CSCE 478/878 Lecture 4: Artificial Neural Networks

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Outline

- Threshold units: Perceptron, Winnow
- Gradient descent/exponentiated gradient
- Multilayer networks
- Backpropagation
- Advanced topics
- Support Vector Machines

Connectionist Models

Consider humans:

- Total number of neurons $\approx 10^{10}$
- Neuron switching time $\approx 10^{-3}$ second (vs. 10^{-10})
- Connections per neuron $\approx 10^4 10^5$
- Scene recognition time ≈ 0.1 second
- 100 inference steps doesn't seem like enough
- ⇒ much parallel computation

Properties of artificial neural nets (ANNs):

- Many neuron-like threshold switching units
- Many weighted interconnections among units
- Highly parallel, distributed process
- Emphasis on tuning weights automatically

Strong differences between ANNs for ML and ANNs for biological modeling

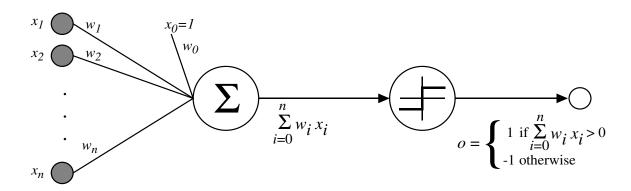
When to Consider Neural Networks

- Input is high-dimensional discrete- or real-valued (e.g. raw sensor input)
- Output is discrete- or real-valued
- Output is a vector of values
- Possibly noisy data
- Form of target function is unknown
- Human readability of result is unimportant
- Long training times acceptable

Examples:

- Speech phoneme recognition [Waibel]
- Image classification [Kanade, Baluja, Rowley]
- Financial prediction

The Perceptron & Winnow



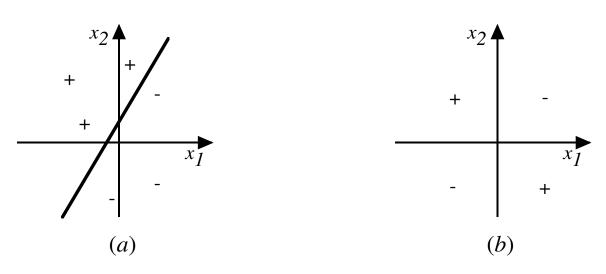
$$o(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_n x_n > 0\\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(sometimes use 0 instead of -1)

Sometimes we'll use simpler vector notation:

$$o(\vec{x}) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} > 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Decision Surface of Perceptron/Winnow



Represents some useful functions

• What weights represent $g(x_1, x_2) = AND(x_1, x_2)$?

But some functions not representable

- I.e. those not linearly separable
- Therefore, we'll want <u>networks</u> of neurons

Perceptron Training Rule

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i^{add}$$
, where $\Delta w_i^{add} = \eta(t - o)x_i$

and

- $t = c(\vec{x})$ is target value
- o is perceptron output
- η is small constant (e.g. 0.1) called learning rate

I.e. if (t - o) > 0 then increase w_i w.r.t. x_i , else decrease

Can prove rule will converge if training data is linearly separable and η sufficiently small

Winnow Training Rule

 $w_i \leftarrow w_i \cdot \Delta w_i^{mult}, \text{ where } \Delta w_i^{mult} = \alpha^{(t-o)x_i}$ and $\alpha > 1$

I.e. use multiplicative updates vs. additive updates

Problem: Sometimes negative weights are required

- Maintain two weight vectors \vec{w}^+ and \vec{w}^- and replace $\vec{w}\cdot\vec{x}$ with $\left(\vec{w}^+-\vec{w}^-\right)\cdot\vec{x}$
- Update \vec{w}^+ and \vec{w}^- independently as above, using $\Delta w_i^+ = \alpha^{(t-o)x_i}$ and $\Delta w_i^- = 1/\Delta w_i^+$

Can also guarantee convergence

Perceptron vs. Winnow

Winnow works well when most attributes <u>irrelevant</u>, i.e. when optimal weight vector \vec{w}^* is sparse (many 0 entries)

E.g. let examples $\vec{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ be labeled by a k-disjunction over n attributes, $k \ll n$

- Remaining n k are irrelevant
- E.g. $c(x_1, \dots, x_{150}) = x_5 \lor x_9 \lor \neg x_{12}, n = 150,$ k = 3
- For disjunctions, number of prediction mistakes (in online model) is $O(k \log n)$ for Winnow and (in worst case) $\Omega(kn)$ for Perceptron
- So in worst case, need <u>exponentially fewer</u> updates for learning with Winnow than Perceptron

Bound is only for disjunctions, but improvement for learning with irrelevant attributes is often true

When \vec{w}^* not sparse, sometimes Perceptron better

Also, have proofs for <u>agnostic</u> error bounds for both algorithms

Gradient Descent and Exponentiated Gradient

- Useful when linear separability impossible but still want to minimize training error
- Consider simpler linear unit, where

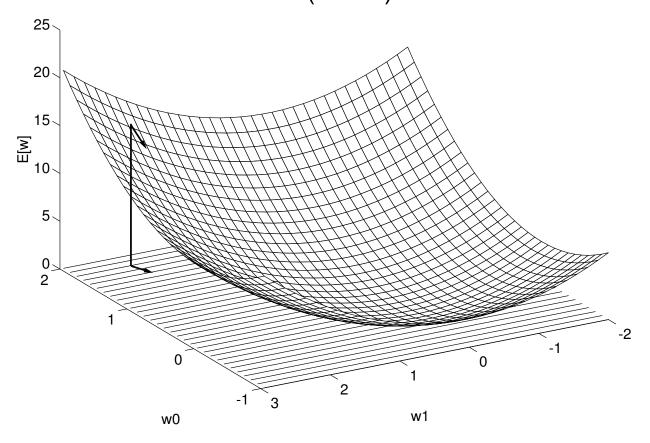
$$o = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_n x_n$$

(i.e. no threshold)

- ullet For moment, assume that we update weights after seeing each example \vec{x}_d
- For each example, want to compromise between <u>correctiveness</u> and <u>conservativeness</u>
 - Correctiveness: Tendency to improve on \vec{x}_d (reduce error)
 - Conservativeness: Tendency to keep \vec{w}_{d+1} close to \vec{w}_d (minimize distance)
- Use cost function that measures both:

$$U(\vec{w}) = dist\left(\vec{w}_{d+1}, \vec{w}_{d}\right) + \eta \operatorname{error}\left(t_{d}, \underbrace{\vec{w}_{d+1} \cdot \vec{x}_{d}}_{\text{curr ex, new wts}}\right)$$

Gradient Descent and Exponentiated Gradient (cont'd)



$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial \vec{w}} = \left[\frac{\partial U}{\partial w_0}, \frac{\partial U}{\partial w_1}, \cdots, \frac{\partial U}{\partial w_n} \right]$$

Gradient Descent

$$U(\vec{w}) = \underbrace{\|\vec{w}_{d+1} - \vec{w}_{d}\|_{2}^{2}}_{coef} + \underbrace{(t_{d} - \vec{w}_{d+1} \cdot \vec{x}_{d})^{2}}_{coef}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_{i,d+1} - w_{i,d})^{2} + \eta \left(t_{d} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i,d+1} x_{i,d}\right)^{2}$$

Take gradient w.r.t. \vec{w}_{d+1} and set to $\vec{0}$:

$$0 = 2 \left(w_{i,d+1} - w_{i,d} \right) - 2\eta \left(t_d - \sum_{i=1}^n w_{i,d+1} x_{i,d} \right) x_{i,d}$$

Approximate with

$$0 = 2 \left(w_{i,d+1} - w_{i,d} \right) - 2\eta \left(t_d - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{w_{i,d}}{x_{i,d}} x_{i,d} \right) x_{i,d} ,$$

which yields

$$w_{i,d+1} = w_{i,d} + \overbrace{\eta(t_d - o_d) x_{i,d}}^{\Delta w_{i,d}^{add}}$$

Exponentiated Gradient

Conserv. portion uses unnormalized relative entropy:

$$U(\vec{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(w_{i,d} - w_{i,d+1} + w_{i,d+1} \ln \frac{w_{i,d+1}}{w_{i,d}} \right) + \underbrace{\uparrow \eta}_{coef.} \underbrace{\frac{corrective}{(t_d - \vec{w}_{d+1} \cdot \vec{x}_d)^2}}_{}$$

Take gradient w.r.t. \vec{w}_{d+1} and set to $\vec{0}$:

$$0 = \ln \frac{w_{i,d+1}}{w_{i,d}} - 2\eta \left(t_d - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{w_{i,d+1}}{w_{i,d}} x_{i,d} \right) x_{i,d}$$

Approximate with

$$0 = \ln \frac{w_{i,d+1}}{w_{i,d}} - 2\eta \left(t_d - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{w_{i,d}}{w_{i,d}} x_{i,d} \right) x_{i,d},$$

which yields (for
$$\eta=\ln\alpha/2$$
)
$$w_{i,d+1}=w_{i,d}\exp\left(2\eta\left(t_d-o_d\right)x_{i,d}\right)=w_{i,d}\underbrace{\alpha^{(t_d-o_d)x_{i,d}}}$$

Implementation Approaches

- Can use rules on previous slides on an example-byexample basis, sometimes called <u>incremental</u>, <u>stochastic</u>, or <u>on-line</u> GD/EG
 - Has a tendency to "jump around" more in searching, which helps avoid getting trapped in local minima
- Alternatively, can use <u>standard</u> or <u>batch</u> GD/EG, in which the classifier is evaluated over all training examples, summing the error, and then updates are made
 - I.e. sum up Δw_i for all examples, but don't update w_i until summation complete (p. 93, Table 4.1)
 - This is an inherent averaging process and tends to give better estimate of the gradient

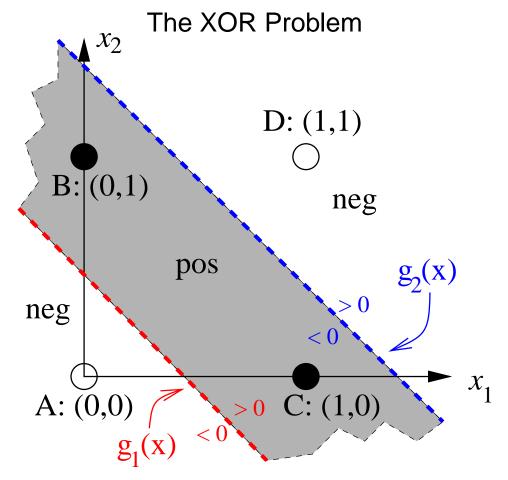
Remarks

- Perceptron and Winnow update weights based on thresholded output, while GD and EG use unthresholded outputs
- P/W converge in finite number of steps to perfect hyp if data linearly separable; GD/EG work on non-linearly separable data, but only converge asymptotically (to wts with minimum squared error)
- As with P vs. W, EG tends to work better than GD when many attributes are irrelevant
 - Allows the addition of attributes that are nonlinear combinations of original ones, to work around linear sep. problem (perhaps get linear separability in new, higher-dimensional space)
 - E.g. if two attributes are x_1 and x_2 , use as EG inputs

$$\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2, x_1 x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2]$$

Also, both have provable agnostic results

Handling Nonlinearly Separable Data



 Can't represent with a single linear separator, but can with intersection of two:

$$g_1(\vec{x}) = 1 \cdot x_1 + 1 \cdot x_2 - 1/2$$

$$g_2(\vec{x}) = 1 \cdot x_1 + 1 \cdot x_2 - 3/2$$

$$pos = \left\{ \vec{x} \in \Re^{\ell} : g_1(\vec{x}) > 0 \text{ AND } g_2(\vec{x}) < 0 \right\}$$

$$neg = \left\{ \vec{x} \in \Re^{\ell} : g_1(\vec{x}), g_2(\vec{x}) < 0 \text{ OR } g_1(\vec{x}), g_2(\vec{x}) > 0 \right\}$$

The XOR Problem

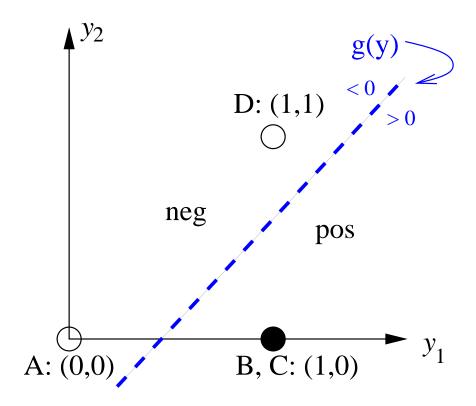
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• Let
$$y_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } g_i(\vec{x}) < 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Class	(x_1, x_2)	$g_1(\vec{x})$	y_1	$g_2(\vec{x})$	y_2
pos	B: (0, 1)	1/2	1	-1/2	0
pos	C: (1,0)	1/2	1	-1/2	0
neg	A: (0,0)	-1/2	0	-3/2	0
neg	D: (1, 1)	3/2	1	1/2	1

• Now feed y_1 , y_2 into:

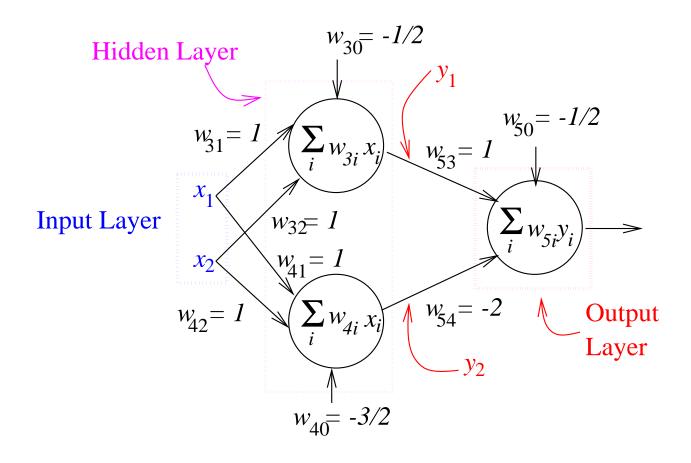
$$g(\vec{y}) = 1 \cdot y_1 - 2 \cdot y_2 - 1/2$$



The XOR Problem

(cont'd)

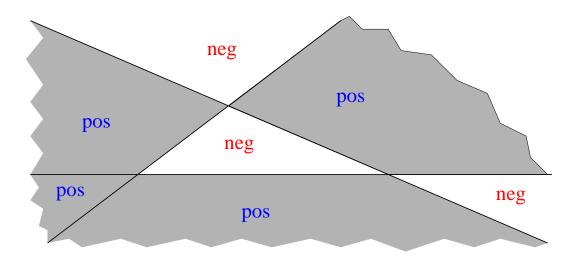
• In other words, we <u>remapped</u> all vectors \vec{x} to \vec{y} such that the classes are linearly separable in the new vector space



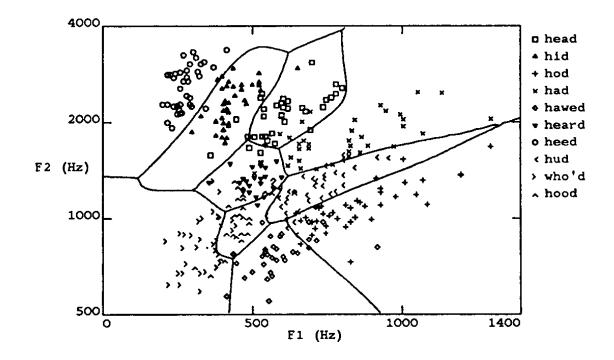
- This is a <u>two-layer perceptron</u> or <u>two-layer</u> <u>feedforward neural network</u>
- Each neuron outputs 1 if its weighted sum exceeds its threshold, 0 otherwise

Generally Handling Nonlinearly Separable Data

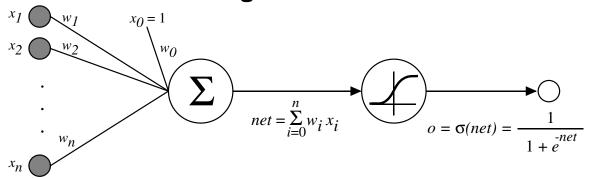
 By adding up to 2 <u>hidden layers</u> of perceptrons, can represent any <u>union</u> of intersection of halfspaces



Problem: The above is still defined linearly



Sigmoid Unit



 $\sigma(x)$ is the logistic function

$$\frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

(a type of sigmoid function)

Squashes net into [0, 1] range

Nice property:

$$\frac{d\sigma(x)}{dx} = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

We can derive GD/EG rules to train

- One sigmoid unit
- Multilayer networks of sigmoid units ⇒
 Backpropagation

GD/EG for Sigmoid Unit

- First note that conservativeness and correctiveness are only additively related

 derivatives always independent
- Thus in general get

$$w_{i,d+1} = w_{i,d} - \frac{\eta}{2} \frac{\partial correc}{\partial w_{i,d}}$$
 for GD

$$w_{i,d+1} = w_{i,d} \exp\left(-\eta \frac{\partial correc}{\partial w_{i,d}}\right)$$
 for EG

 So all we have to do is define an error function, take its gradient, and substitute into the equations

GD/EG for Sigmoid Unit

(cont'd)

Return to book notation, where correctiveness is:

$$E(\vec{w}_d) = \frac{1}{2} (t_d - o_d)^2$$

(folding 1/2 of correctiveness into error func)

Thus
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{i,d}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i,d}} \frac{1}{2} (t_d - o_d)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} 2 (t_d - o_d) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i,d}} (t_d - o_d) = (t_d - o_d) \left(-\frac{\partial o_d}{\partial w_{i,d}} \right)$$

Since o_d is a function of $net_d = \vec{w}_d \cdot \vec{x}_d$,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{i,d}} = -(t_d - o_d) \frac{\partial o_d}{\partial net_d} \frac{\partial net_d}{\partial w_{i,d}}$$

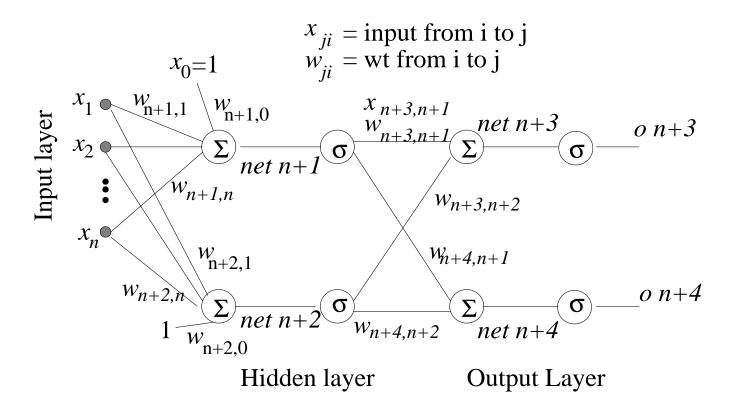
$$= -(t_d - o_d) \frac{\partial \sigma (net_d)}{\partial net_d} \frac{\partial net_d}{\partial w_{i,d}}$$

$$= -(t_d - o_d) o_d (1 - o_d) x_{i,d}$$

$$w_{i,d+1} = w_{i,d} + \eta \, o_d \, (1 - o_d) \, (t_d - o_d) \, x_{i,d}$$
 for GD

$$w_{i,d+1} = w_{i,d} \exp \left(2\eta \, o_d \, (1 - o_d) \, (t_d - o_d) \, x_{i,d} \right) \text{ for EG}$$

Multilayer Networks



Use sigmoid units since continuous and differentiable

Error:

$$E_d = E(\vec{w}_d) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in outputs} (t_{k,d} - o_{k,d})^2$$

Training

Output Units

- ullet Adjust wt $w_{ji,d}$ according to E_d as before
- For output units, this is easy since contribution of $w_{ji,d}$ to E_d when j is an output unit is the same as for single neuron case*, i.e.

$$\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji,d}} = -\left(t_{j,d} - o_{j,d}\right) o_{j,d} \left(1 - o_{j,d}\right) x_{ji,d} = -\delta_j x_{ji,d}$$
 where $\delta_j = -\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} = \underline{\text{error term}}$ of unit j

^{*}This is because all other outputs are constants w.r.t. $w_{ji,d}$

Training

Hidden Units

- How can we compute the error term for hidden layers when there is no target output \vec{t} for these layers?
- Instead <u>propagate back</u> error values from output layer toward input layers, scaling with the weights
- Scaling with the weights characterizes how much of the error term each hidden unit is "responsible for"

Training

Hidden Units (cont'd)

The impact that $w_{ji,d}$ has on E_d is only through net_j and units immediately "downstream" of j:

$$\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji,d}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} \frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji,d}} = x_{ji} \sum_{k \in down(j)} \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_k} \frac{\partial net_k}{\partial net_j}$$

$$= x_{ji} \sum_{k \in down(j)} -\delta_k \frac{\partial net_k}{\partial net_j} = x_{ji} \sum_{k \in down(j)} -\delta_k \frac{\partial net_k}{\partial o_j} \frac{\partial o_j}{\partial net_j}$$

$$= x_{ji} \sum_{k \in down(j)} -\delta_k w_{kj} \frac{\partial o_j}{\partial net_j} = x_{ji} \sum_{k \in down(j)} -\delta_k w_{kj} o_j \left(1 - o_j\right)$$

Works for arbitrary number of hidden layers

Backpropagation Algorithm

Initialize all weights to small random numbers.

Until termination condition satisfied, Do

- For each training example, Do
 - 1. Input the training example to the network and compute the network outputs
 - 2. For each output unit k

$$\delta_k \leftarrow o_k (1 - o_k) (t_k - o_k)$$

3. For each hidden unit h

$$\delta_h \leftarrow o_h (1 - o_h) \sum_{k \in down(h)} w_{k,h} \delta_k$$

4. Update each network weight $w_{i,i}$

$$w_{j,i} \leftarrow w_{j,i} + \Delta w_{j,i}$$

where

$$\Delta w_{j,i} = \eta \, \delta_j x_{j,i}$$

The Backpropagation Algorithm

Example

target = y trial 1: a = 1, b = 0, y = 1

$$f(x) = 1 / (1 + \exp(-x))$$
 trial 2: a = 0, b = 1, y = 0
a w_{ca} w_{cb} w_{cb} w_{co} w_{dc} w_{dc} w_{do} w_{do}

eta	0.3		
	trial 1	trial 2	
w_ca	0.1	0.1008513	0.1008513
w_cb	0.1	0.1	0.0987985
w_c0	0.1	0.1008513	0.0996498
а	1	0	
b	0	1	
const	1	1	
sum_c	0.2	0.2008513	
<u>y_</u> C	0.5498340	0.5500447	
w_dc	0.1	0.1189104	0.0964548
w_d0	0.1	0.1343929	0.0935679
sum_d	0.1549834	0.1997990	
y_d	0.5386685	0.5497842	
target	1	0	
delta_d	0.1146431	-0.136083	
delta_c	0.0028376	-0.004005	
	= y_d(t) * (y(t)		
	= y_c(t) * (1 - y_		
	= w_dc(t) + eta	•••••	
w_ca(t+1) :	<u>= w_ca(t) + eta</u>	* a * delta_c	(t)

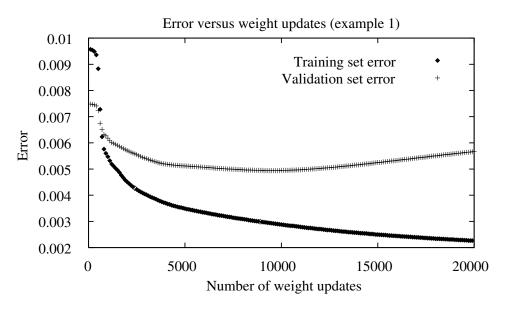
Remarks on Backprop

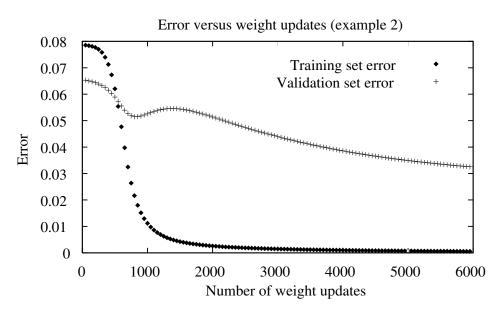
- When to stop training? When weights don't change much, error rate sufficiently low, etc. (be aware of overfitting: use validation set)
- Cannot ensure convergence to global minimum due to myriad local minima, but tends to work well in practice (can re-run with new random weights)
- Generally training very slow (thousands of iterations), use is very fast
- Setting η : Small values slow convergence, large values might overshoot minimum, can adapt it over time
- Can add momentum term $\alpha < 1$ that tends to keep the updates moving in the same direction as previous trials:

$$\Delta w_{ji,d+1} = \eta \, \delta_{j,d+1} \, x_{ji,d+1} + \alpha \, \Delta w_{ji,d}$$

Can help move through small local minima to better ones & move along flat surfaces

Overfitting





Danger of stopping too soon!

Remarks on Backprop

(cont'd)

Alternative error function: cross entropy

$$E_d = \sum_{k \in outputs} \left(t_{k,d} \ln o_{k,d} + \left(1 - t_{k,d} \right) \ln \left(1 - o_{k,d} \right) \right)$$

"blows up" if $t_{k,d} \approx 1$ and $o_{k,d} \approx 0$ or vice-versa (vs. squared error, which is always in [0,1])

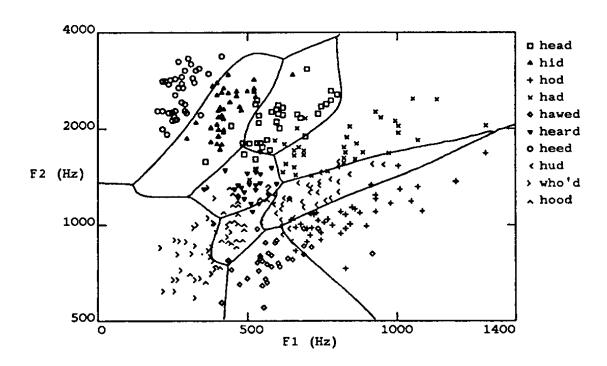
 Can penalize large weights to make space more linear and reduce risk of overfitting:

$$E_d = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in outputs} (t_{kd} - o_{ok})^2 + \gamma \sum_{i,j} w_{ji,d}^2$$

- Representational power: Any boolean func. can be represented with 2 layers, any bounded, continuous func. can be rep. with arbitrarily small error with 2 layers, any func. can be rep. with arbitrarily small error with 3 layers
 - Number of required units may be large
 - GD/EG may not be able to find the right weights

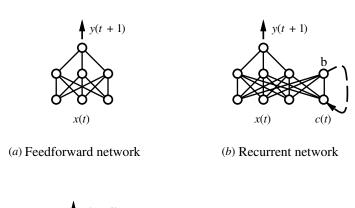
Hypothesis Space

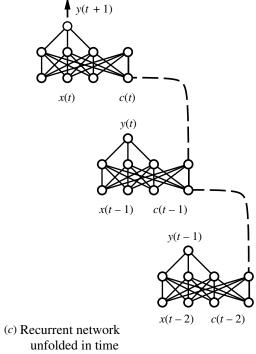
- 1. Hyp. space is set of all weight vectors (continuous vs. discrete of decision trees)
- 2. Search via GD/EG: Possible because error function and output functions are continuous & differentiable
- 3. Inductive bias: (Roughly) smooth interpolation between data points



Advanced Topics

Recurrent Networks to handle time series data (i.e. label of current ex. depends on past exs.)





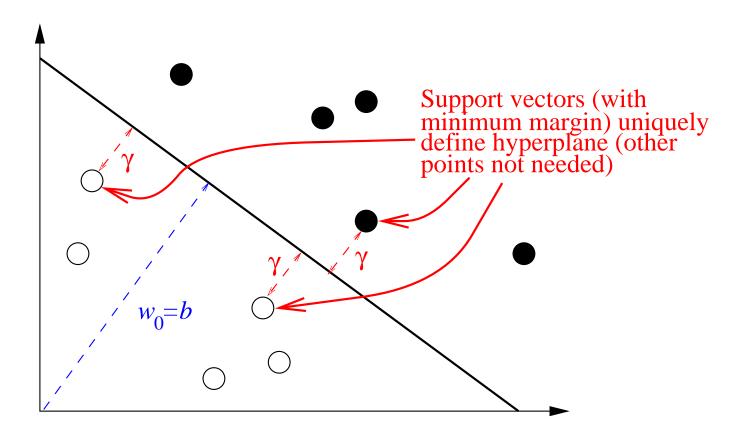
- Other optimization procedures
- Dynamically modifying network structure

Support Vector Machines

[See refs. on slides page]

- Introduced in 1992
- State-of-the-art technique for classification and regression
- Techniques can also be applied to e.g. clustering and principal components analysis
- Similar to ANNs, polynomial classifiers, and RBF networks in that it remaps inputs and then finds a hyperplane
 - Main difference is how it works
- Features of SVMs:
 - Maximization of margin
 - Duality
 - Use of kernels
 - Use of problem <u>convexity</u> to find classifier (often without local minima)

Support Vector Machines Margins



- A hyperplane's $\underline{\text{margin}}\ \gamma$ is the shortest distance from it to any training vector
- Intuition: larger margin ⇒ higher confidence in classifier's ability to generalize
 - Guaranteed generalization error bound in terms of $1/\gamma^2$ (under appropriate assumptions)
- Definition assumes linear separability (more general definitions exist that do not)

Support Vector Machines

Perceptron Algorithm Revisited

•
$$\vec{w}(0) \leftarrow \vec{0}, b(0) \leftarrow 0, k \leftarrow 0, y_i \in \{-1, +1\} \, \forall i$$

- While mistakes are made on training set
 - For i = 1 to N (= # training vectors)

* If
$$y_i(\vec{w}_k \cdot \vec{x}_i + b_k) \leq 0$$

$$\cdot \vec{w}_{k+1} \leftarrow \vec{w}_k + \eta y_i \vec{x}_i$$

$$b_{k+1} \leftarrow b_k + \eta y_i$$

$$\cdot k \leftarrow k + 1$$

• Final predictor: $h(\vec{x}) = \operatorname{sgn}(\vec{w_k} \cdot \vec{x} + b_k)$

Support Vector Machines

Duality

Another way of representing predictor:

$$\begin{split} h(\vec{x}) &= \operatorname{sgn}\left(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b\right) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\eta \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\alpha_{i} y_{i} \vec{x}_{i}\right) \cdot \vec{x} + b\right) \\ &= \operatorname{sgn}\left(\eta \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \left(\vec{x}_{i} \cdot \vec{x}\right) + b\right) \end{split}$$

 $(\alpha_i = \# \text{ mistakes on } \vec{x}_i)$

- So perceptron alg has equivalent <u>dual</u> form:
 - $-\vec{\alpha} \leftarrow \vec{0}, b \leftarrow 0,$
 - While mistakes are made in For loop
 - * For i = 1 to N (= # training vectors)

• If
$$y_i \left(\eta \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j y_j \left(\vec{x}_j \cdot \vec{x}_i \right) + b \right) \le 0$$

$$\alpha_i \leftarrow \alpha_i + 1$$

$$b \leftarrow b + \eta y_i$$

Now data only in dot products

Kernels

- Duality lets us remap to many more features!
- Let $\vec{\phi}:\Re^\ell\to F$ be nonlinear map of f.v.s, so

$$h(\vec{x}) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i y_i \left(\vec{\phi}(\vec{x}_i) \cdot \vec{\phi}(\vec{x})\right) + b\right)$$

- Can we compute $(\vec{\phi}(\vec{x}_i) \cdot \vec{\phi}(\vec{x}))$ without evaluating $\vec{\phi}(\vec{x}_i)$ and $\vec{\phi}(\vec{x})$? YES!
- $\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2], \vec{z} = [z_1, z_2]$:

$$(\vec{x} \cdot \vec{z})^2 = (x_1 z_1 + x_2 z_2)^2$$

$$= x_1^2 z_1^2 + x_2^2 z_2^2 + 2 x_1 x_2 z_1 z_2$$

$$= \underbrace{\left[x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2\right]}_{\vec{\phi}(\vec{x})} \cdot \left[z_1^2, z_2^2, \sqrt{2} z_1 z_2\right]$$

- LHS requires 2 mults + 1 squaring to compute, RHS takes 3 mults
- In general, $(\vec{x} \cdot \vec{z})^d$ takes ℓ mults + 1 expon., vs. $\binom{\ell+d-1}{d} \geq \left(\frac{\ell+d-1}{d}\right)^d$ mults if compute $\vec{\phi}$ first

Kernels

(cont'd)

- In general, a <u>kernel</u> is a function k such that $\forall \vec{x}, \vec{z}$, $k(\vec{x}, \vec{z}) = \vec{\phi}(\vec{x}) \cdot \vec{\phi}(\vec{z})$
- Typically start with kernel and take the feature mapping that it yields
- E.g. Let $\ell = 1, \vec{x} = x, \vec{z} = z, k(x, z) = \sin(x z)$
- By Fourier expansion,

$$\sin(x - z) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin(n x) \sin(n z)$$
$$+ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(n x) \cos(n z)$$

for Fourier coeficients a_0, a_1, \ldots

• This is the dot product of two <u>infinite sequences</u> of nonlinear functions:

$$\{\phi_i(x)\}_{i=0}^{\infty} = [1, \sin(x), \cos(x), \sin(2x), \cos(2x), \ldots]$$

 I.e. there are an infinite number of features in this remapped space!

Kernels

(cont'd)

- Commonly-used kernels:
 - Polynomial:

$$K_{poly}(x, x') = (x \cdot x' + c)^d$$

Gaussian Radial Basis Function (RBF):

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

– Hyperbolic tangent (sigmoid):

$$K_{sig}(x, x') = \tanh(\kappa(x \cdot x') + \theta)$$

 Also have ones for structured data: e.g. graphs, trees, sequences, and sets of points

Support Vector Machines

Finding a Hyperplane

- Can show [Cristianini & Shawe-Taylor] that if data linearly separable in remapped space, then get maximum margin classifier by minimizing $\vec{w} \cdot \vec{w}$ subject to $y_i (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i + b) \geq 1$
- Can reformulate this in <u>dual form</u> as a <u>convex quadratic</u> <u>program</u> that can be solved optimally, i.e. <u>won't encounter</u> local optima:

maximize
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \, \alpha_j \, y_i \, y_j \, k(\vec{x}_i, \vec{x}_j)$$
 s.t.
$$\alpha_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, m$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i \, y_i = 0$$

 After optimization, we can label new vectors with the decision function:

$$f(\vec{x}) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i k(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_i) + b\right)$$

Can always find a kernel that will make training set linearly separable, but beware of choosing a kernel that is too powerful (overfitting)

Support Vector Machines

Finding a Hyperplane (cont'd)

• If kernel doesn't separate, can <u>soften</u> the margin with <u>slack variables</u> ξ_i :

minimize
$$\|\vec{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \xi_i$$

s.t. $y_i((\vec{x}_i \cdot \vec{w}) + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i, i = 1, \dots, m$
 $\xi_i \ge 0, i = 1, \dots, m$

The dual is similar to that for hard margin:

maximize
$$\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i - \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \, \alpha_j \, y_i \, y_j \, k(x_i, x_j)$$
 s.t.
$$0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C, \ i = 1, \dots, m$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \, y_i = 0$$

- Can still solve optimally
- If number of training vectors is very large, may opt to approximately solve these problems to save time and space
- Use e.g. gradient ascent and sequential minimal optimization (SMO) [Cristianini & Shawe-Taylor]
- When done, can throw out non-SVs

Topic summary due in 1 week!