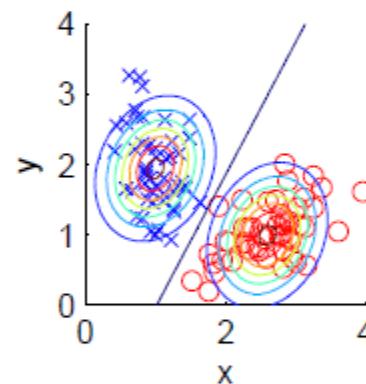
Arbitrary covar.



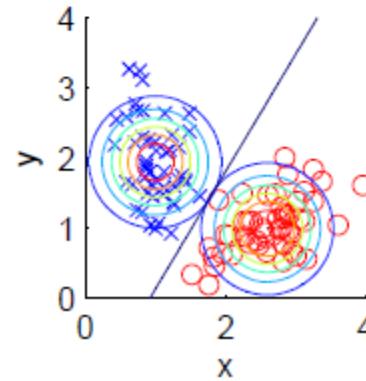
Diag. covar.



Shared covar.



Equal var.



Bias and Variance

Unknown parameter θ

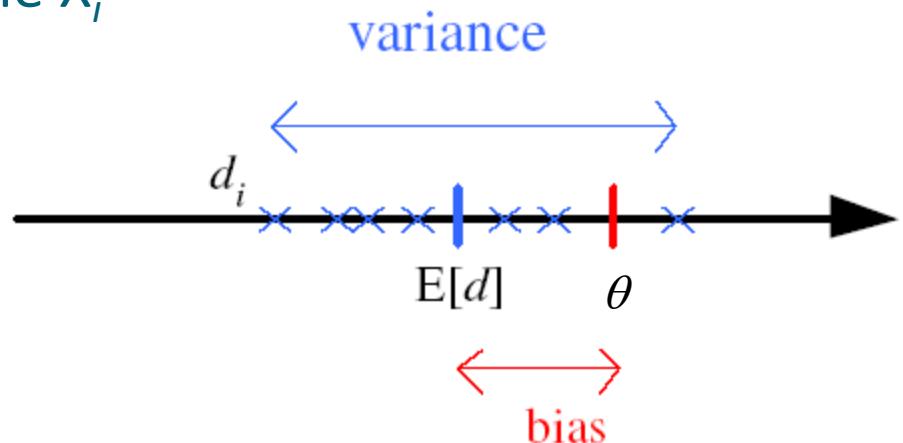
Estimator $d_i = d(X_i)$ on sample X_i

Bias: $b_\theta(d) = E[d] - \theta$

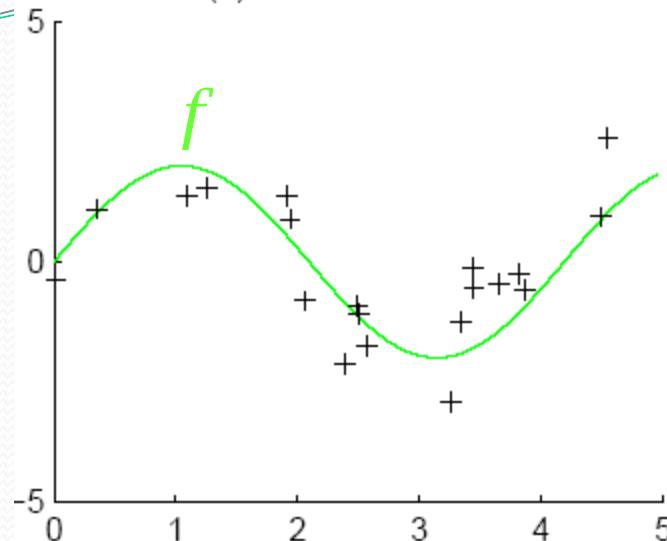
Variance: $E[(d - E[d])^2]$

Mean square error:

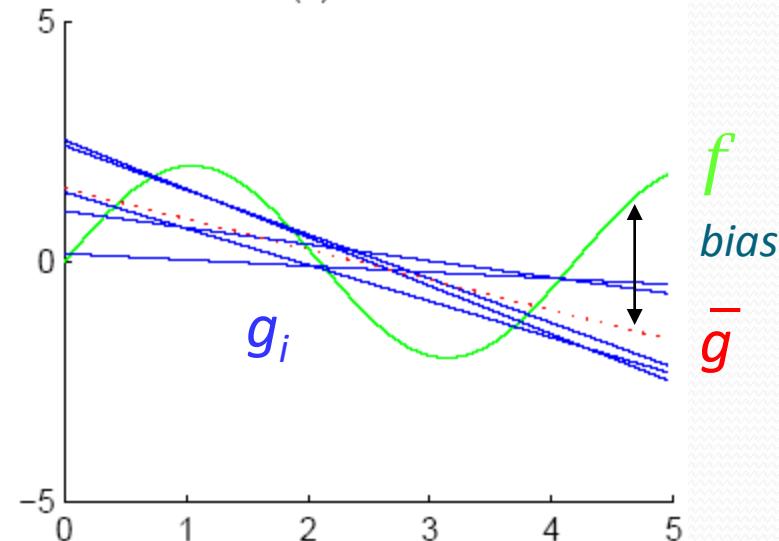
$$\begin{aligned} r(d, \theta) &= E[(d - \theta)^2] \\ &= (E[d] - \theta)^2 + E[(d - E[d])^2] \\ &= \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance} \end{aligned}$$



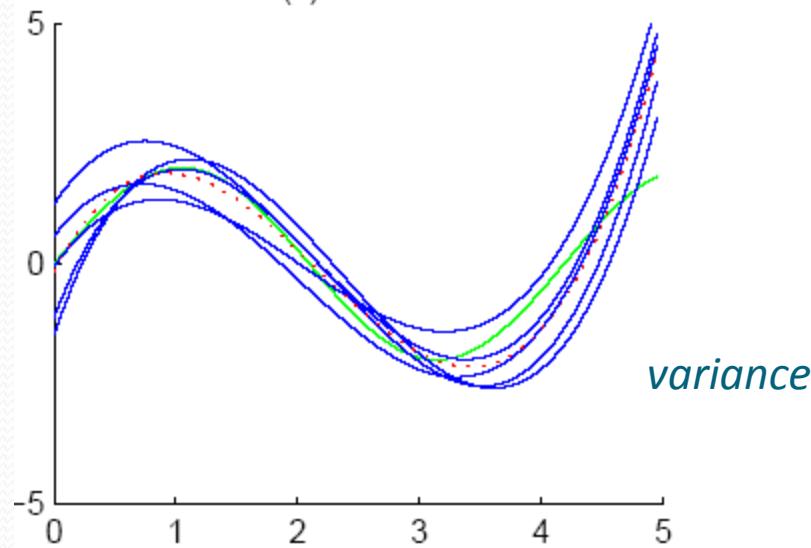
(a) Function and data



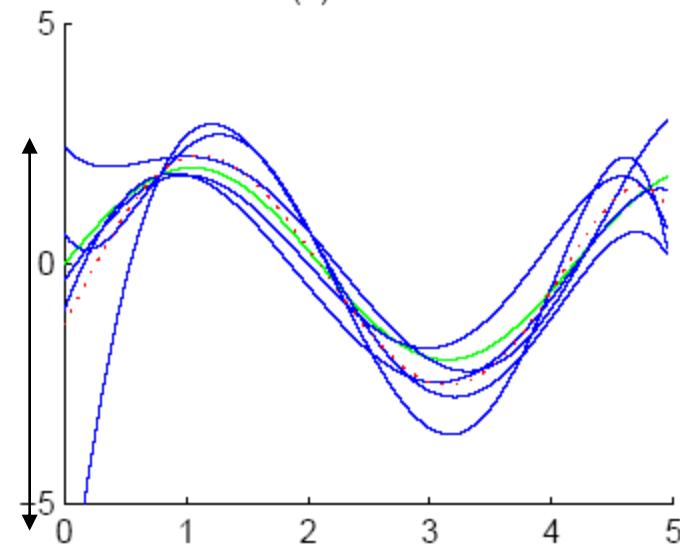
(b) Order 1



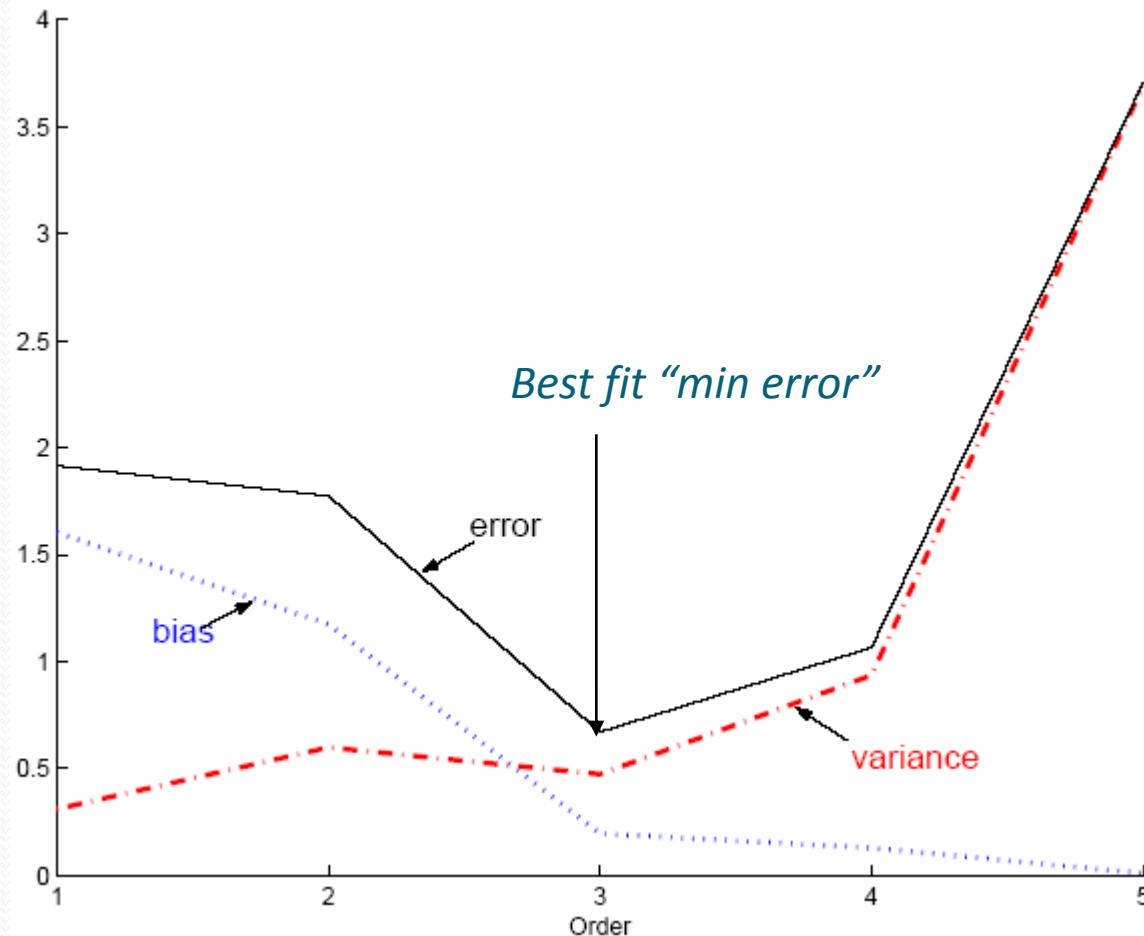
(c) Order 3



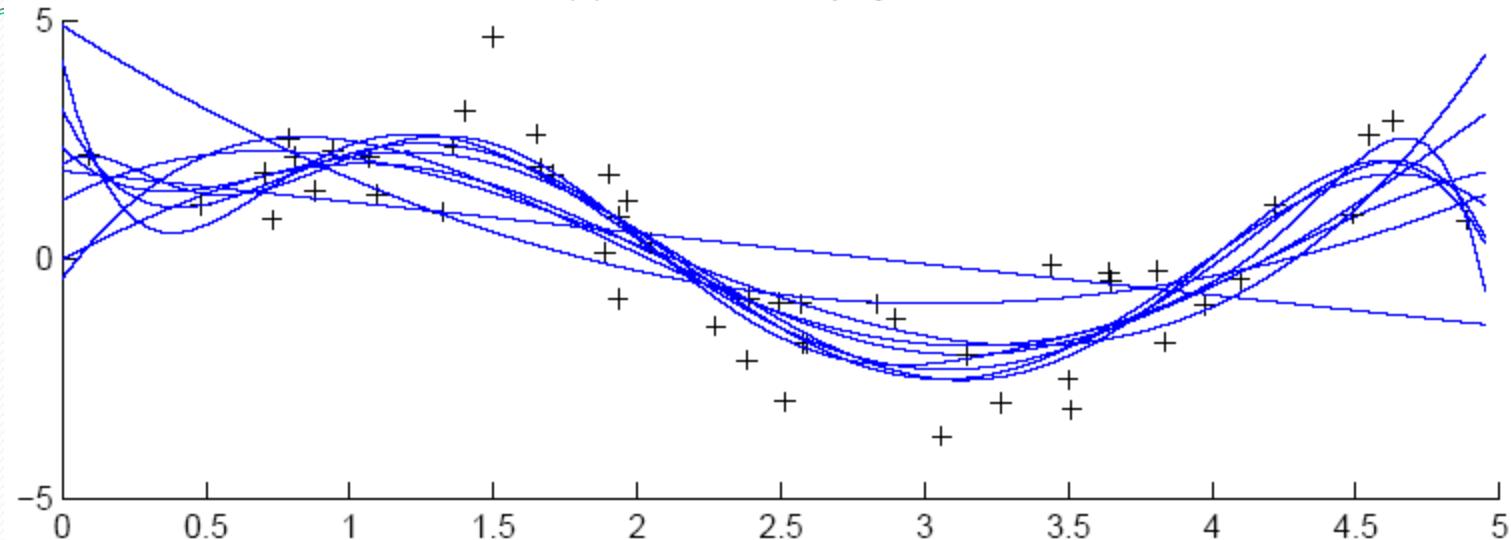
(d) Order 5



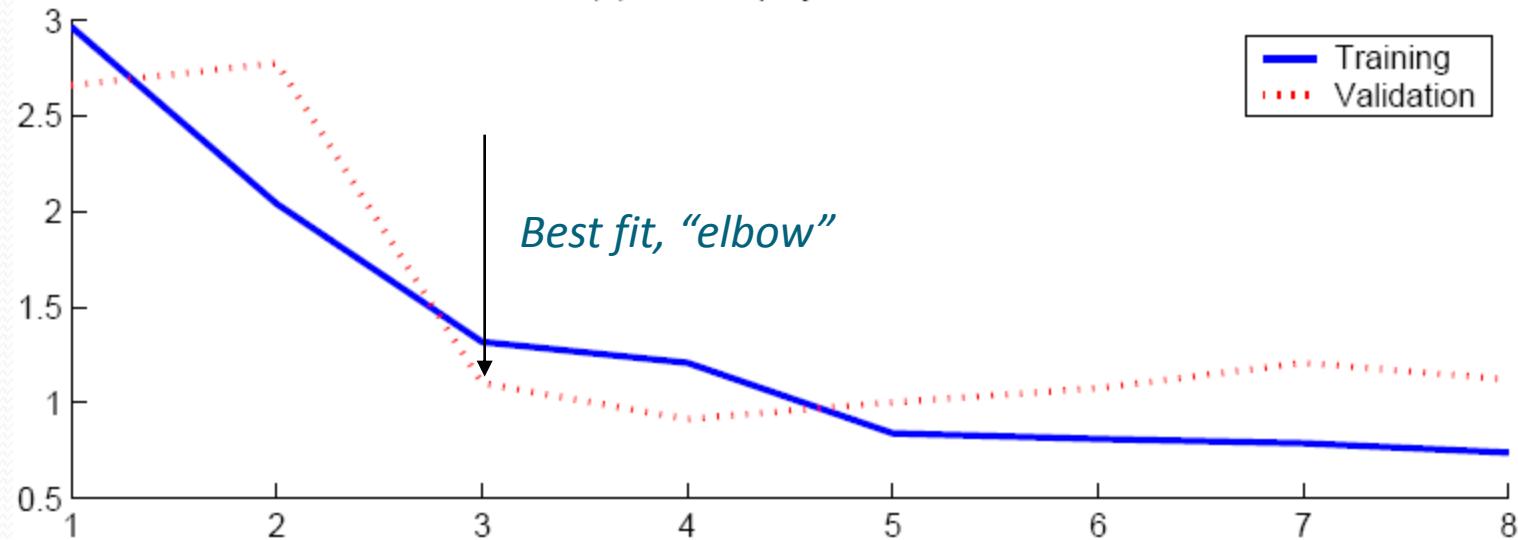
Polynomial Regression



(a) Data and fitted polynomials



(b) Error vs polynomial order



Model Selection

- Cross-validation: Measure generalization accuracy by testing on data unused during training
- Regularization: Penalize complex models
 $E' = \text{error on data} + \lambda \text{ model complexity}$
- Minimum description length (MDL): Kolmogorov complexity, shortest description of data
- Structural risk minimization (SRM)

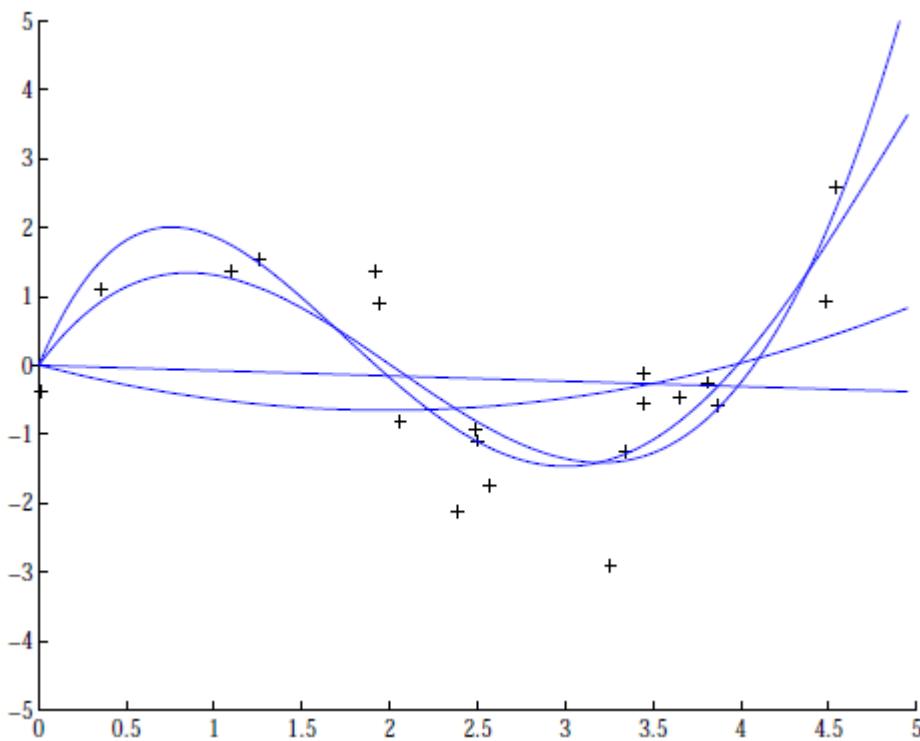
Bayesian Model Selection

- Prior on models, $p(\text{model})$

$$p(\text{model} \parallel \text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data} \mid \text{model}) p(\text{model})}{p(\text{data})}$$

- Regularization, when prior favors simpler models
- Bayes, MAP of the posterior, $p(\text{model} \mid \text{data})$
- Average over a number of models with high posterior
(voting, ensembles: see Part II)

Regression example



Coefficients increase in magnitude as order increases:

- 1: [-0.0769, 0.0016]
- 2: [0.1682, -0.6657, 0.0080]
- 3: [0.4238, -2.5778, 3.4675, -0.0002]
- 4: [-0.1093, 1.4356, -5.5007, 6.0454, -0.0019]

regularization: $E(\mathbf{w} | \mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^N [r^t - g(x^t | \mathbf{w})]^2 + \lambda \sum_i w_i^2$

Nonparametric Estimation

- Parametric (single global model), semiparametric (small number of local models)
- Nonparametric: Similar inputs have similar outputs
- Functions (pdf, discriminant, regression) change smoothly
- Keep the training data; “let the data speak for itself”
- Given x , find a small number of closest training instances and interpolate from these
- Aka lazy/memory-based/case-based/instance-based learning

Density Estimation

- Given the training set $X = \{x^t\}_t$ drawn iid from $p(x)$

- Divide data into bins of size h

- Histogram:

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{\#\{x^t \text{ in the same bin as } x\}}{Nh}$$

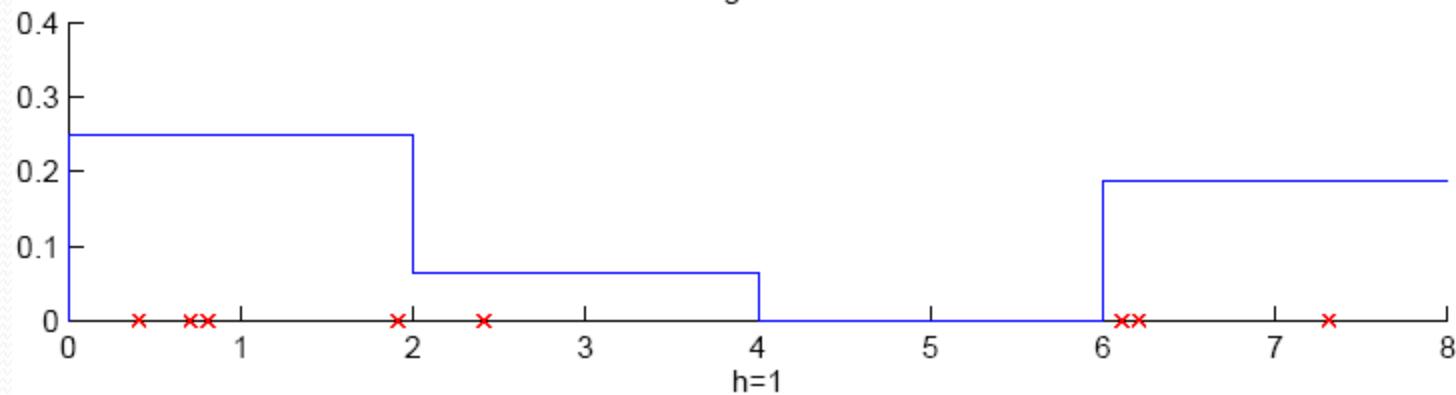
- Naive estimator:

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{\#\{x - h < x^t \leq x + h\}}{2Nh}$$

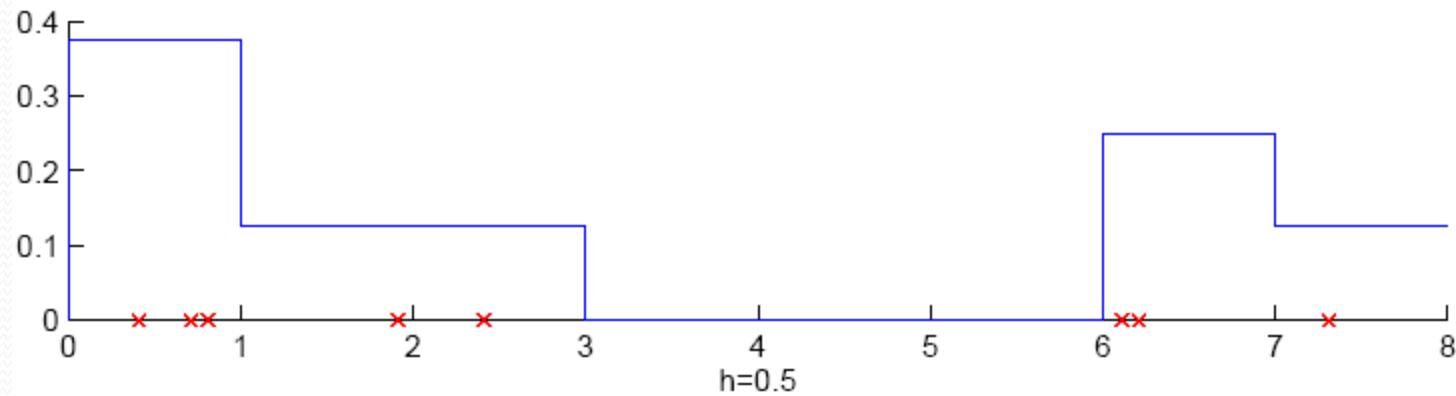
or

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Nh} \sum_{t=1}^N w\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right) \quad w(u) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & \text{if } |u| < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

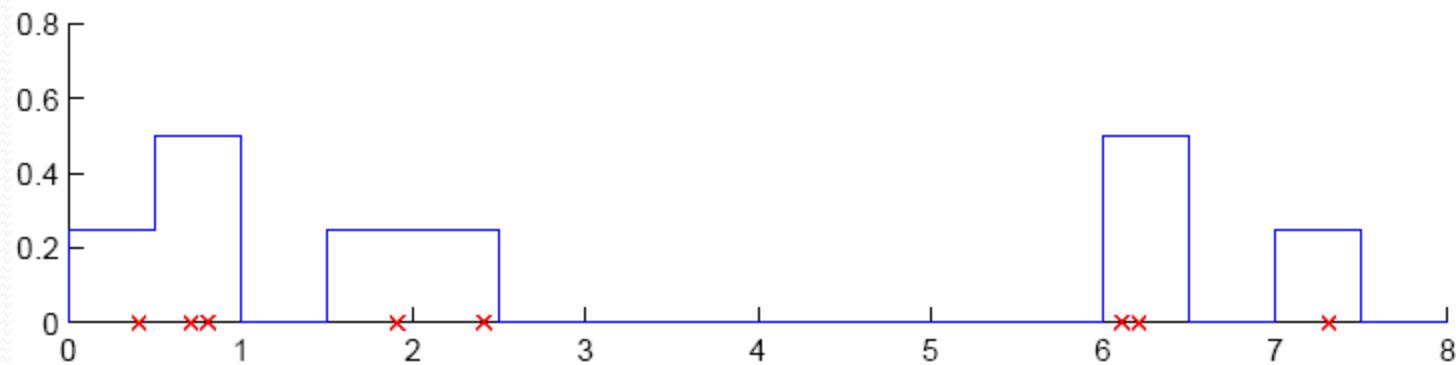
Histogram: $h=2$



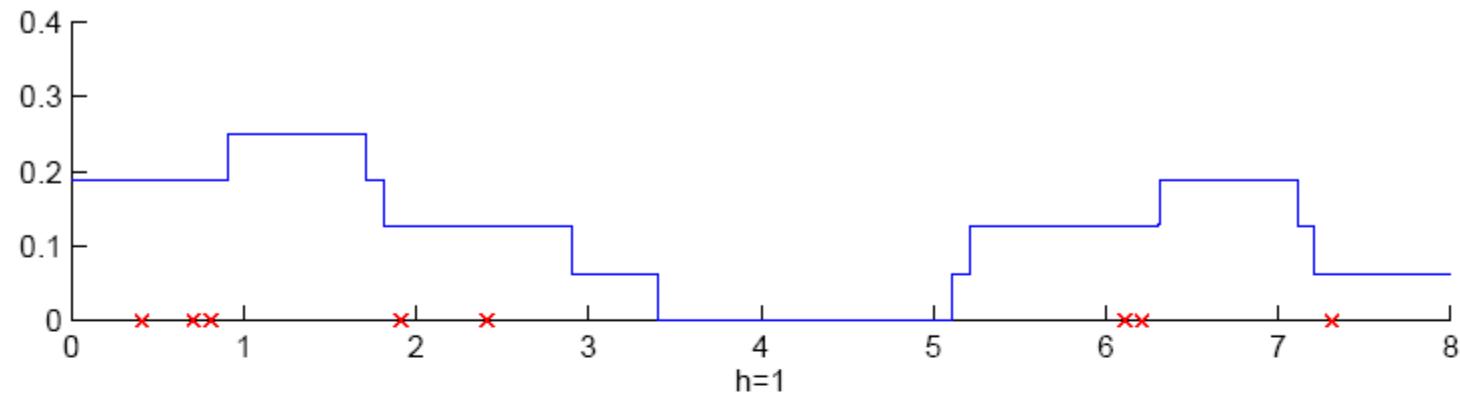
$h=1$



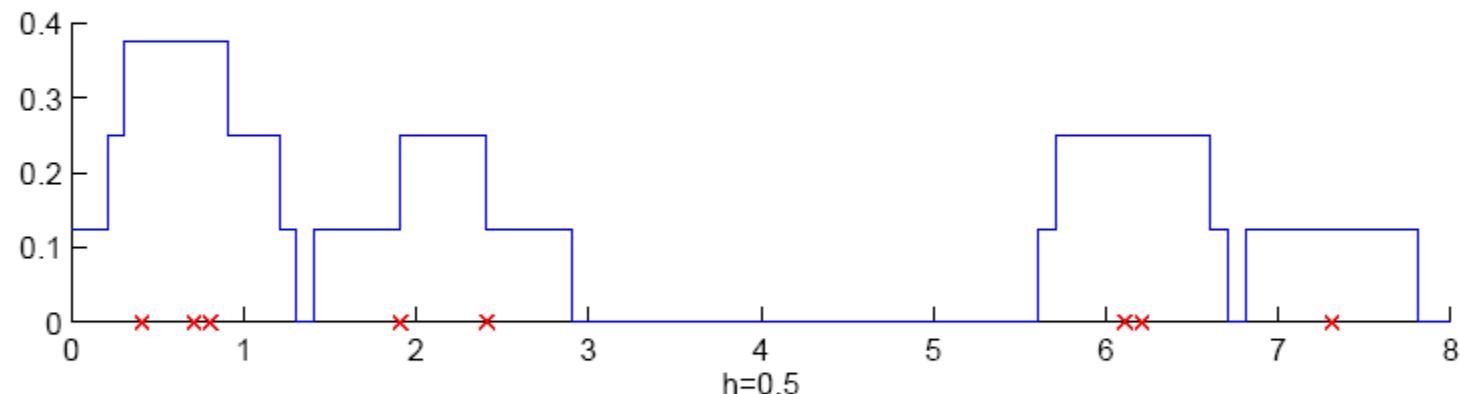
$h=0.5$



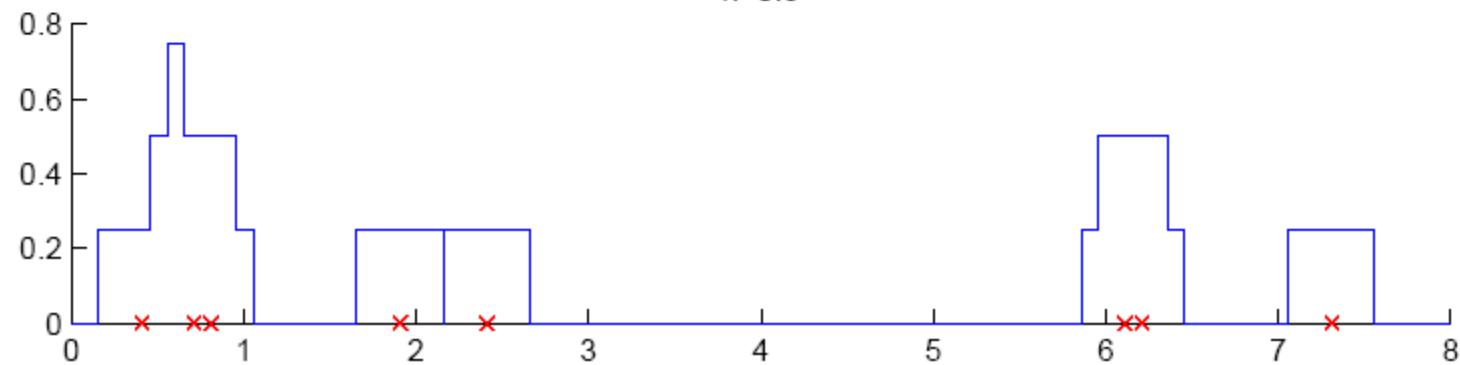
Naive estimator: $h=2$



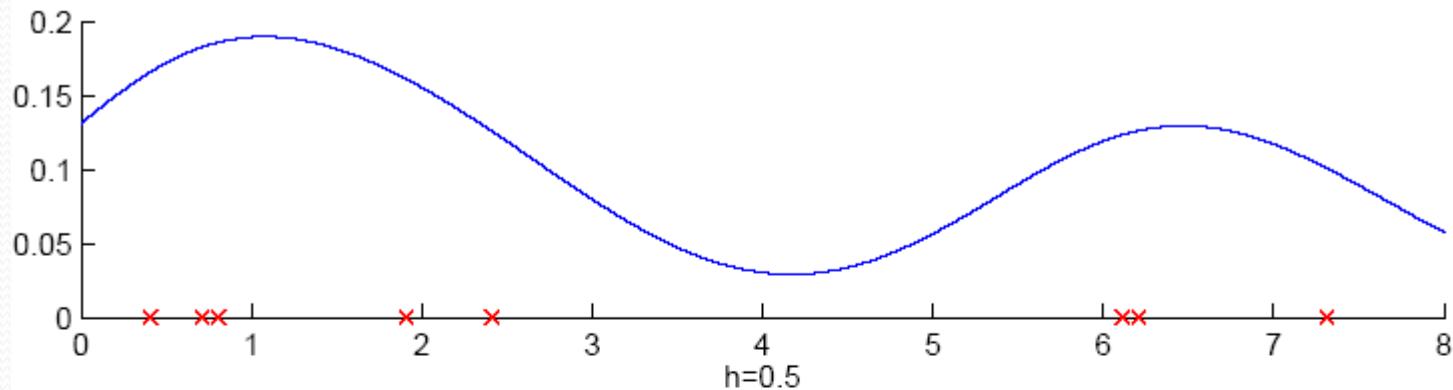
$h=1$



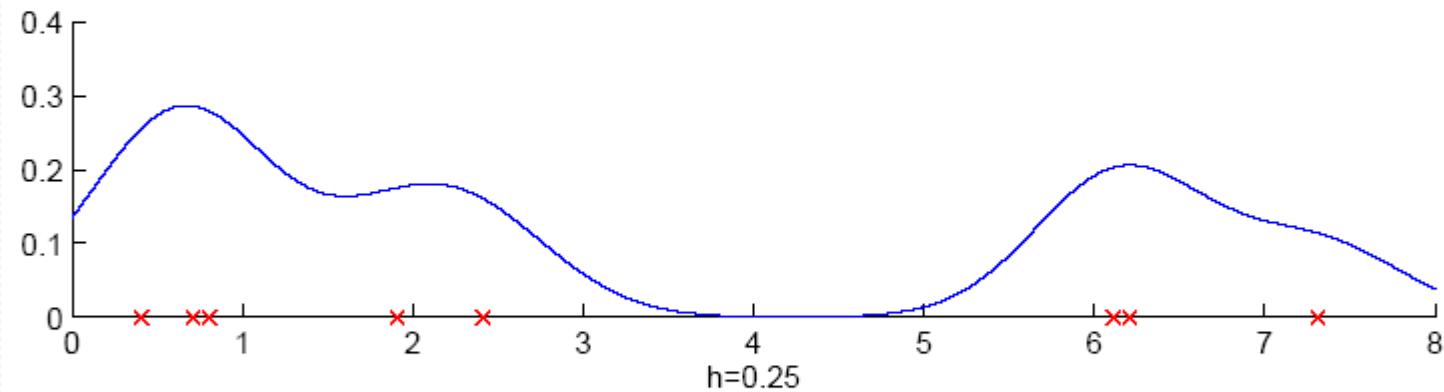
$h=0.5$



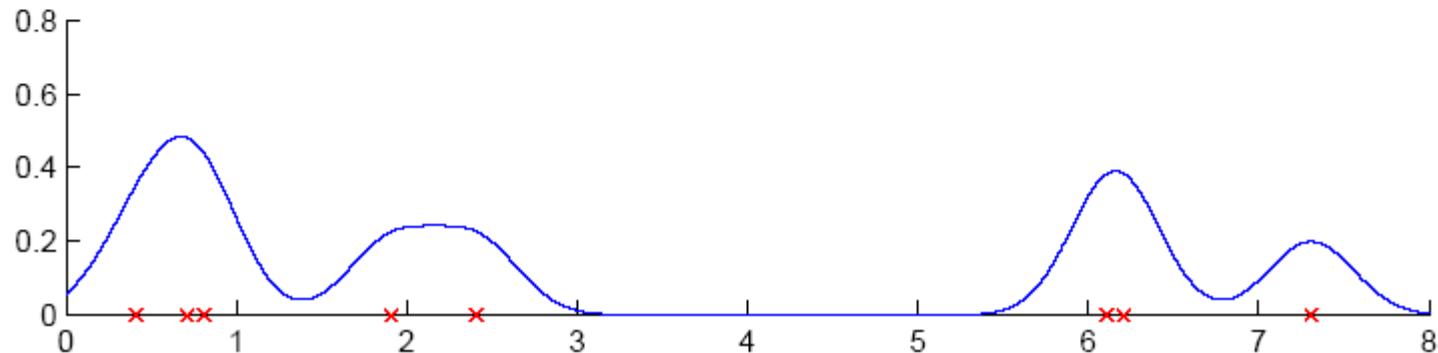
Kernel estimator: $h=1$



$h=0.5$



$h=0.25$



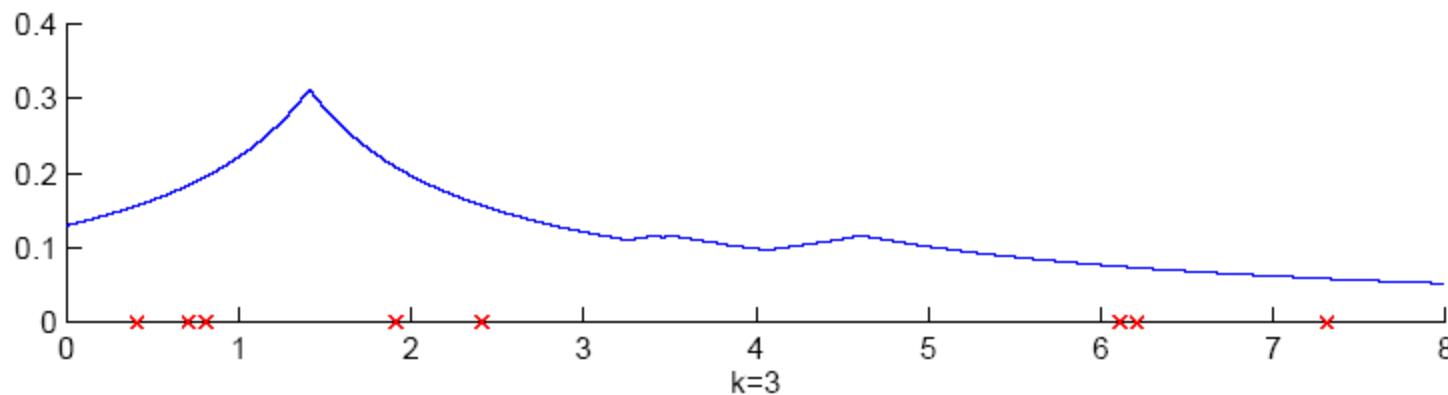
k-Nearest Neighbor Estimator

- Instead of fixing bin width h and counting the number of instances, fix the instances (neighbors) k and check bin width

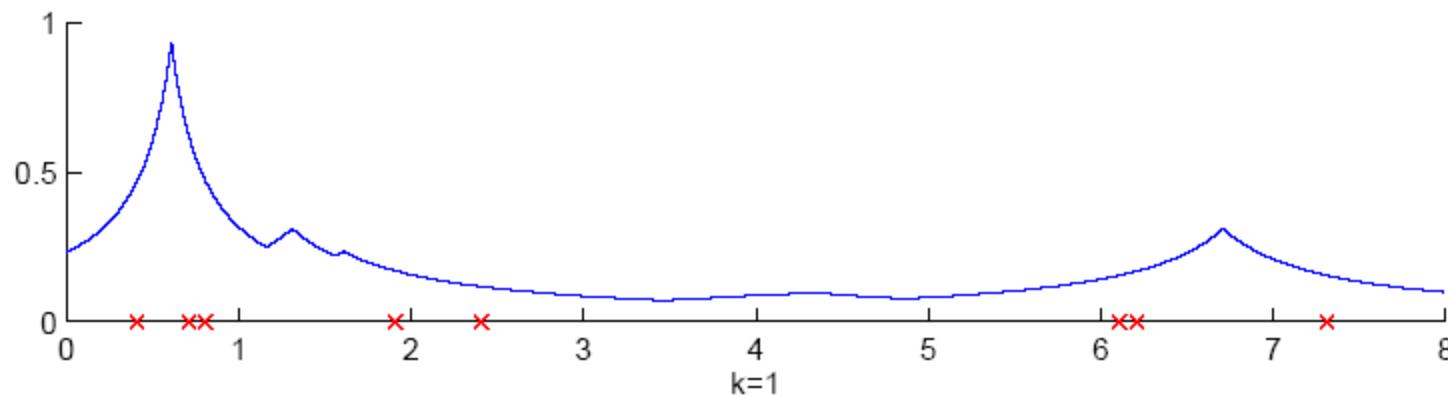
$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{k}{2Nd_k(x)}$$

$d_k(x)$, distance to k th closest instance to x

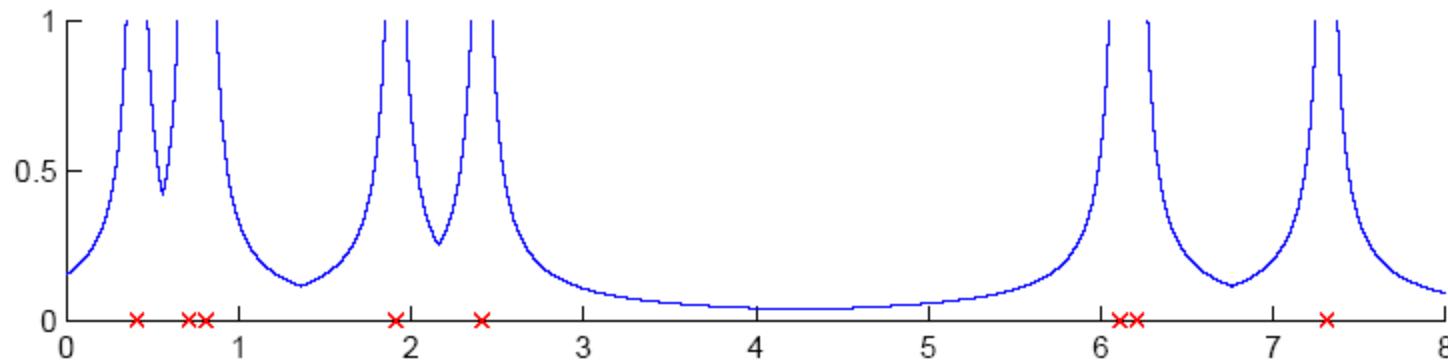
k-NN estimator: k=5



$k=3$



$k=1$



Multivariate Data

- Kernel density estimator

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Nh^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right)$$

Multivariate Gaussian kernel

spheric

$$K(\mathbf{u}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^d \exp\left[-\frac{\|\mathbf{u}\|^2}{2}\right]$$

ellipsoid

$$K(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\mathbf{S}|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}^\top \mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{u}\right]$$

Nonparametric Classification

- Estimate $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)$ and use Bayes' rule
- Kernel estimator

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x} | C_i) = \frac{1}{N_i h^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right) r_i^t \quad \hat{P}(C_i) = \frac{N_i}{N}$$

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{p}(\mathbf{x} | C_i) \hat{P}(C_i) = \frac{1}{N h^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right) r_i^t$$

- k -NN estimator

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x} | C_i) = \frac{k_i}{N_i V^k(\mathbf{x})} \quad \hat{P}(C_i | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\hat{p}(\mathbf{x} | C_i) \hat{P}(C_i)}{\hat{p}(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{k_i}{k}$$

Nonparametric Regression

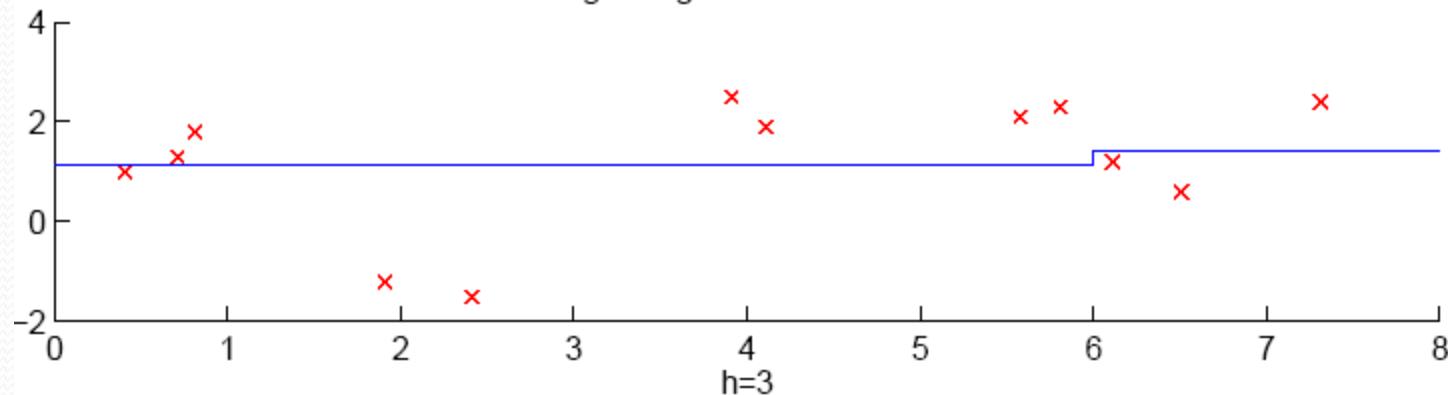
- Aka smoothing models
- Regressogram

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N b(x, x^t) r^t}{\sum_{t=1}^N b(x, x^t)}$$

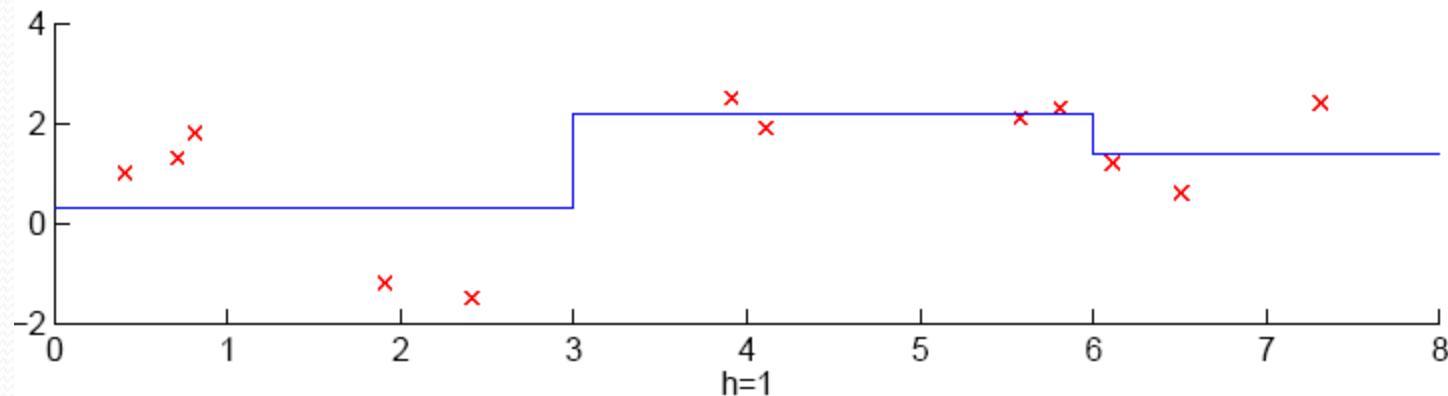
where

$$b(x, x^t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^t \text{ is in the same bin with } x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

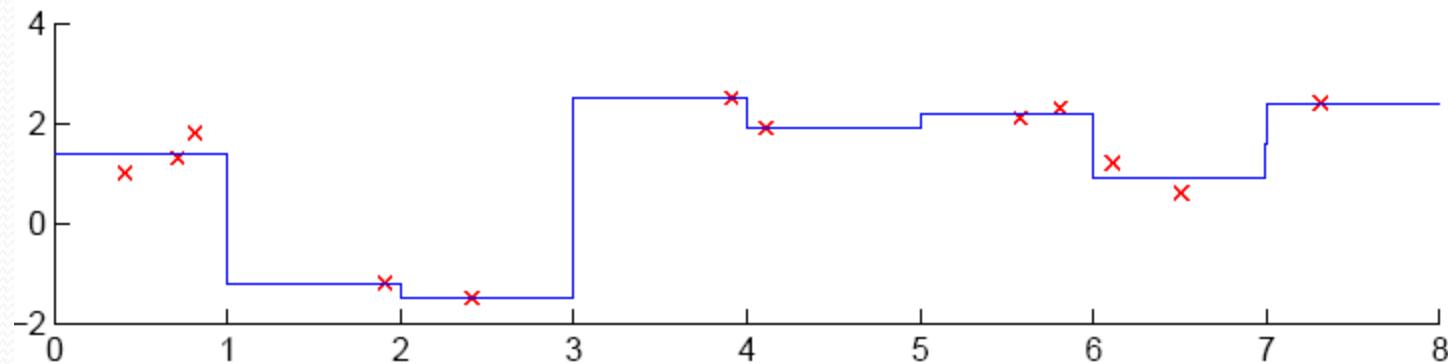
Regressogram smoother: $h=6$



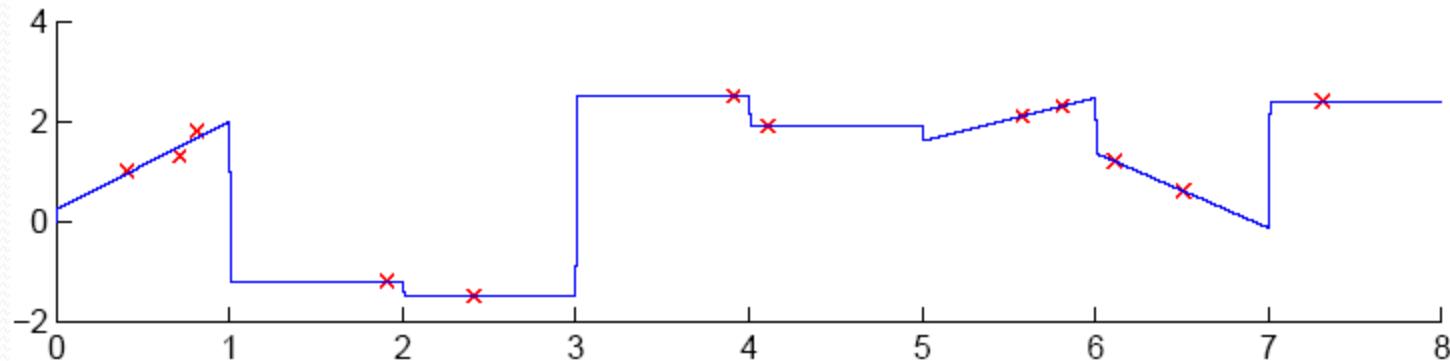
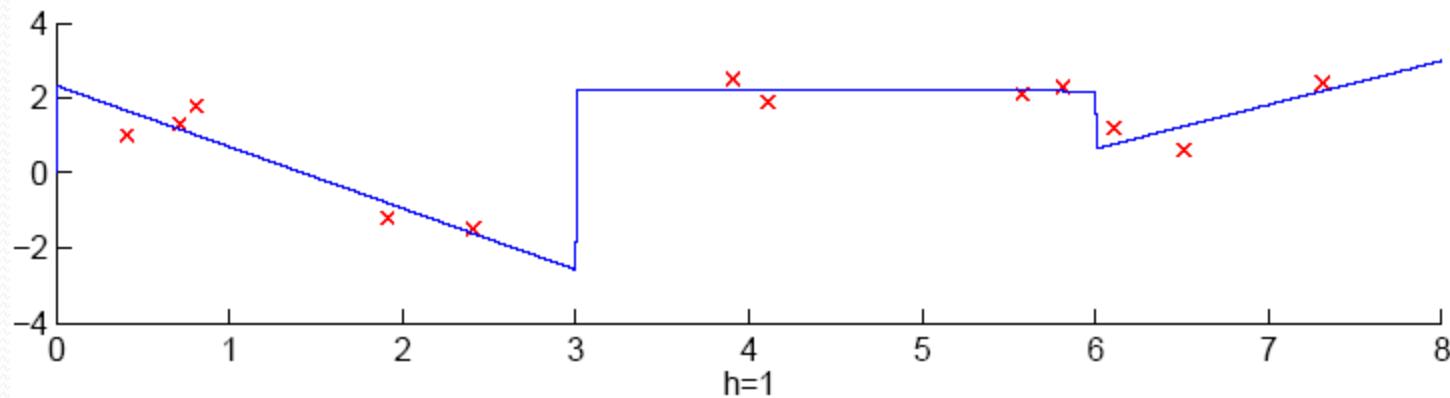
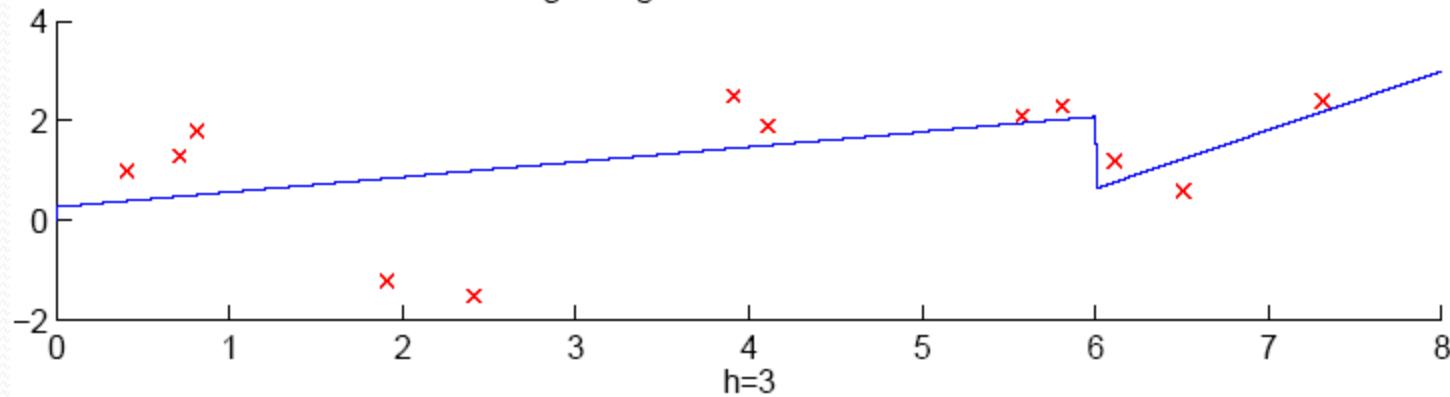
$h=3$



$h=1$



Regressogram linear smoother: $h=6$



Running Mean/Kernel Smoother

- Running mean smoother

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N w\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right) r^t}{\sum_{t=1}^N w\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right)}$$

where

$$w(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |u| < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Kernel smoother

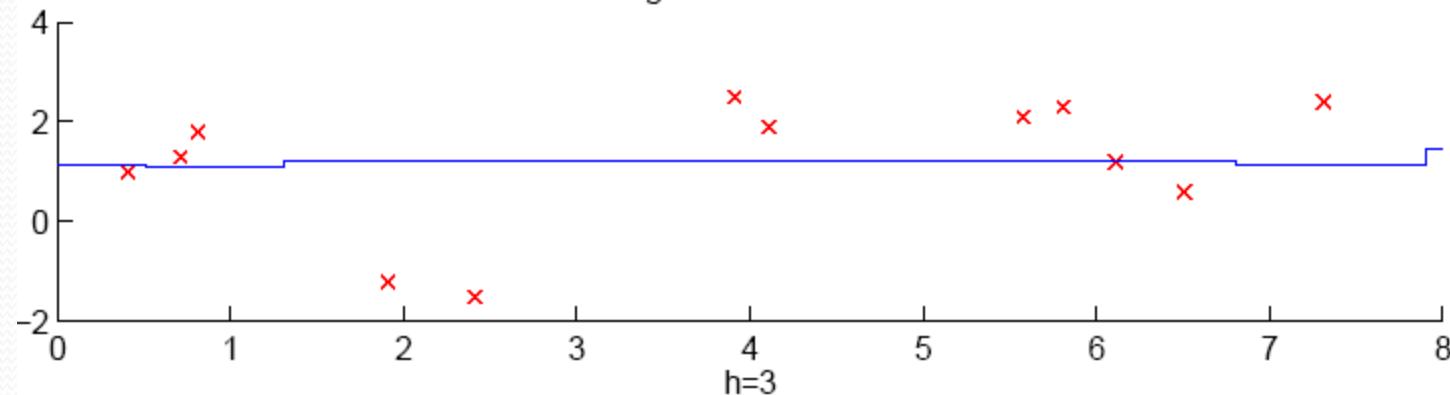
$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right) r^t}{\sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right)}$$

where $K(\cdot)$ is Gaussian

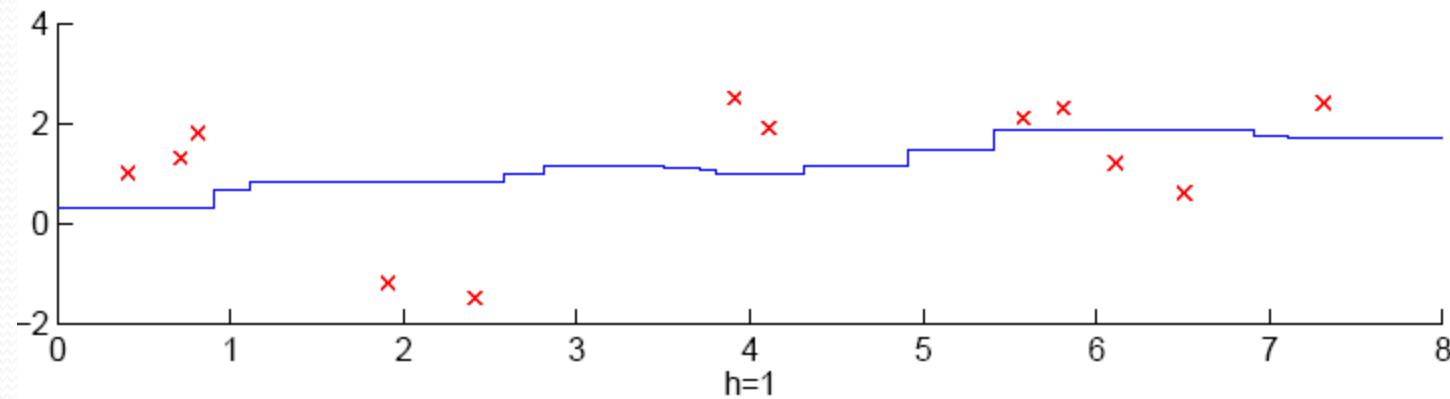
- Additive models (Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990)

- Running line smoother

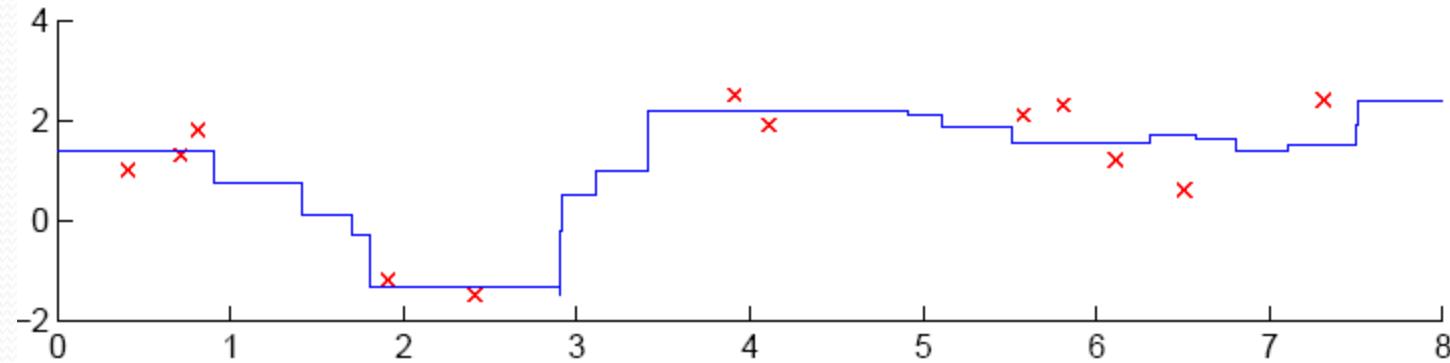
Running mean smoother: $h=6$



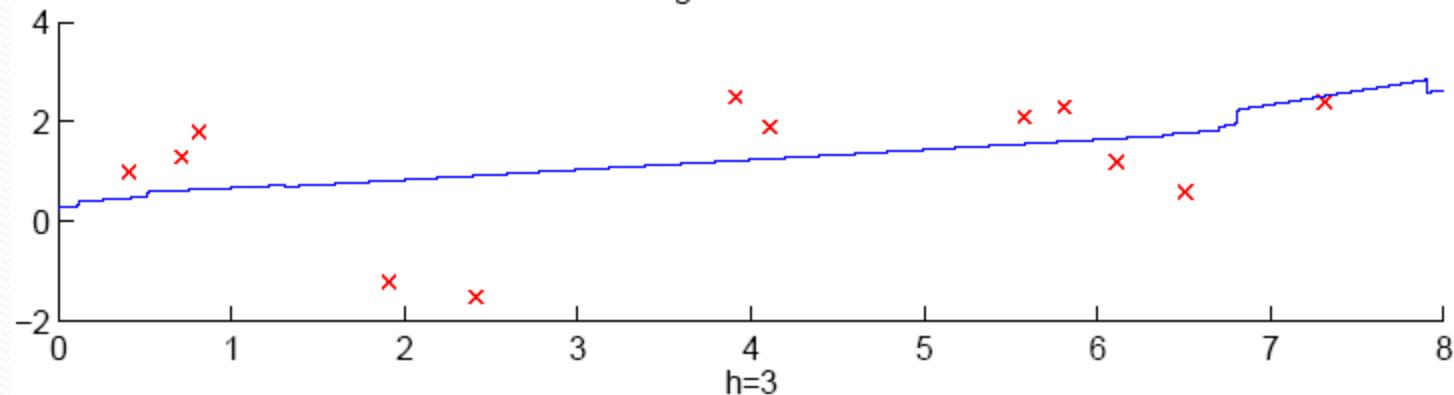
$h=3$



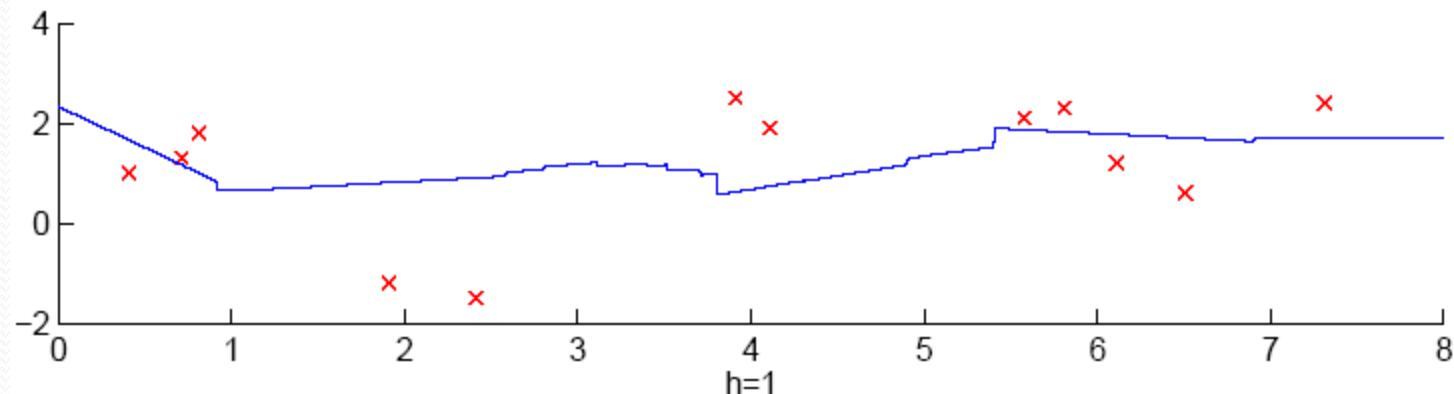
$h=1$



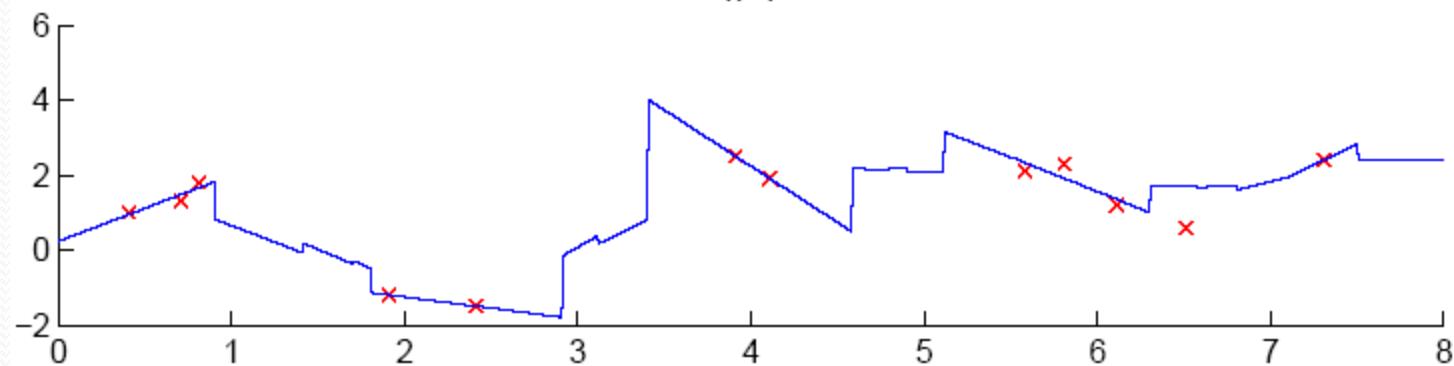
Running line smooth: $h=6$



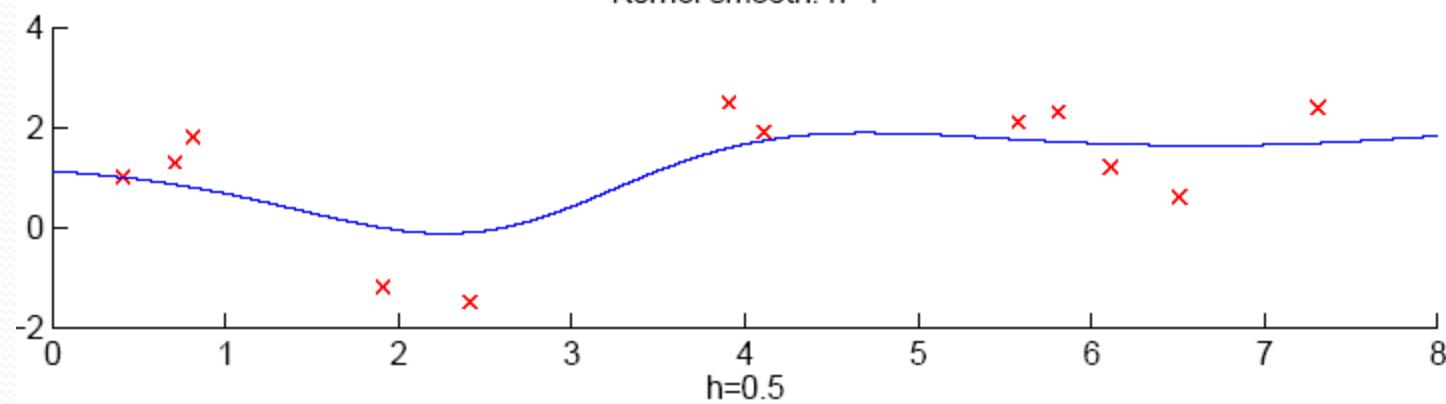
$h=3$



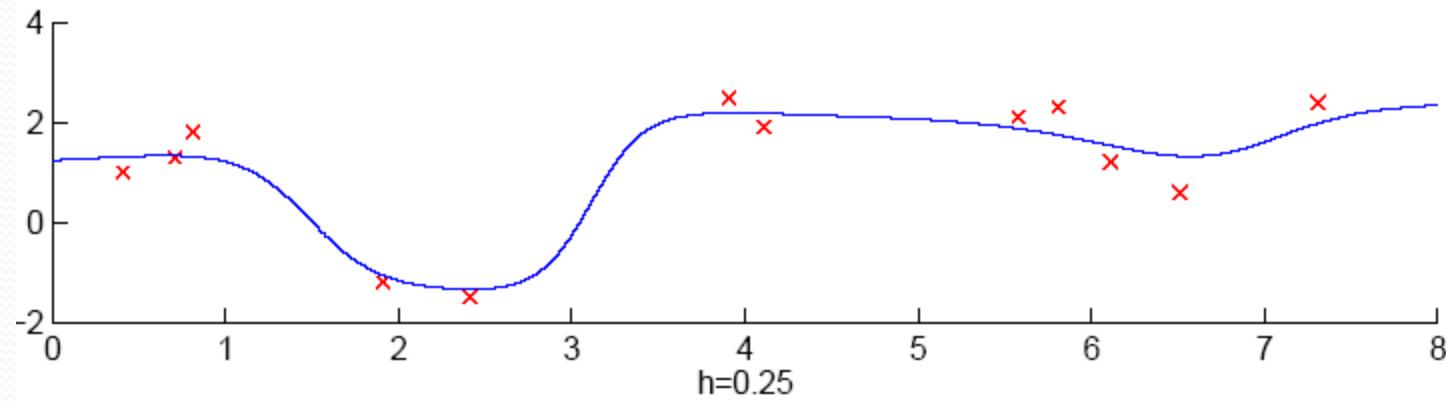
$h=1$



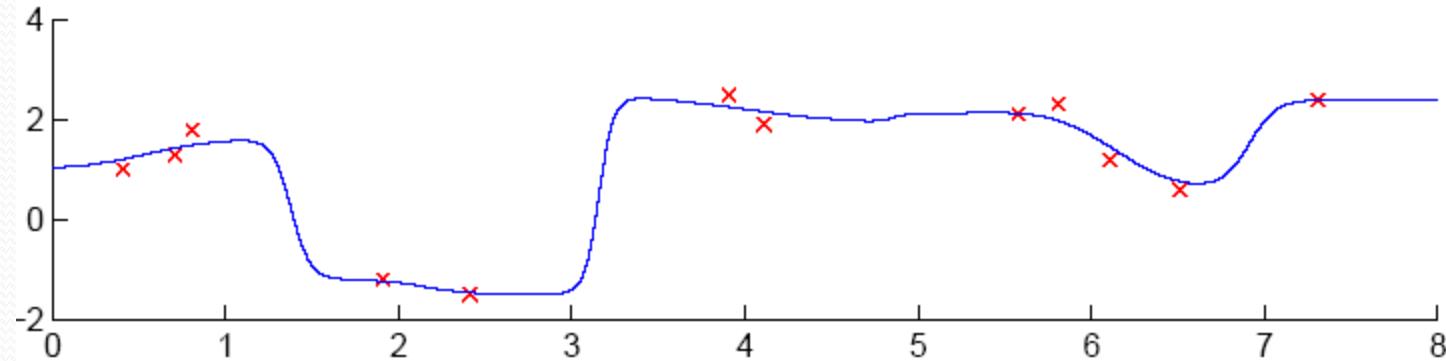
Kernel smooth: $h=1$



$h=0.5$

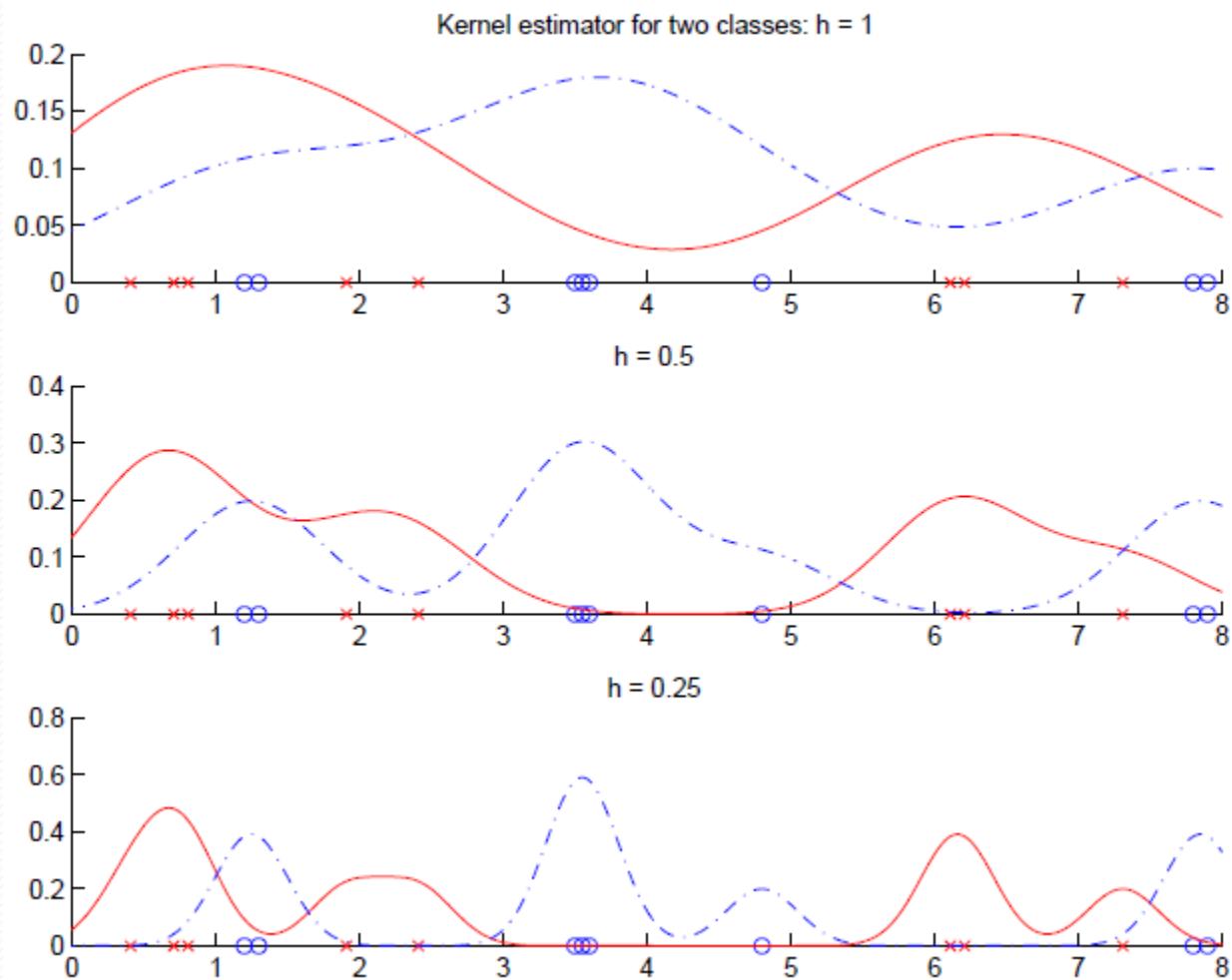


$h=0.25$



How to Choose k or h ?

- When k or h is small, single instances matter; bias is small, variance is large (undersmoothing): High complexity
- As k or h increases, we average over more instances and variance decreases but bias increases (oversmoothing): Low complexity
- Cross-validation is used to finetune k or h .



Discriminant-Based Models

Likelihood- vs. Discriminant-based Classification

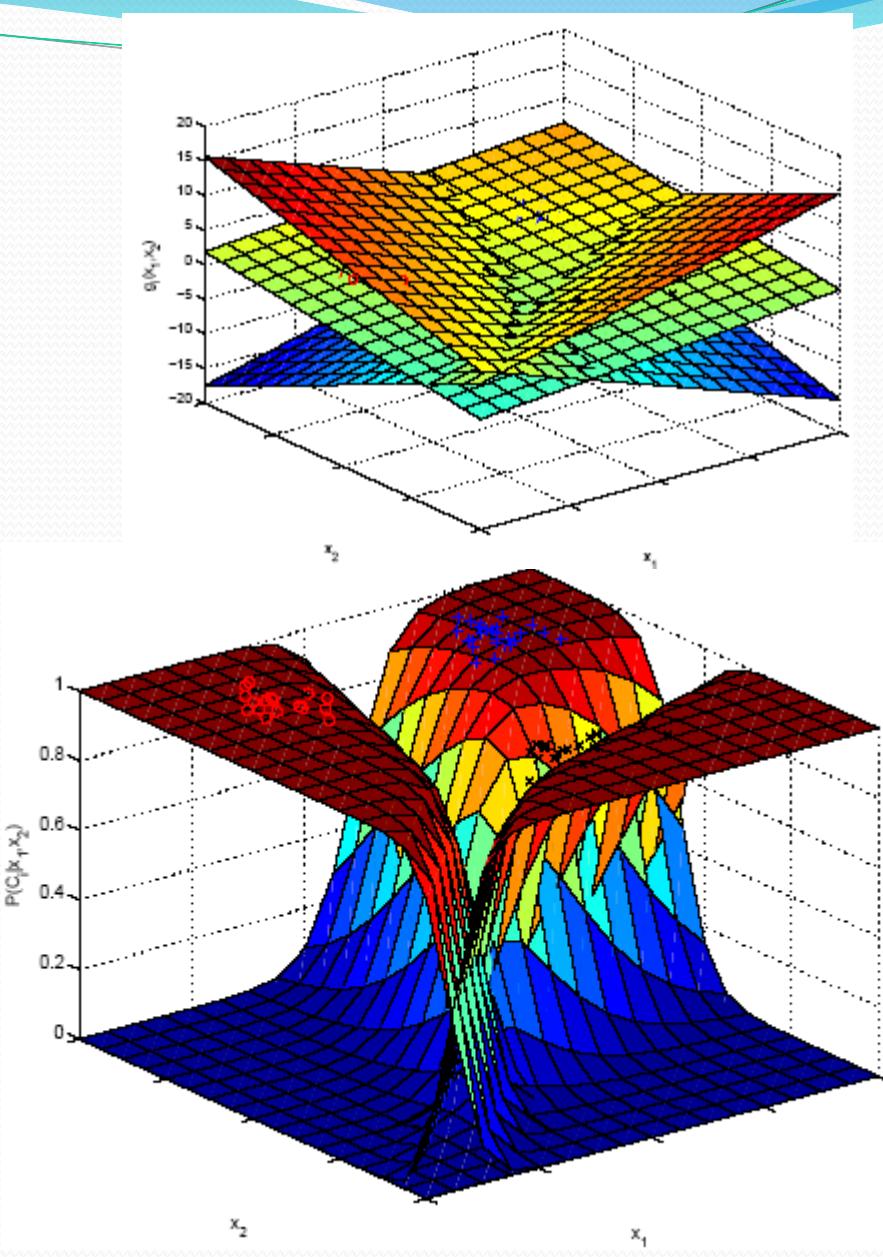
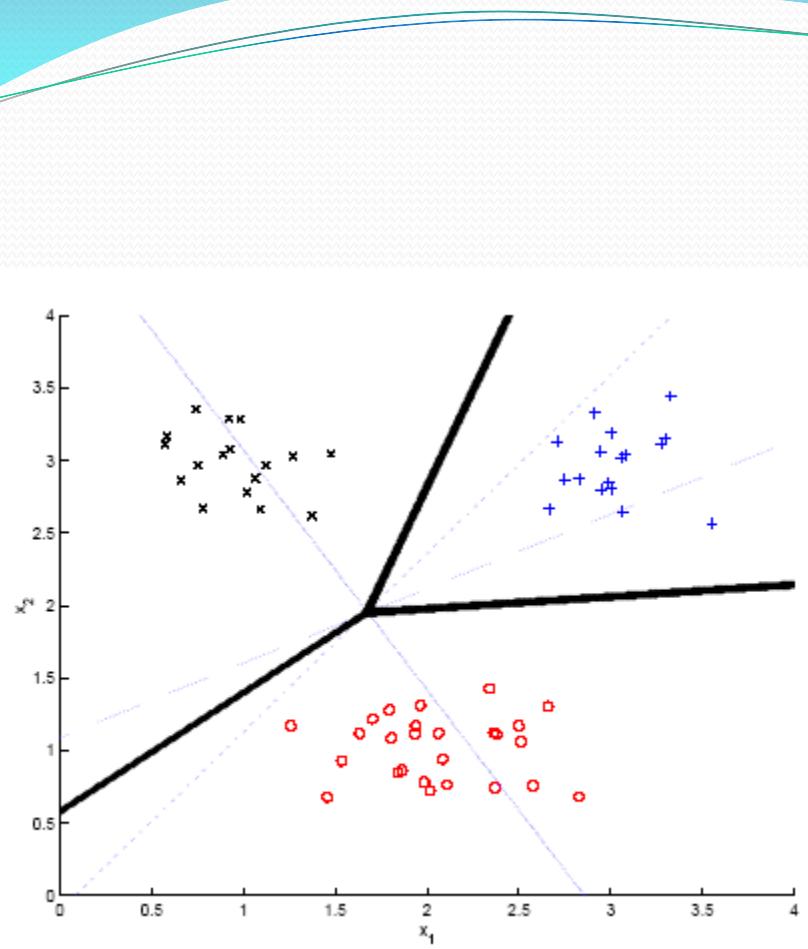
- Likelihood-based: Assume a model for $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_i)$, use Bayes' rule to calculate $P(\mathcal{C}_i|\mathbf{x})$
$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log P(\mathcal{C}_i|\mathbf{x})$$
- Discriminant-based: Assume a model for $g_i(\mathbf{x}|\Phi_i)$; no density estimation
- Estimating the boundaries is enough; no need to accurately estimate the densities inside the boundaries

Linear Discriminant

- Linear discriminant:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{w}_i, w_{i0}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0} = \sum_{j=1}^d w_{ij} x_j + w_{i0}$$

- Advantages:
 - Simple: $O(d)$ space/computation
 - Knowledge extraction: Weighted sum of attributes; positive/negative weights, magnitudes (credit scoring)
 - Optimal when $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)$ are Gaussian with shared cov matrix; useful when classes are (almost) linearly separable



Generalized Linear Model

- Quadratic discriminant:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{W}_i, \mathbf{w}_i, w_{i0}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0}$$

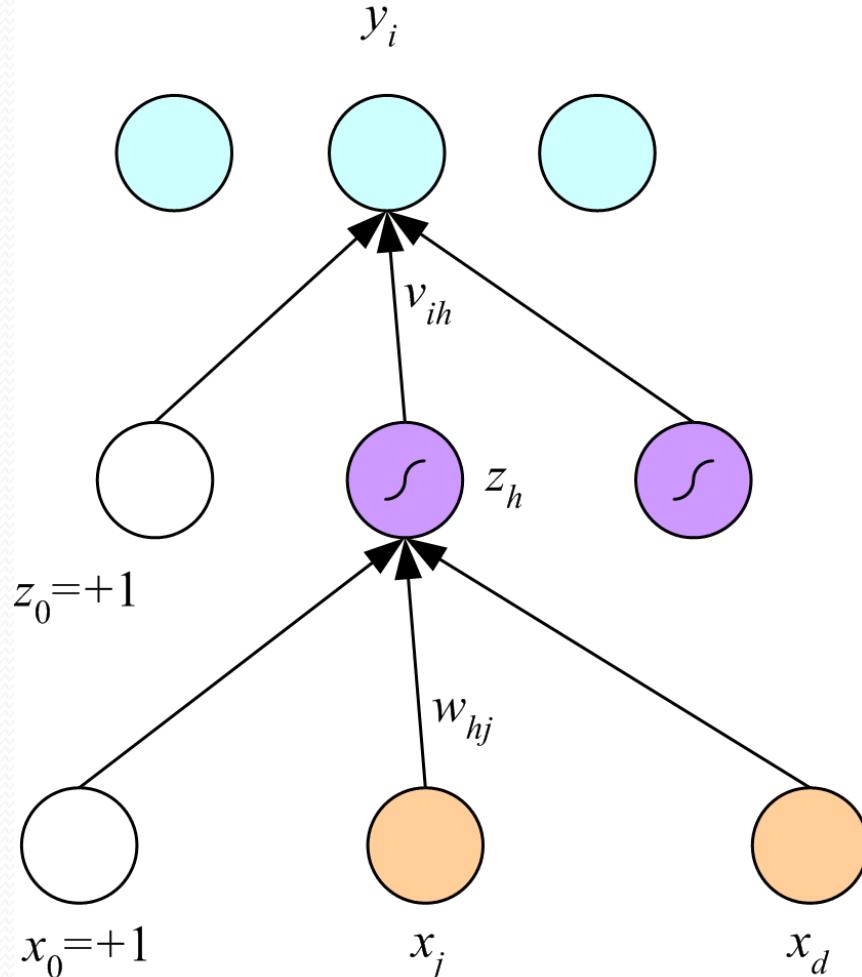
- Higher-order (product) terms:

$$z_1 = x_1, z_2 = x_2, z_3 = x_1^2, z_4 = x_2^2, z_5 = x_1 x_2$$

Map from \mathbf{x} to \mathbf{z} using nonlinear basis functions and use a linear discriminant in \mathbf{z} -space

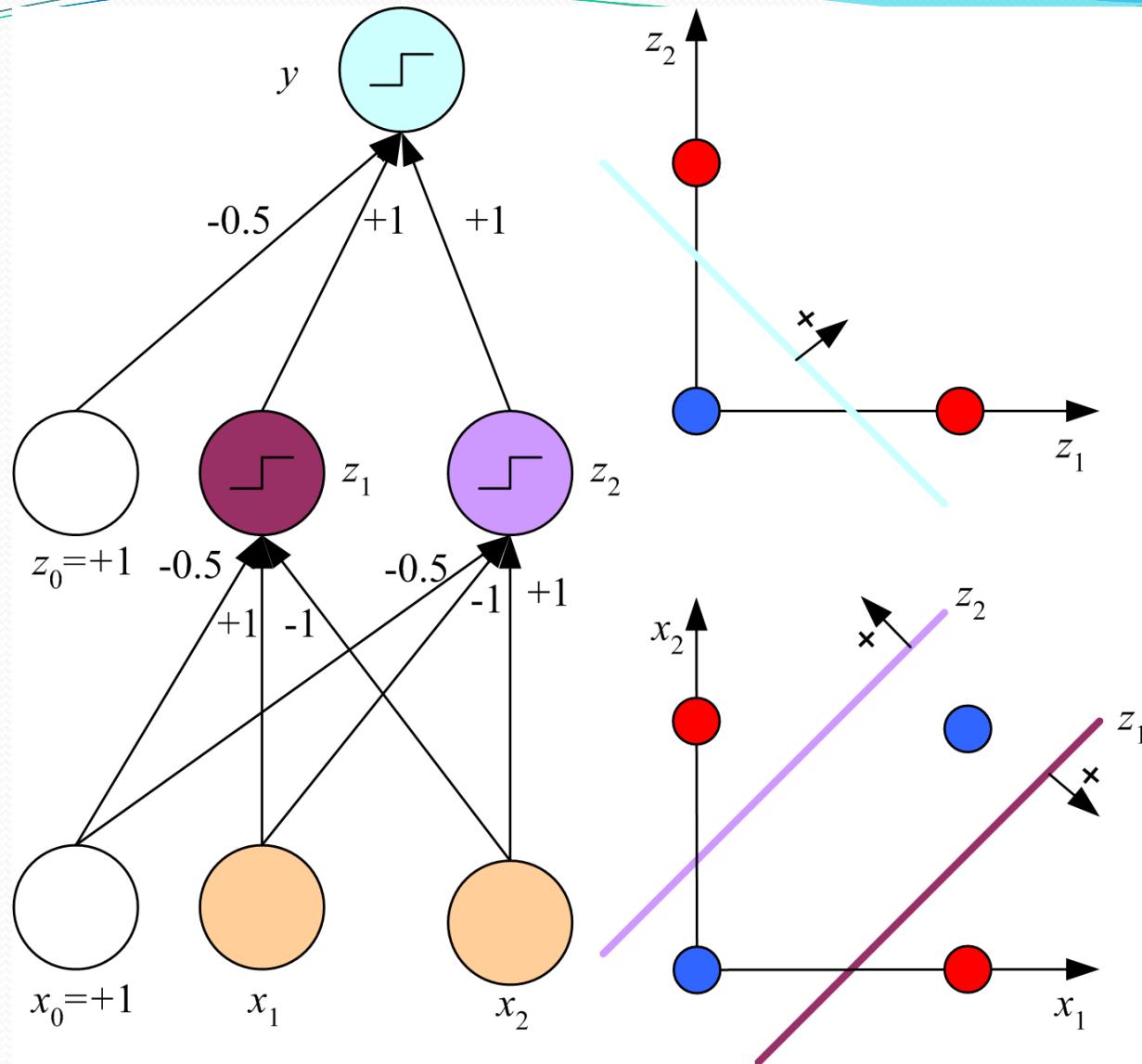
$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^k w_{ij} \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

Multilayer Perceptrons

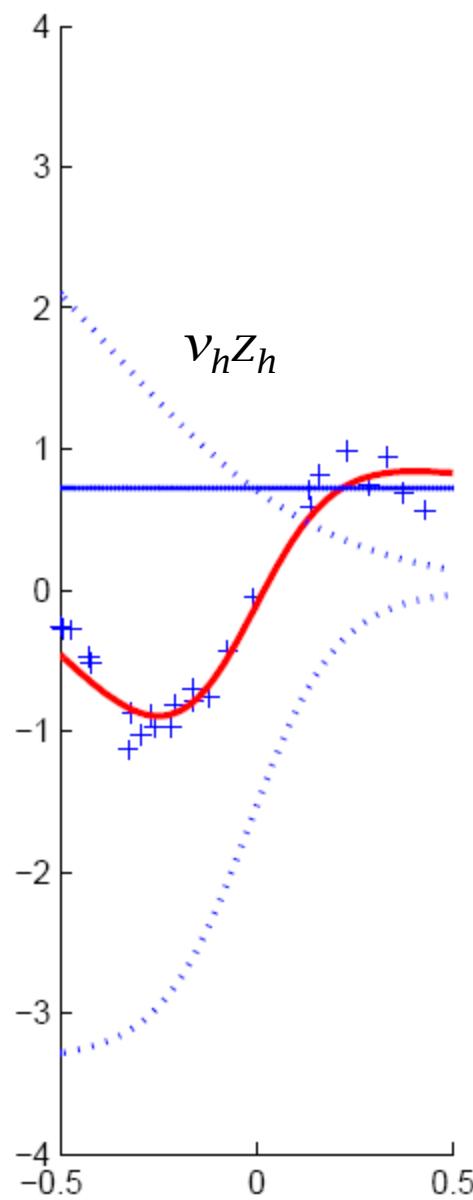
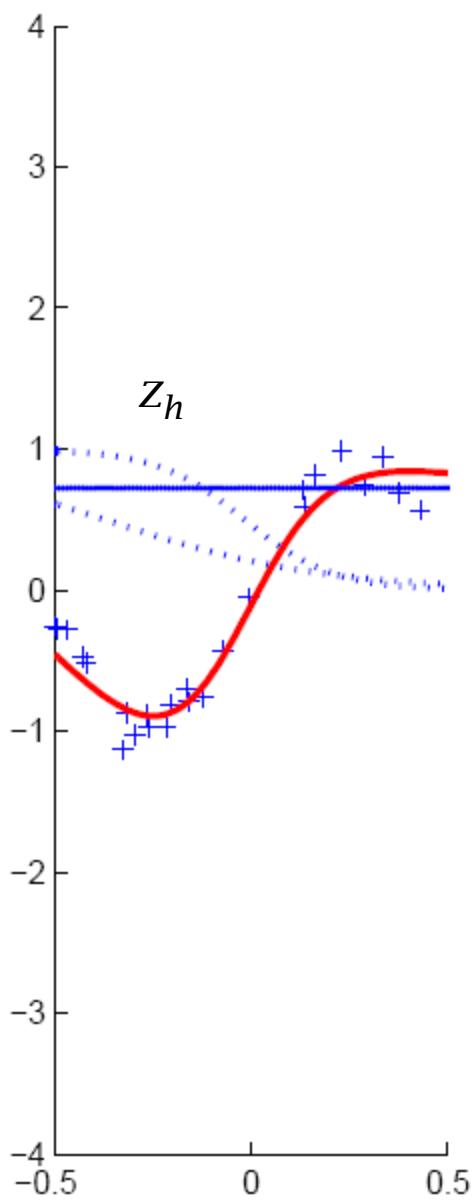
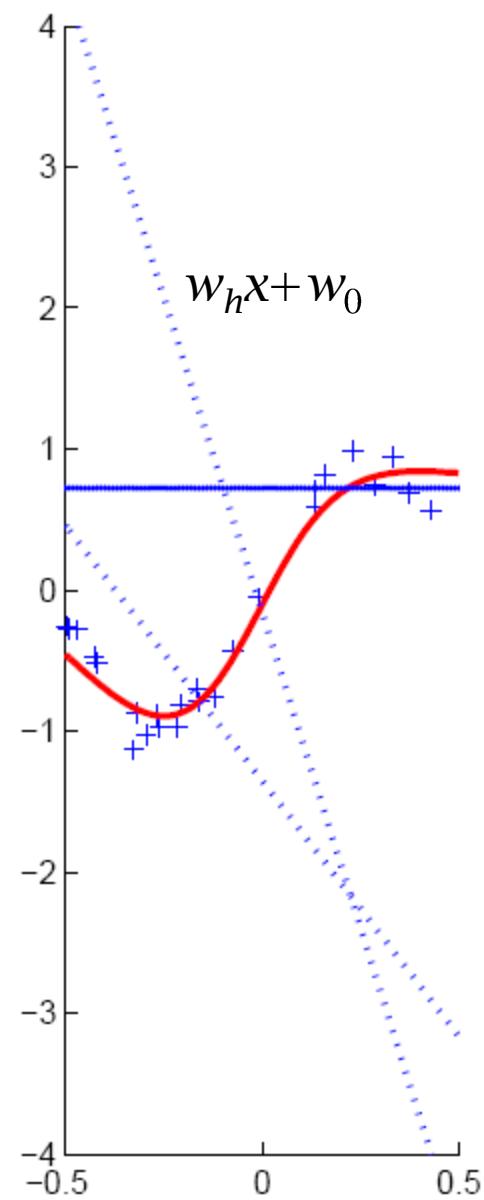


$$y_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{z} = \sum_{h=1}^H v_{ih} z_h + v_{i0}$$
$$z_h = \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}_h^T \mathbf{x})$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left[-\left(\sum_{j=1}^d w_{hj} x_j + w_{h0}\right)\right]}$$

(Rumelhart et al., 1986)



$$x_1 \text{ XOR } x_2 = (x_1 \text{ AND } \sim x_2) \text{ OR } (\sim x_1 \text{ AND } x_2)$$



Kernel Machines

- Discriminant-based: No need to estimate densities first
- Define the discriminant in terms of support vectors
- The use of kernel functions, application-specific measures of similarity
- No need to represent instances as vectors
- Convex optimization problems with a unique solution

Optimal Separating Hyperplane

$$\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^t, r^t\}_t \text{ where } r^t = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^t \in C_1 \\ -1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^t \in C_2 \end{cases}$$

find \mathbf{w} and w_0 such that

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0 \geq +1 \text{ for } r^t = +1$$

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0 \leq +1 \text{ for } r^t = -1$$

which can be rewritten as

$$r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) \geq +1$$

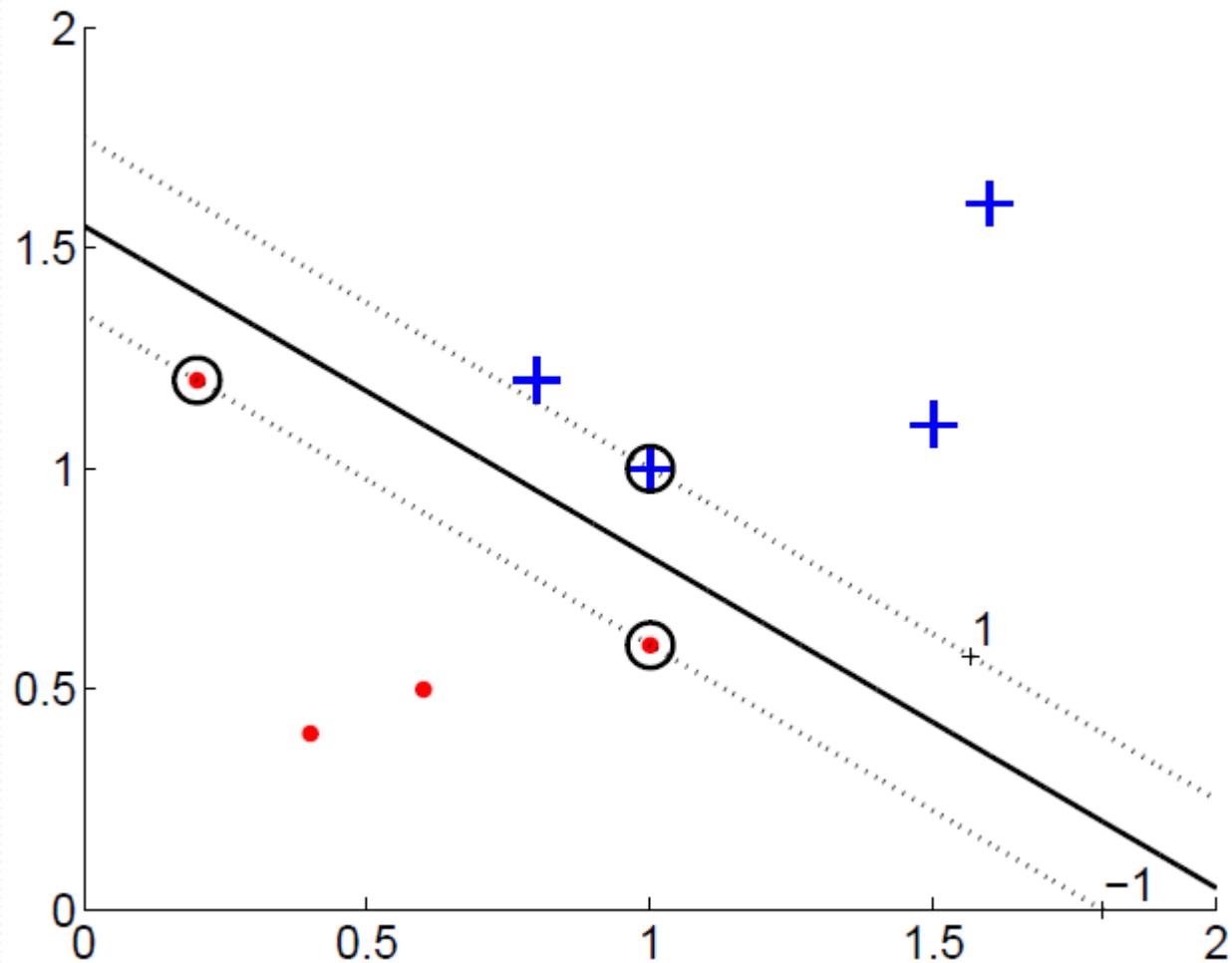
(Cortes and Vapnik, 1995; Vapnik, 1995)

Margin

- Distance from the discriminant to the closest instances on either side
- Distance of x to the hyperplane is $\frac{|\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$
- To max margin

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \text{ subject to } r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) \geq +1, \forall t$$

Margin



$$\min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \text{ subject to } r^t (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) \geq +1, \forall t$$

$$L_p = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^N \alpha^t [r^t (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) - 1]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^N \alpha^t r^t (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) + \sum_{t=1}^N \alpha^t$$

$$\frac{\partial L_p}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_{t=1}^N \alpha^t r^t \mathbf{x}^t$$

$$\frac{\partial L_p}{\partial w_0} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{t=1}^N \alpha^t r^t = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}
L_d &= \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{w}^T \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \mathbf{x}^t - w_0 \sum_t \alpha^t r^t + \sum_t \alpha^t \\
&= -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}) + \sum_t \alpha^t \\
&= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_t \sum_s \alpha^t \alpha^s r^t r^s (\mathbf{x}^t)^T \mathbf{x}^s + \sum_t \alpha^t
\end{aligned}$$

subject to $\sum_t \alpha^t r^t = 0$ and $\alpha^t \geq 0, \forall t$

Most α^t are 0 and only a small number have $\alpha^t > 0$; they are the support vectors

Soft Margin Hyperplane

- Not linearly separable

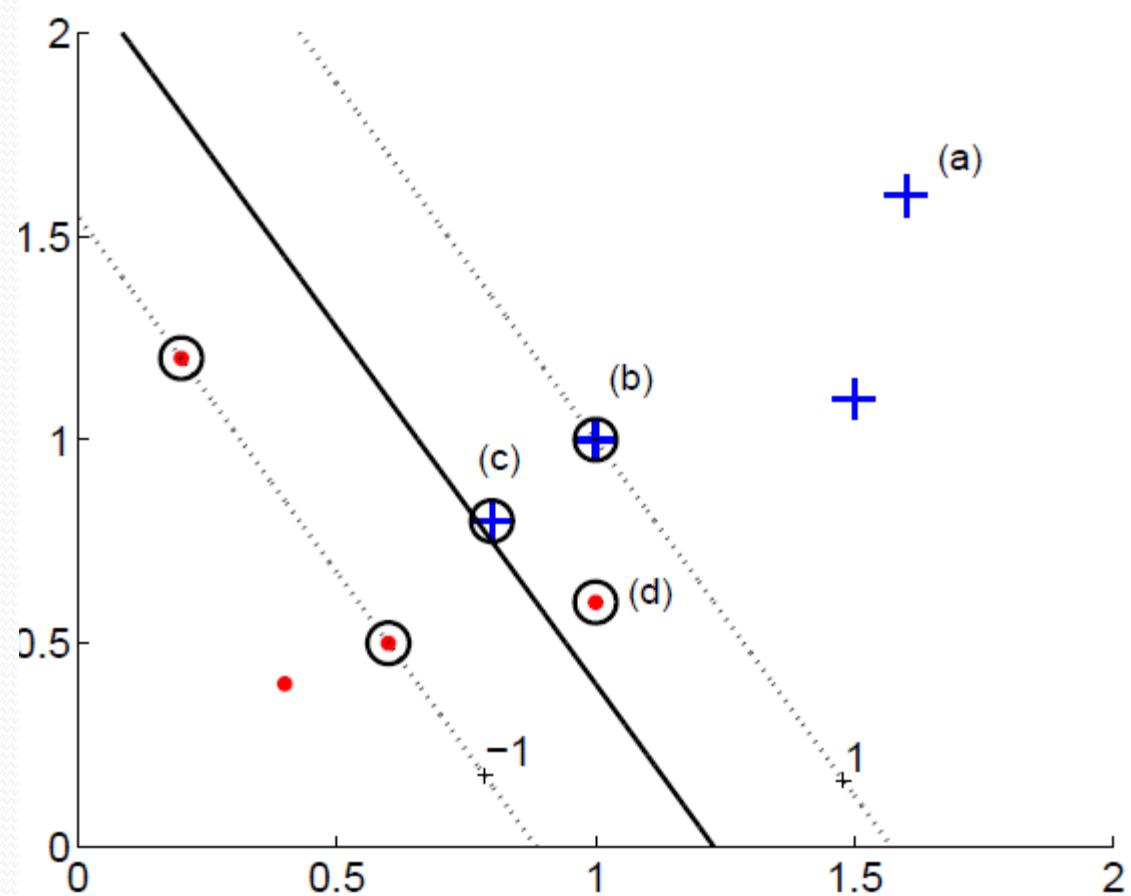
$$r^t (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) \geq 1 - \xi^t$$

- Soft error

$$\sum_t \xi^t$$

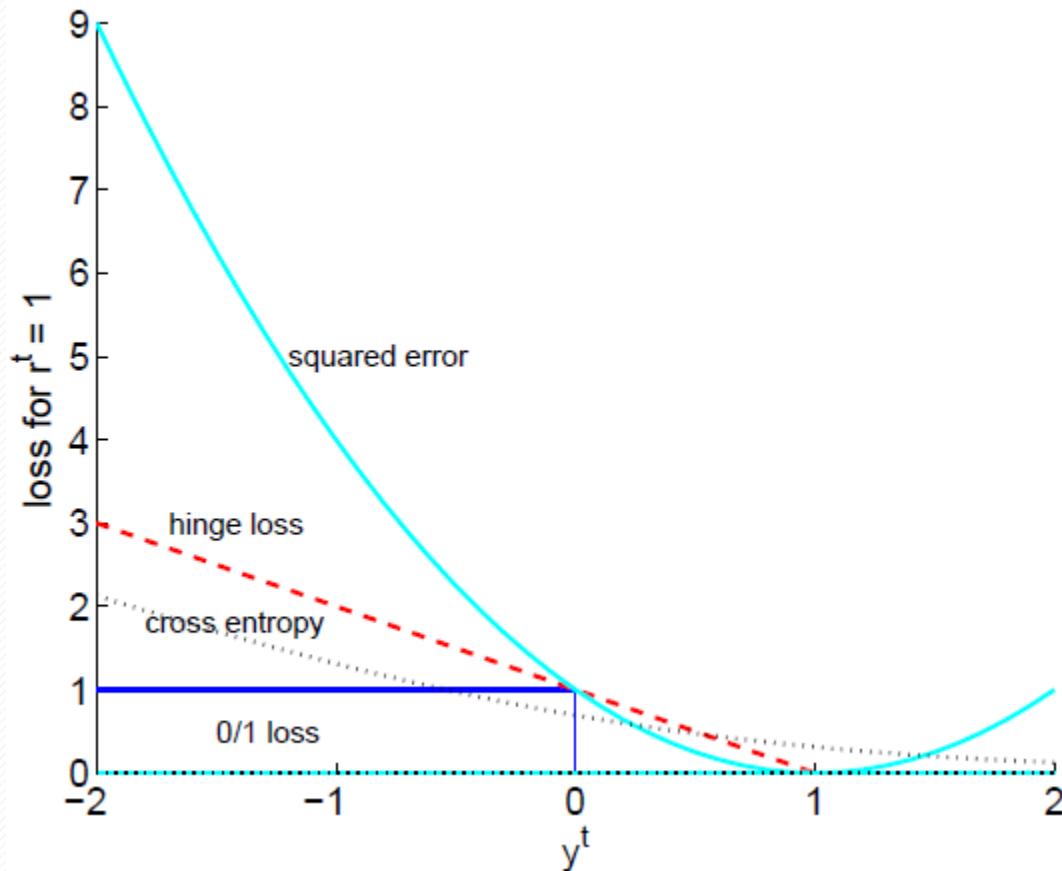
- New primal is

$$L_p = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_t \xi^t - \sum_t \alpha^t [r^t (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) - 1 + \xi^t] - \sum_t \mu^t \xi^t$$



Hinge Loss

$$L_{hinge}(y^t, r^t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y^t r^t \geq 1 \\ 1 - y^t r^t & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Kernel Trick

- Preprocess input \mathbf{x} by basis functions

$$\mathbf{z} = \varphi(\mathbf{x})$$

$$g(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z}$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \varphi(\mathbf{x})$$

- The SVM solution

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \mathbf{z}^t = \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \varphi(\mathbf{x}^t)$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \boxed{\varphi(\mathbf{x}^t)^T \varphi(\mathbf{x})}$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \boxed{K(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x})}$$

Vectorial Kernels

- Polynomials of degree q :

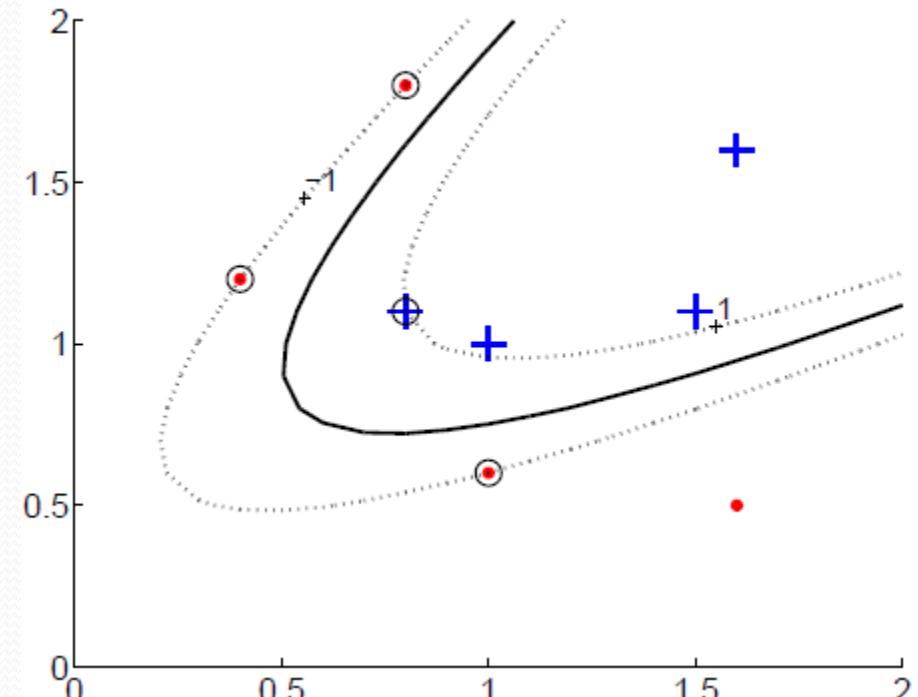
$$K(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}^t + 1)^q$$

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} + 1)^2$$

$$= (x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + 1)^2$$

$$= 1 + 2x_1 y_1 + 2x_2 y_2 + 2x_1 x_2 y_1 y_2 + x_1^2 y_1^2 + x_2^2 y_2^2$$

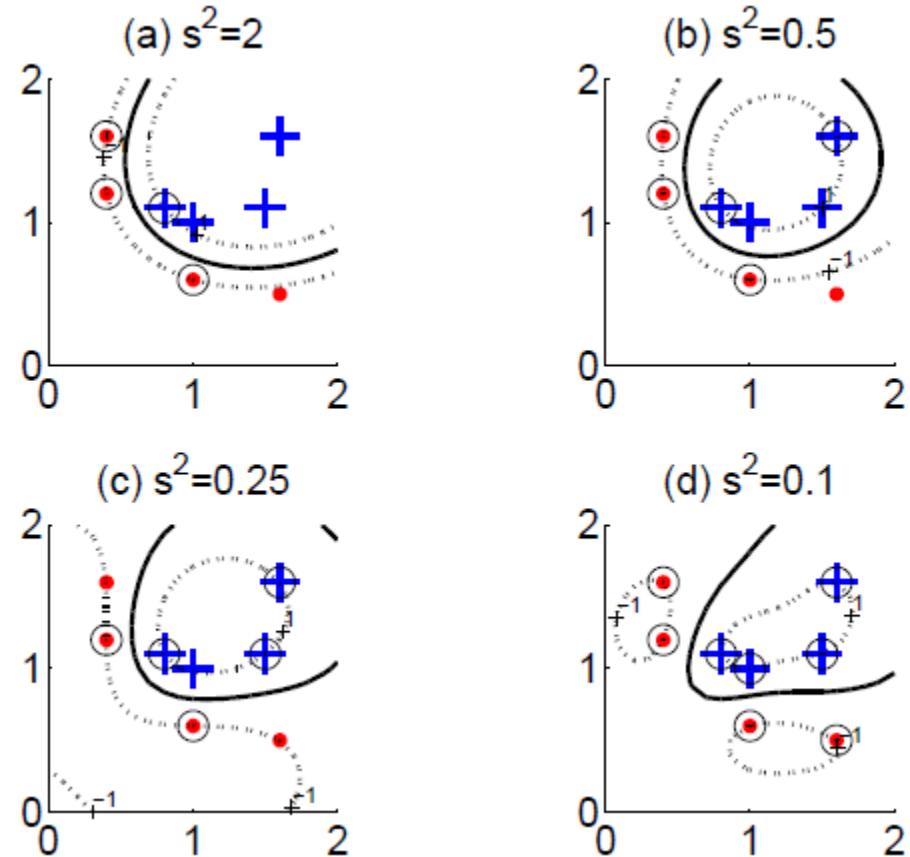
$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [1, \sqrt{2}x_1, \sqrt{2}x_2, \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2]^T$$



Vectorial Kernels

- Radial-basis functions:

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



Defining kernels

- Kernel “engineering”
- Defining good measures of similarity
- String kernels, graph kernels, image kernels, ...
- Empirical kernel map: Define a set of templates \mathbf{m}_i and score function $s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_i)$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}^t) = [s(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{m}_1), s(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{m}_2), \dots, s(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{m}_M)]$$

and

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^t) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}^t)$$

Multiple Kernel Learning

- Fixed kernel combination

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} cK(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \\ K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \\ K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

- Adaptive kernel combination

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \eta_i K_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

$$L_d = \sum_t \alpha^t - \frac{1}{2} \sum_t \sum_s \alpha^t \alpha^s r^t r^s \sum_i \eta_i K_i(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x}^s)$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \sum_i \eta_i K_i(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x})$$

- Localized kernel combination (see Part II)

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_t \alpha^t r^t \sum_i \eta_i(\mathbf{x} | \theta) K_i(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x})$$

SVM for Regression

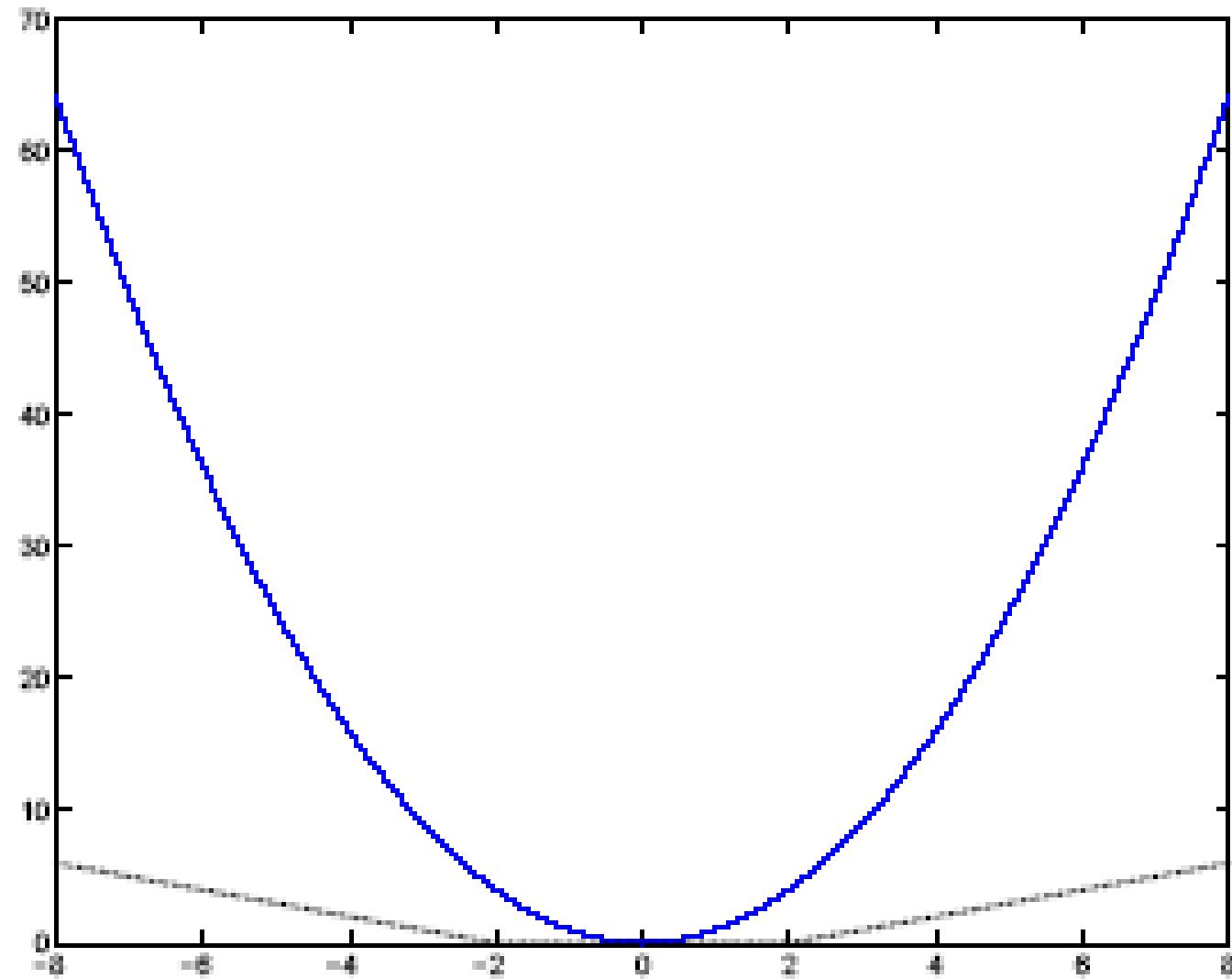
- Use a linear model (possibly kernelized)

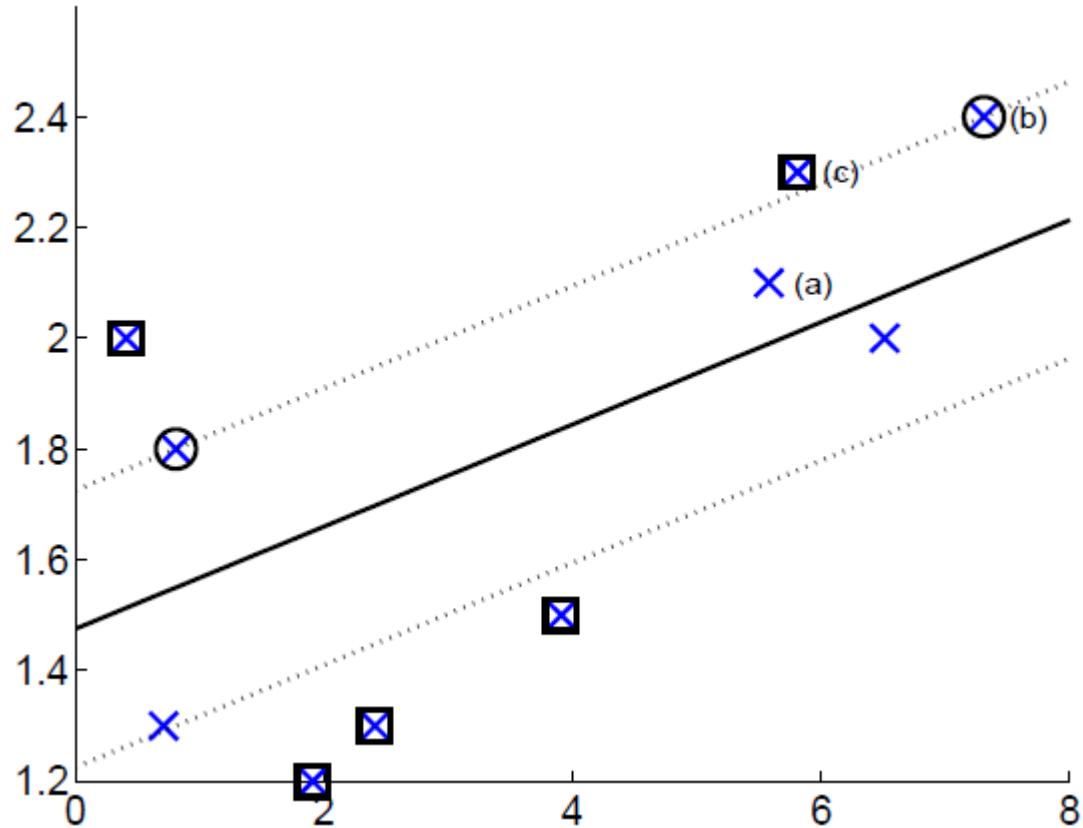
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0$$

- Use the ϵ -sensitive error function

$$e_\epsilon(r^t, f(\mathbf{x}^t)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |r^t - f(\mathbf{x}^t)| < \epsilon \\ |r^t - f(\mathbf{x}^t)| - \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

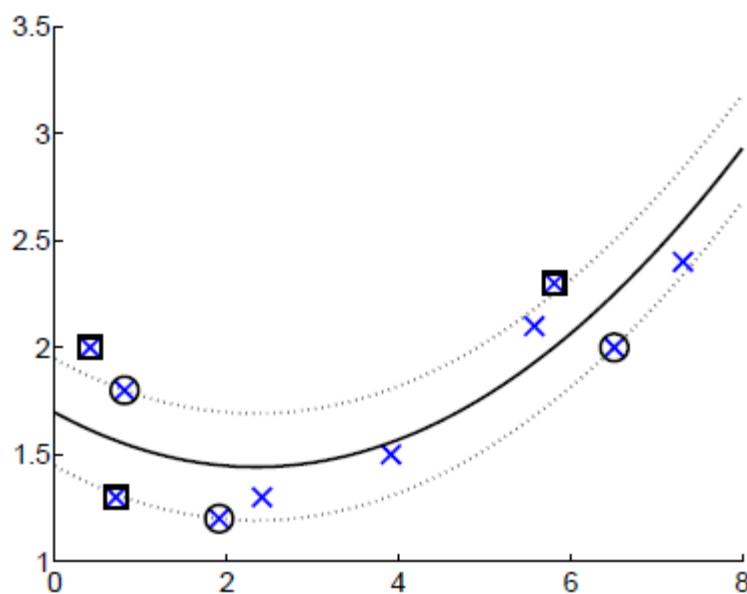
- $\min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_t (\xi_+^t + \xi_-^t)$
 $r^t - (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0) \leq \epsilon + \xi_+^t$
 $(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0) - r^t \leq \epsilon + \xi_-^t$
 $\xi_+^t, \xi_-^t \geq 0$



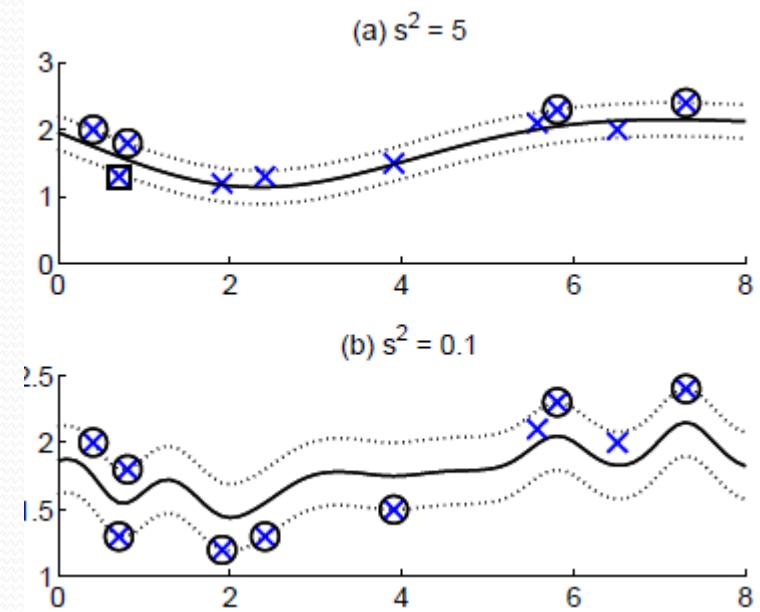


Kernel Regression

- Polynomial kernel



- Gaussian kernel



One-Class Kernel Machines

- Consider a sphere with center a and radius R

$$\min R^2 + C \sum_t \xi^t$$

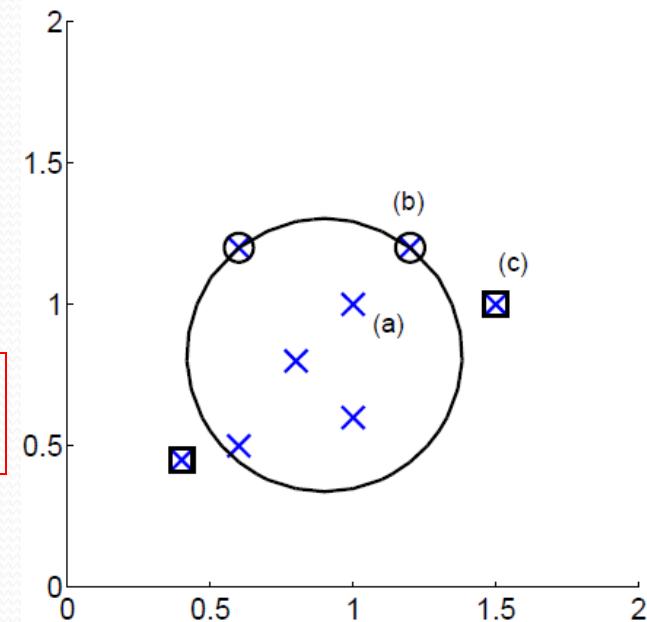
subject to

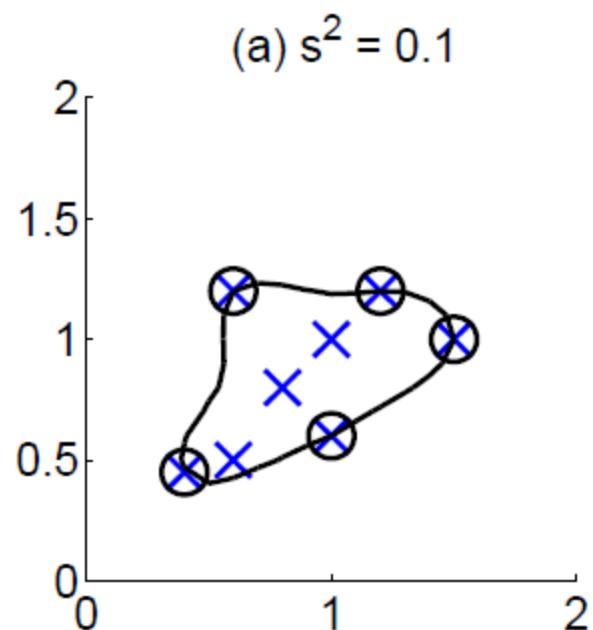
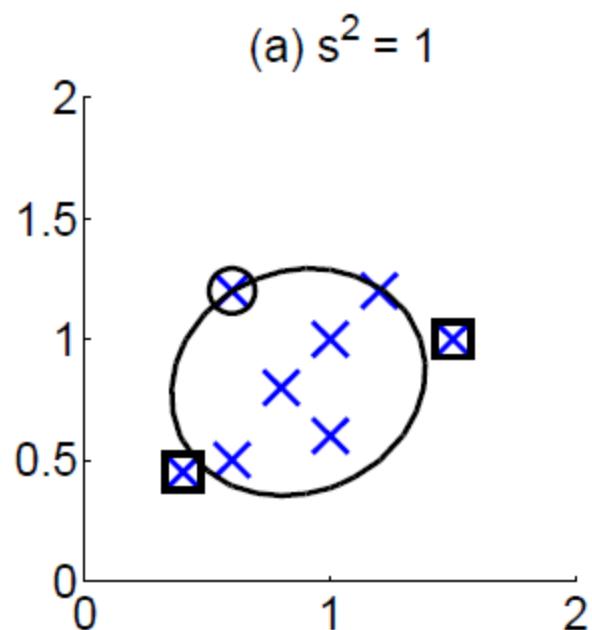
$$\|\mathbf{x}^t - a\| \leq R^2 + \xi^t, \xi^t \geq 0$$

$$L_d = \sum_t \alpha^t (\mathbf{x}^t)^T \mathbf{x}^s - \sum_{t=1}^N \sum_s \alpha^t \alpha^s r^t r^s (\mathbf{x}^t)^T \mathbf{x}^s$$

subject to

$$0 \leq \alpha^t \leq C, \sum_t \alpha^t = 1$$





Conclusions

- So many algorithms, so little time
- Choosing the best model; statistical tests.
- No Free Lunch theorem
- Do different methods make different errors? See Part II.