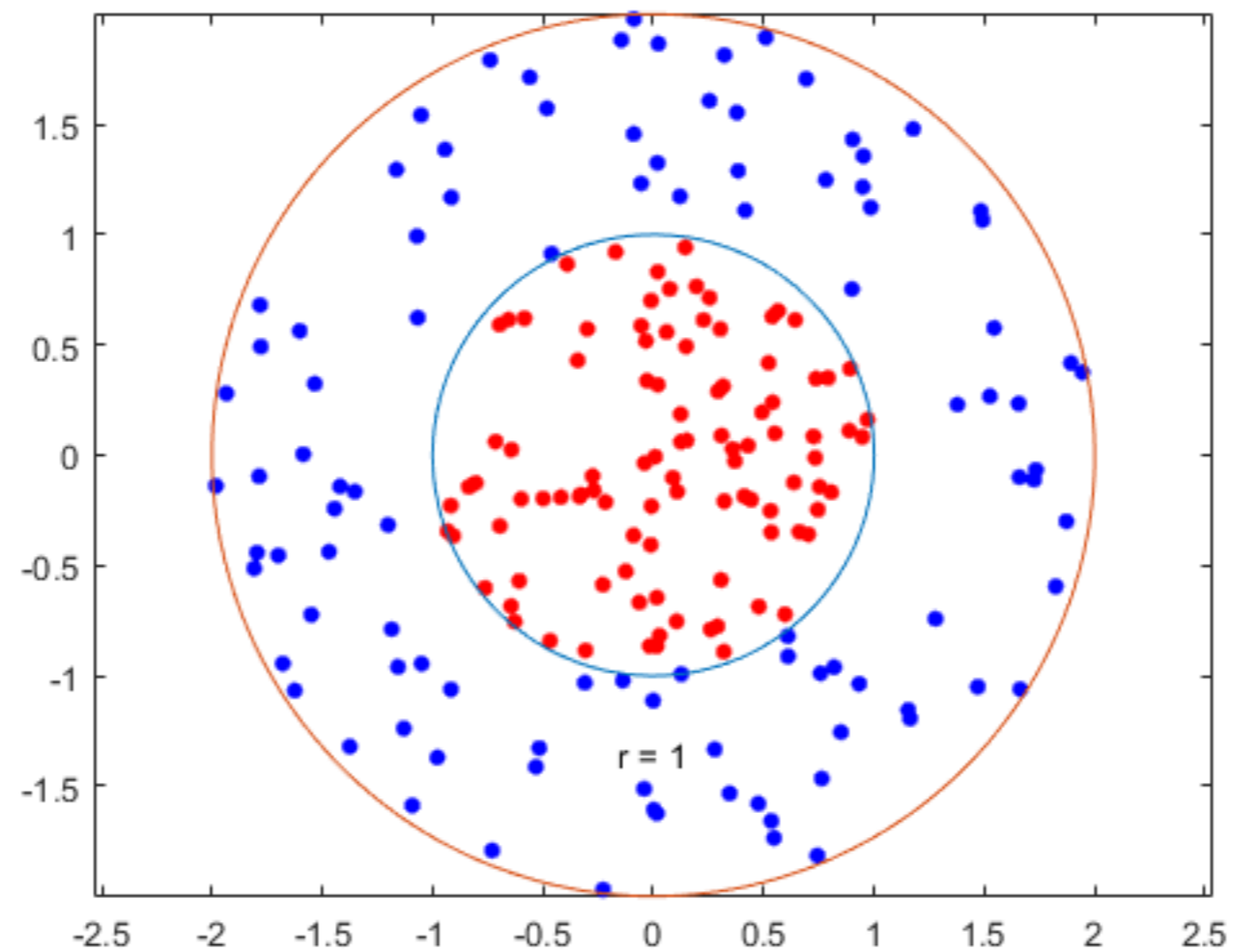


Nonlinear representations



Comments

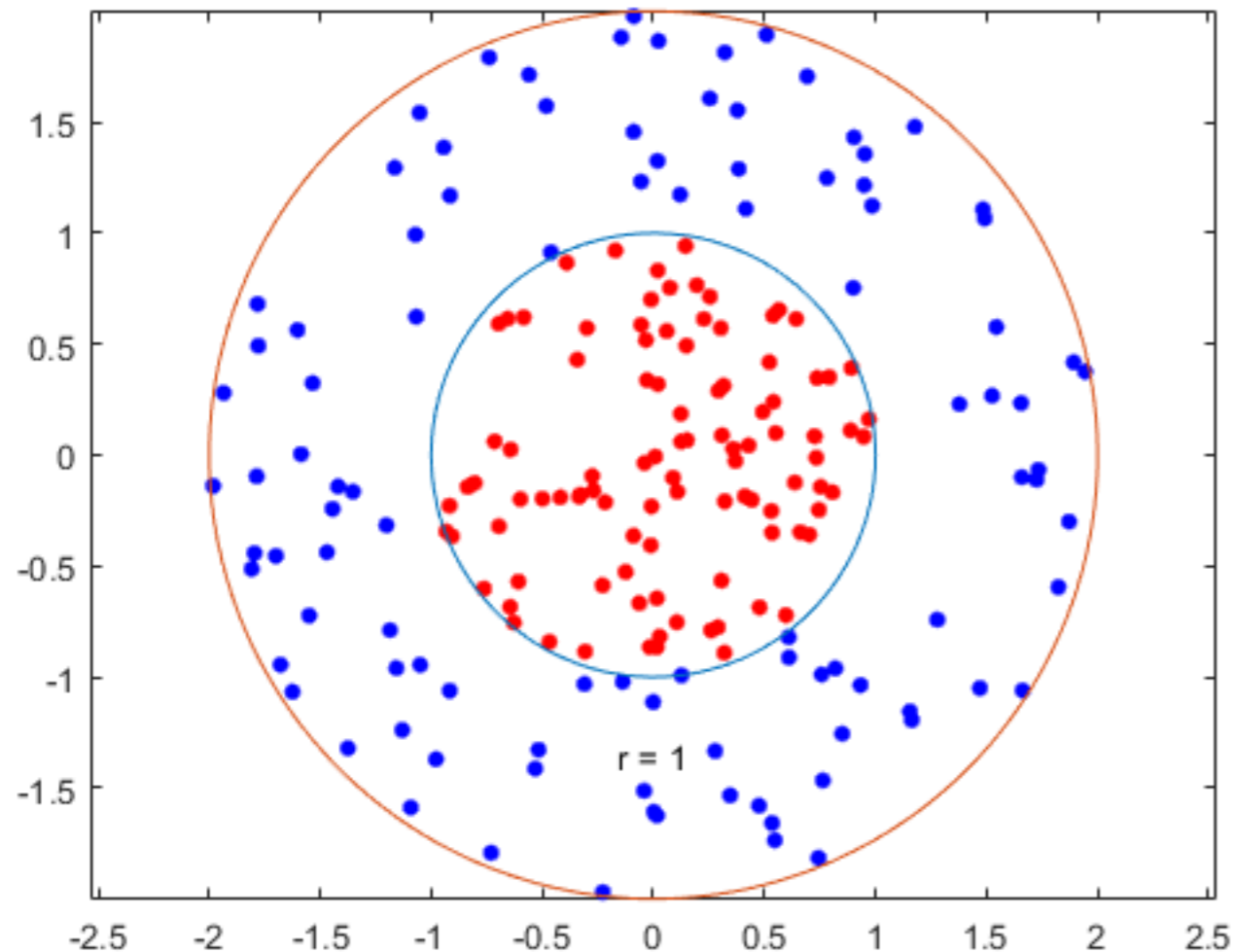
- Assignment 2 deadline extended to the end of Friday
- I do apologize for the late additions to the assignment. Any issues?

Representations for learning nonlinear functions

- Generalized linear models enabled many $p(y | x)$ distributions
 - Still however learning a simple function for $E[Y | x]$, i.e., $f(\langle x, w \rangle)$
- Approach we discussed earlier: augment current features x using polynomials
- There are many strategies to augmenting x
 - fixed representations, like polynomials, wavelets
 - learned representations, like neural networks and matrix factorization

What if classes are not linearly separable?

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \quad f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1$$



$$x_1 = x_2 = 0$$

$$\implies f(x) = -1 < 0$$

$$x_1 = 2, x_2 = -1$$

$$\implies f(x) = 4 + 1 - 1 = 4 > 0$$

How to learn $f(x)$ such that $f(x) > 0$ predicts + and $f(x) < 0$ predicts negative?

What if classes are not linearly separable?

separable?

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \quad f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{w}$$

If use logistic regression, what is $p(y=1 | x)$?

How to learn $f(x)$ such that $f(x) > 0$ predicts + and $f(x) < 0$ predicts negative?

What if classes are not linearly separable?

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \quad f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{w}$$

Imagine learned \mathbf{w} . How do we predict on a new \mathbf{x} ?

Nonlinear transformation

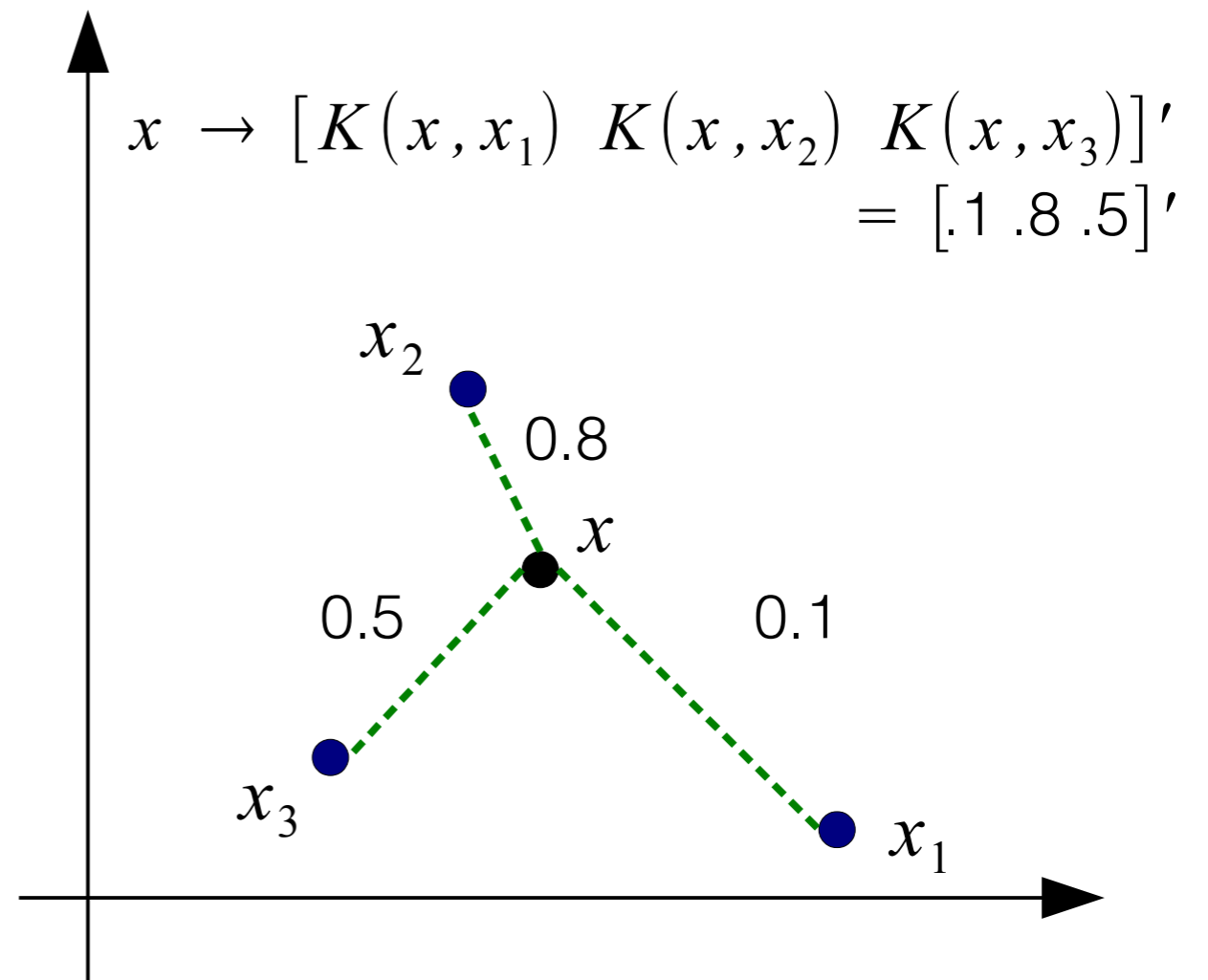
$$\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \dots \\ \phi_p(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{e.g., } \mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2], \quad \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_1 x_2 \\ x_2^2 \\ x_1^3 \\ x_2^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Gaussian kernel / Gaussian radial basis function

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^p w_i k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1) \\ \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_p) \end{bmatrix}$$

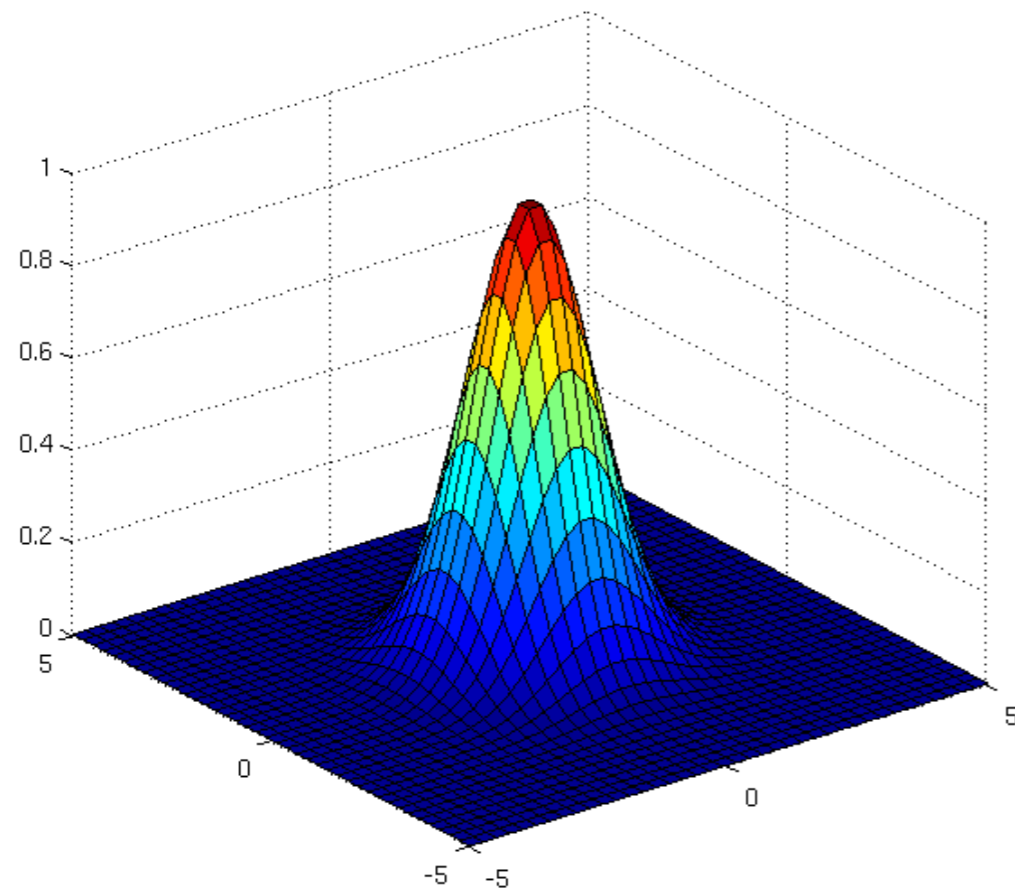


Gaussian kernel / Gaussian radial basis function

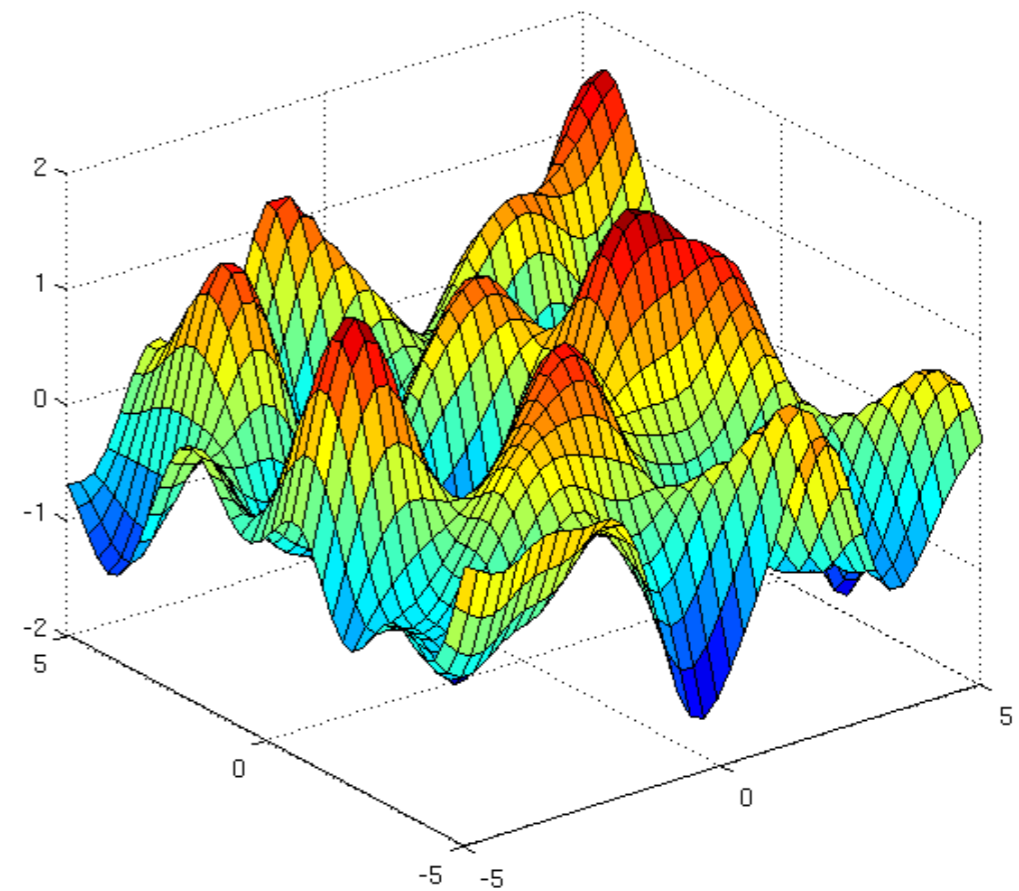
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

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

Kernel



Possible function f with several centers



Selecting centers

- Many different strategies to decide on centers
 - many ML algorithms use kernels e.g., SVMs, Gaussian process regression
- For kernel representations, typical strategy is to select training data as centers
- Clustering techniques to find centers
- A grid of values to best (exhaustively) cover the space
- Many other strategies, e.g., using information gain, coherence criterion, informative vector machine

Covering space uniformly with centres

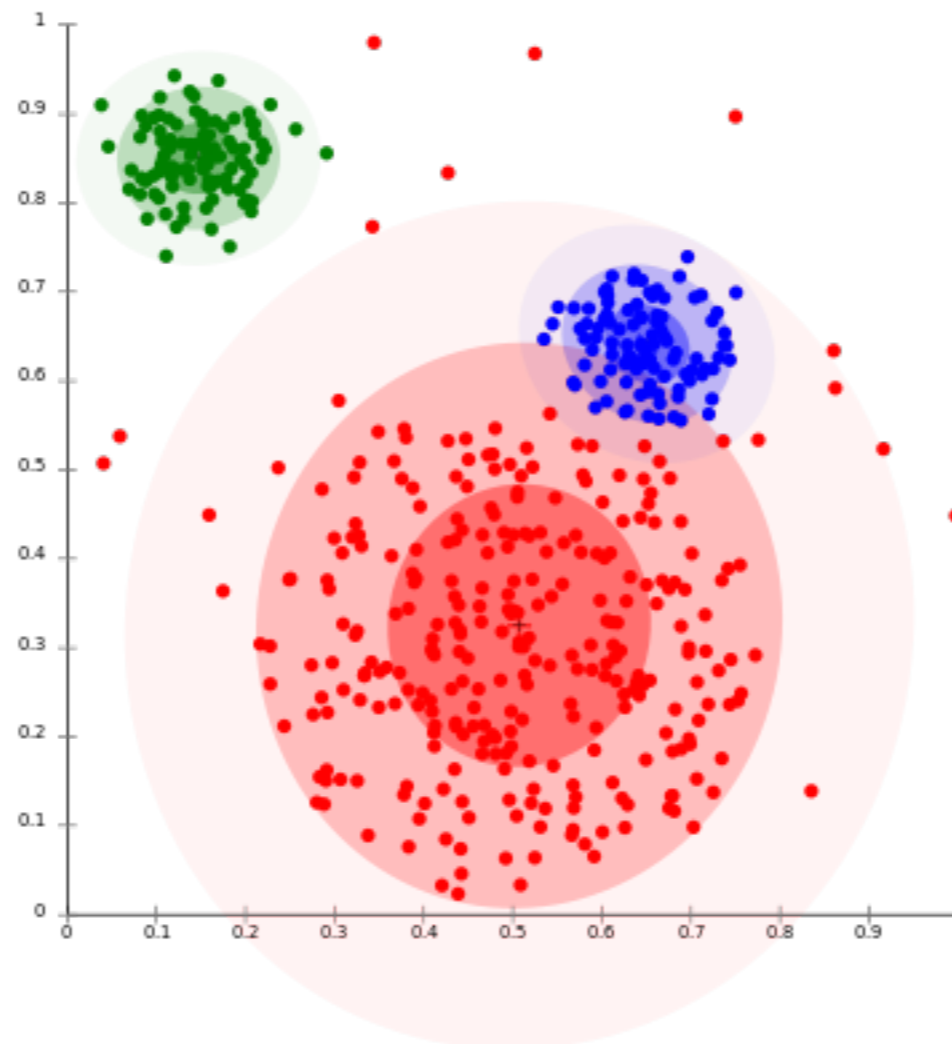
- Imagine has 1-d space, from range $[-10, 10]$
- How would we pick p centers uniformly?
- What if we have a 5-d space, in ranges $[-1, 1]$?
 - To cover entire 5-dimensional, need to consider all possible options
 - Split up 1-d into m values, then total number of centres is m^5
 - i.e., for first value of x_1 , can try all other m values for x_2, \dots, x_5

Why select training data as centers?

- Observed data indicates the part of the space that we actually need to model
 - can be much more compact than exhaustively covering the space
 - imagine only see narrow trajectories in world, even if data is d -dimensional, data you encounter may lie on a much lower-dimensional manifold (space)
- Any issues with using all training data for centres?
 - How can we subselect centres from training data?

How would we use clustering to select centres?

- Clustering is taking data and finding p groups
- What distance measure should we use?
 - If $k(x,c)$ between 0 and 1 and $k(x,x) = 1$ for all x , then $1-k(x,c)$ gives a distance



What if we select centres randomly?

- Are there any issues with the linear regression with a kernel transformation, if we select centres randomly from the data?
- If so, any suggestions to remedy the problem?

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^p k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_j) \mathbf{w}_j - y_i \right)^2$$

Exercise

- What would it mean to use an L1 regularizer with a kernel representation?
 - Recall that L1 prefers to zero elements in \mathbf{w}

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^p k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_j) \mathbf{w}_j - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

Exercise: How do we decide on the nonlinear transformation?

- We can pick a 5-th order polynomial or 6-th order, or... Which should we pick?
- We can pick p centres. How many should we pick?
- How can we avoid overparametrizing or underparameterizing?

Other similarity transforms

- Linear kernel: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{c}$
- Laplace kernel (Laplace distribution instead of Gaussian)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) = \exp(-b\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}\|_1)$$

- Binning transformation

$$s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \text{ in box around } \mathbf{c} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Dealing with non-numeric data

- What if we have categorical features?
 - e.g., feature is the blood type of a person
- Even worse, what if we have strings describing the object?
 - e.g., feature is occupation, like “retail”

Some options

- Convert categorical feature into integers
 - e.g., {A, B, AB, O} \rightarrow {1, 2, 3, 4}
 - Any issues?
- Convert categorical feature into indicator vector
 - e.g., A \rightarrow [1 0 0 0], B \rightarrow [0 1 0 0], ...
 - Any issues?

Using kernels for categorical or non-numeric data

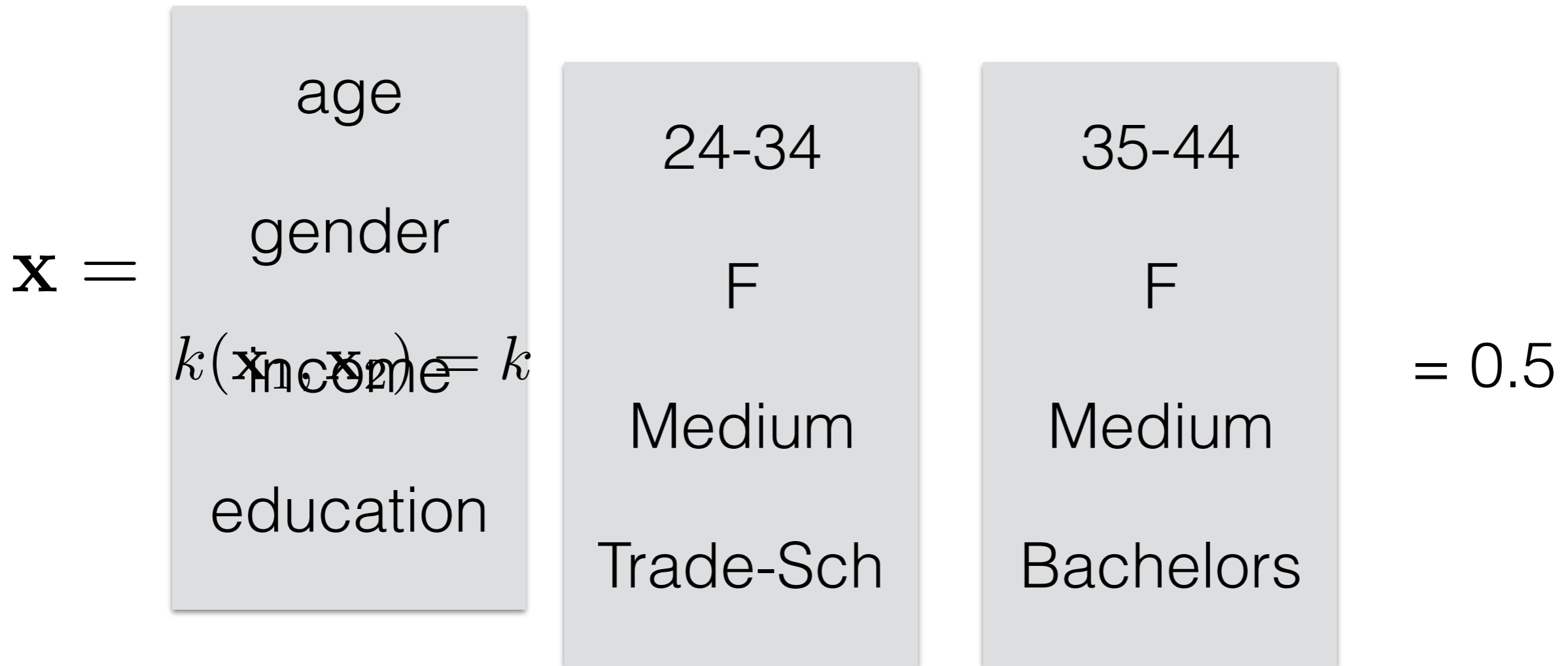
- An alternative is to use kernels (or similarity transforms)
- If you know something about your data/domain, might have a good similarity measure for non-numeric data
- Some more generic kernel options as well
 - Matching kernel: similarity between two items is the proportion of features that are equal

Example: matching kernel

| | | |
|------------|-----------|---------------------------------------|
| x = | age | {15-24, 25-34, ..., 65+} |
| | gender | {F, M} |
| | income | {Low, Medium, High} |
| | education | {Bachelors, Trade-Sch, High-Sch, ...} |

Census dataset: Predict hours worked per week

Example: Matching similarity for categorical data



Representational properties of transformations

- Approximation properties: which transformations can approximate “any function”?
- Radial basis functions (a huge number of them)
- Polynomials and the Taylor series
- Fourier basis and wavelets

Distinction with the kernel trick

- When is the similarity actually called a “kernel”?
- Nice property of kernels: can always be written as a dot product in some feature space

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) = \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{c})$$

- In some cases, they are used to compute inner products efficiently, assuming one is actually learning with the feature expansion
 - This is called the kernel trick
- Implicitly learning with feature expansion $\boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{x})$
 - not learning with expansion that is similarities to centres

Example: polynomial kernel

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2}\mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{x}_2 \\ \mathbf{x}_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle^2$$

In general, for order d polynomials, $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle^d$

Gaussian kernel

Infinite polynomial representation

$$\phi(x) = \exp(-\gamma x^2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{\frac{2\gamma}{1!}} x \\ \sqrt{\frac{(2\gamma)^2}{2!}} x^2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

Regression with new features

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \mathbf{w} - y_i)^2 = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \mathbf{w}_j \right) - y_i \right)^2$$

What if p is really big?

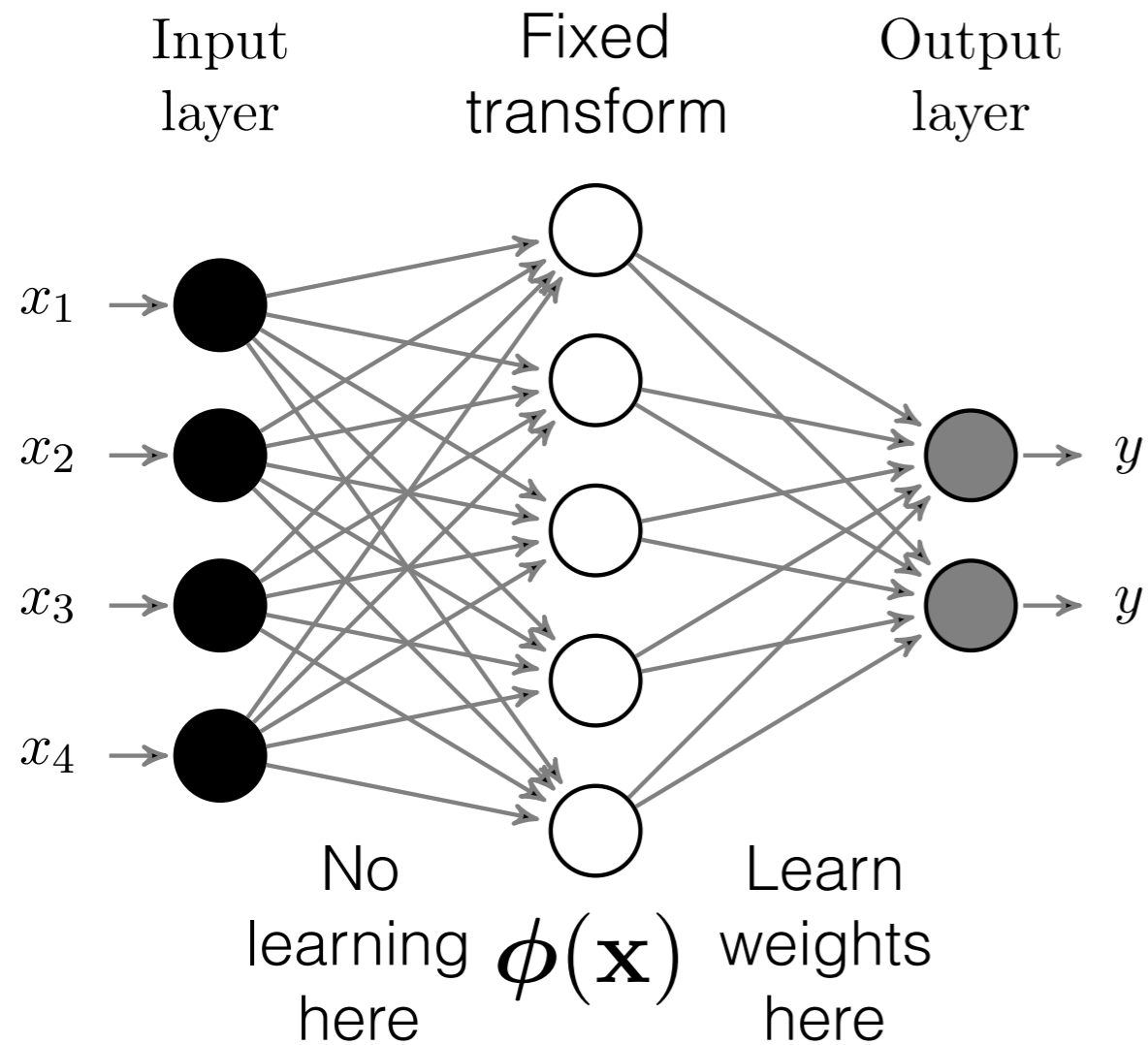
$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \mathbf{w} - y_i)^2 = \min_{\mathbf{a}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle \mathbf{a}_j \right) - y_i \right)^2$$

If can compute dot product efficiently, then can solve this regression problem efficiently

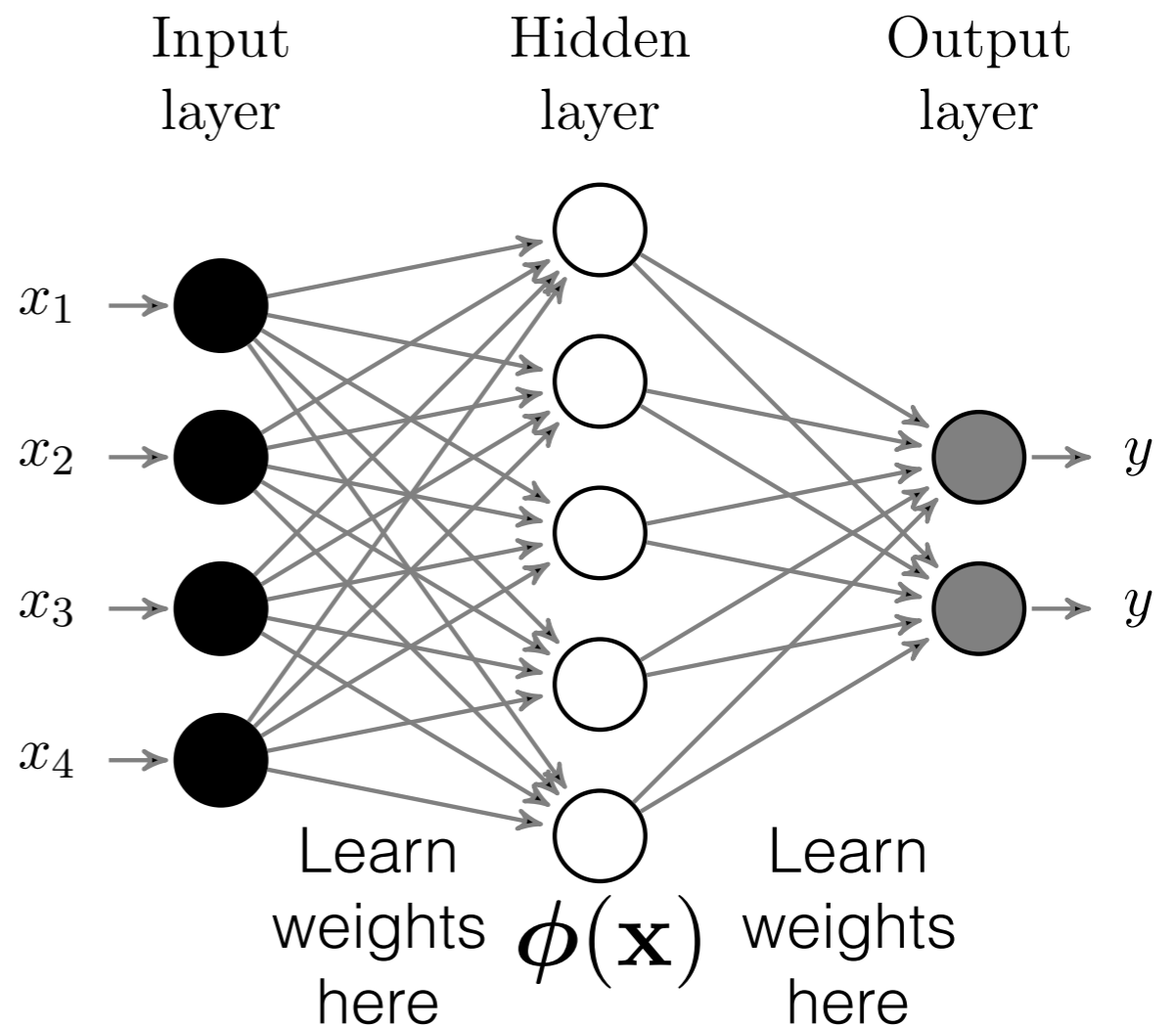
What about learning the representation?

- We have talked about fixed nonlinear transformations
 - polynomials
 - kernels
- How do we introduce learning?
 - could learn centers, for example
 - learning is quite constrained, since can only pick centres and widths
- Neural networks **learn** this transformation more from scratch

Fixed representation vs. NN

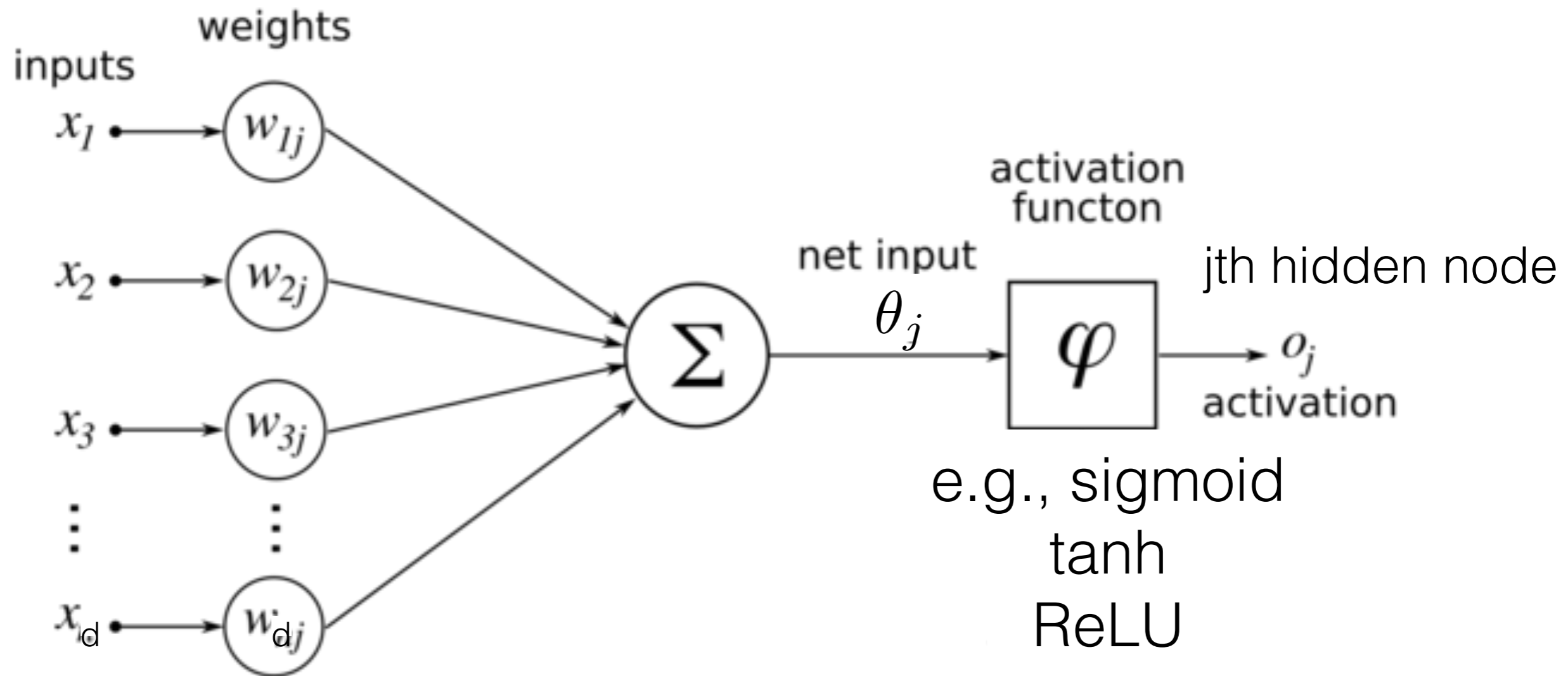


GLM with augmented fix representation



Two-layer neural network

Explicit steps in visualizations



Example: logistic regression versus neural network

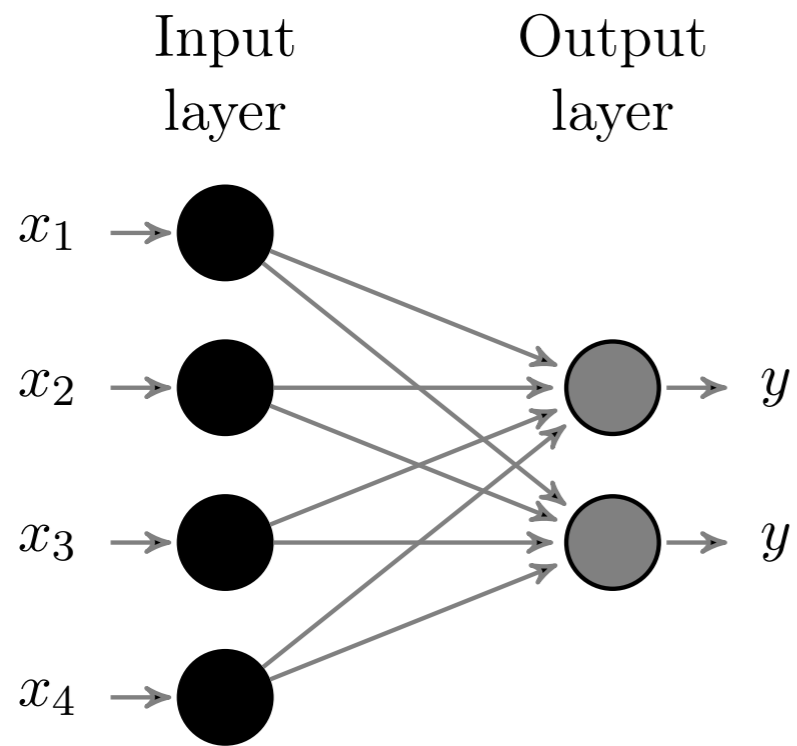
- Both try to predict $p(y = 1 | \mathbf{x})$
- Logistic regression learns \mathbf{W} such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{W}) = \sigma(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{W}) = p(y = 1 | \mathbf{x})$$

- Neural network learns $\mathbf{W}1$ and $\mathbf{W}2$ such that

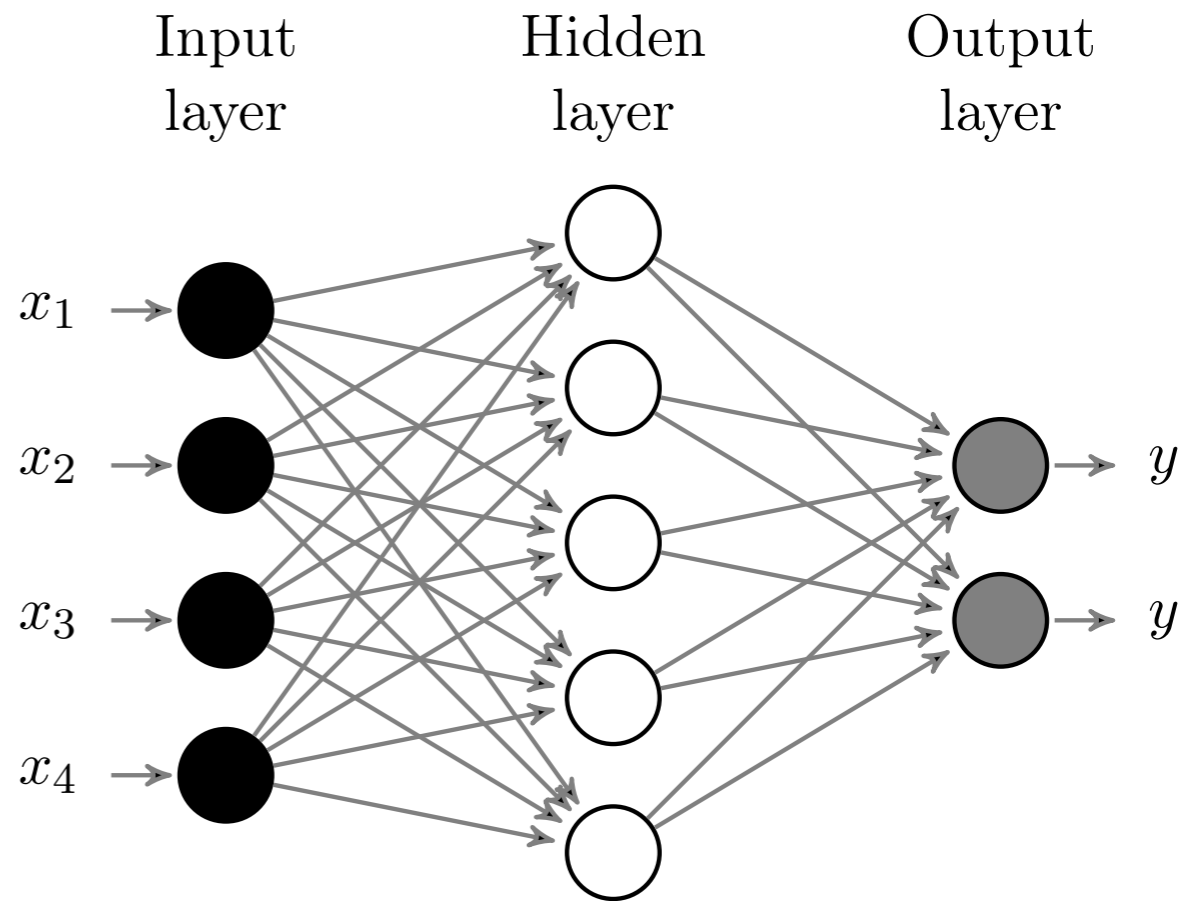
$$p(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{h}\mathbf{W}^{(1)}) = \sigma(\sigma(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{W}^{(2)})\mathbf{W}^{(1)}).$$

No representation learning vs. neural network



GLM

(e.g. logistic regression)



Two-layer neural network

What are the representational capabilities of neural nets?

- Single hidden-layer neural networks with sigmoid transfer can represent any continuous function on a bounded space within epsilon accuracy, for a large enough number of hidden nodes
- see Cybenko, 1989: “Approximation by Superpositions of a Sigmoidal Function”

