

Margins

 $|\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}| \ge \gamma$, ||w|| = 1, ||x|| = 1

Some ways to see it:

- 1. The perceptron algorithm does well: makes only 1/γ² mistakes.
- 2. Margin bounds: whp all consistent large-margin separators have low true error.

Today: 3 & 4.

- 3. Really-Simple-Learning + boosting...
- 4. Random projection...

A really simple learning algorithm

Suppose data is separable by margin $\gamma. \$ Here is another way to see why this is good for learning.

Consider the following simple algorithm...

- 1. Pick a random linear separator.
- 2. See if it is any good.
- 3. If it is a weak hypothesis (error rate $\leq \frac{1}{2} \gamma/4$), plug into boosting. Else don't. Repeat.
- Claim: if \exists a large margin separator, then $\ge c\gamma$ chance that random separator is weak hyp.

Can pick random separators before seeing data, so can view as $MAJ_k(H)$ for $\mathbf{k}=0(1/\gamma^2),|H|=O(k/\gamma)$

A really simple learning algorithm

Claim: if data has a separator of margin γ , there's a reasonable chance a random linear separator will have error $\leq \frac{1}{2} - \gamma/4$. [all hyperplanes through origin]

Proof: Consider random h s.t. $h \cdot w^* \ge 0$:

- Pick a (positive) example x. Consider the 2-d plane defined by x and target w*.
- $\Pr_{h}(h \cdot x \leq 0 \mid h \cdot w^{*} \geq 0)$ $\leq (\pi/2 - \gamma)/\pi = \frac{1}{2} - \gamma/\pi.$
- So, E_h [err(h) | $h \cdot w^* \ge 0$] $\le \frac{1}{2} \gamma/\pi$.
- Since err(h) is bounded between 0 and 1, there must be an $\Omega(\gamma)$ chance of success.

QED

Another way to see why large margin is good

Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma:

Given n points in Rⁿ, if project randomly to R^k, for $k = O(\epsilon^{-2} \log n)$, then whp all pairwise distances preserved up to $1 \pm \varepsilon$ (after scaling by $(n/k)^{1/2}$). Cleanest proofs: IndykMotwani98, DasguptaGupta99

Lemma, cont

Given n points in Rⁿ, if project randomly to R^k, for k = $O(\epsilon^{-2} \log n)$, then whp all pairwise distances preserved up to $1\pm\epsilon$ (after scaling). Cleanest proofs: IM98, DG99

Proof easiest for slightly different projection:

- Pick k vectors u₁, ..., u_k iid from n-diml gaussian.
- Map $\mathbf{p} \to (p \cdot u_1, \dots, p \cdot u_k)$.
- What happens to v_{ij} = p_i p_j?

 - Becomes (v_{ij} · u₁, ..., v_{ij} · u_k)
 Each component is iid from 1-diml gaussian, scaled by $|\mathbf{v}_{ij}|$.
 - For concentration on sum of squares, plug in version of Hoeffding for RVs that are squares of gaussians.
- So, whp all lengths apx preserved, and in fact not hard to see that whp all angles are apx preserved too.

If data is separable by large margin γ , then that's a good thing. Need sample size only $\tilde{O}(1/\gamma^2)$ to learn to constant error rate.

Random projection and margins

Natural connection [ArriagaVempala99]:

- Suppose we have a set S of points in Rⁿ, separable by margin γ .
- JL lemma says if project to random k-dimensional space for k=O($\gamma^2 \log |S|$), whp still separable (by margin $\gamma/2$).
 - Think of projecting points and target vector w. • Angles between p_i and w change by at most $\pm \gamma/2$.
- Could have picked projection before sampling data.
- So, it's really just a k-dimensional problem after all. Do
- all your learning in this k-diml space.

So, random projections can help us think about why margins are good for learning. [note: this argument does NOT imply uniform convergence in original space]

OK, now to another way to view kernels...

Kernel function recap

- We have a lot of great algorithms for learning linear separators (perceptron, SVM, ...). But, a lot of time, data is not linearly separable.
 - One option: use a more complicated algorithm.
 - Another option: use a kernel function!
- Many algorithms only interact with the data via dot-products.
 - So, let's just re-define dot-product.



- E.g., K(x,y) = (1 + x·y)^d. $K(x,y)=\phi(x)\cdot\phi(y),$ where $\phi()$ is implicit mapping into an n⁴-dimensional space.
- Algorithm acts as if data is in "\$-space". Allows it to produce non-linear curve in original space.
- Don't have to pay for high dimension if data is linearly separable there by a large margin.

Question: do we need the notion of an implicit space to understand what makes a kernel helpful for learning?

Can we develop a more intuitive theory?

- Match intuition that you are looking for a good measure of similarity for the problem at hand?
- Get the power of the standard theory with less of "something for nothing" feel to it?

And remove even need for existence of Φ ?

Can we develop a more intuitive theory?

What would we intuitively want in a good measure of similarity for a given learning problem?

A reasonable idea:

- Say have a learning problem P (distribution D over examples labeled by unknown target f).
- most x are on average more similar to random pts of their own label than to random pts of the other label, by some gap γ .
 - E.g., most images of men are on average $\gamma\text{-more}$ similar to random images of men than random images of women, and vice-versa.

(Scaling so all values in [-1,1])

A reasonable idea:

- Say have a learning problem P (distribution D over examples labeled by unknown target f).
- Sim fn K:(x,y)→[-1,1] is (ε,γ)-good for P if at least a 1-ε fraction of examples x satisfy:

 $\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}\sim\mathsf{D}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{y}){=}\ell(\mathsf{x})] \geq \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}\sim\mathsf{D}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{y}){\neq}\ell(\mathsf{x})]{+}\gamma$

E.g., most images of men are on average γ -more similar to random images of men than random images of women, and vice-versa.

(Scaling so all values in [-1,1])

A reasonable idea:

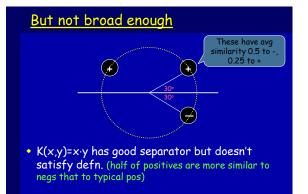
- Say have a learning problem P (distribution D over examples labeled by unknown target f).
- Sim fn K:(x,y)→[-1,1] is (ε,γ)-good for P if at least a 1-ε fraction of examples x satisfy:
- $\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}\sim\mathsf{D}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{y}){=}\ell(\mathsf{x})] \geq \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}\sim\mathsf{D}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{y}){\neq}\ell(\mathsf{x})]{+}\gamma$

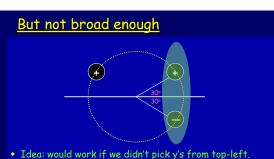
How can we use it?

Just do "average nearest-nbr"

At least a 1- ε fraction of x satisfy: $E_{y\sim D}[K(x,y)|\ell(y)=\ell(x)] \ge E_{y\sim D}[K(x,y)|\ell(y)\neq\ell(x)]+\gamma$

- Draw S⁺ of $O((1/\gamma^2)\ln 1/\delta^2)$ positive examples.
- Draw S⁻ of $O((1/\gamma^2)\ln 1/\delta^2)$ negative examples
- Classify x based on which gives better score.
 - Hoeffding: for any given "good x", prob of error over draw of S^+, S^- at most $\delta^2.$
 - So, at most δ chance our draw is bad on more than δ fraction of "good x".
- With prob $\geq 1-\delta$, error rate $\leq \varepsilon + \delta$.





 Broaden to say: OK if ∃ large region R s.t. most x are on average more similar to y∈R of same label than to y∈R of other label. (even if don't know R in advance)

Broader defn...

- Ask that exists a set R of "reasonable" y (allow probabilistic) s.t. almost all x satisfy
- $\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{x})=\ell(\mathsf{y}),\,\mathsf{y}\in\mathsf{R}] \ge \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{x})\neq\ell(\mathsf{y}),\,\mathsf{y}\in\mathsf{R}]+\gamma$
- Formally, say K is $(\varepsilon', \gamma, \tau)$ -good if $E_x[\gamma$ -hinge loss $(x)] \le \varepsilon'$, and $\Pr(\mathbb{R}_*)$, $\Pr(\mathbb{R}_*) \ge \tau$.
- Thm 1: this is a legitimate way to think about good kernels:
 - If kernel has margin γ in implicit space, then for any τ is (τ,γ²,τ)-good in this sense.

Broader defn...

- Ask that exists a set R of "reasonable" y (allow probabilistic) s.t. almost all x satisfy
- $\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{x})=\ell(\mathsf{y}),\,\mathsf{y}\in\mathsf{R}] \ge \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{y}}[\mathsf{K}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})|\ell(\mathsf{x})\neq\ell(\mathsf{y}),\,\mathsf{y}\in\mathsf{R}]+\gamma$
- Formally, say K is $(\varepsilon', \gamma, \tau)$ -good if $E_x[\gamma$ -hinge loss $(x)] \le \varepsilon'$, and $\Pr(\mathbb{R}_*)$, $\Pr(\mathbb{R}_*) \ge \tau$.
- Thm 2: even if not a legal kernel, this is nonetheless sufficient for learning.
 - If K is $(\varepsilon', \tau_{\epsilon})$ -good, $\varepsilon' \ll \varepsilon$, can learn to error ε with $O\left(\frac{1}{cv^2}\log\frac{1}{cv\pi}\right)$ labeled examples.
 - [and $\tilde{O}(1/(\gamma^2 \tau))$ unlabeled examples]

How to use such a sim fn?

- Assume $\exists R \text{ s.t. } \Pr_{y}[R_{+},R_{-}] \geq \tau$ and almost all x satisfy $E_{,[K(x,y)|\ell(x)=\ell(y), y\in R]} \geq E_{,[K(x,y)|\ell(x)\neq\ell(y), y\in R]+\gamma}$
 - Draw S = { $y_1, ..., y_n$ }, $n \approx 1/(\gamma^2 \tau)$. Could be unlabeled
 - View as "landmarks", use to map new data: F(x) = [K(x,y1), ...,K(x,yn)].
 - Whp, exists separator of good L₁ margin in this space: w=[0,0,1/n,.1/n,.0,0,0,-1/n_.0] (n = # y = B, n = # y = B)
 - So, take new set of examples, project to this space, and run good L₁ alg (Winnow).

Other notes

- So, large margin in implicit space \Rightarrow satisfy this defn (with potentially quadratic penalty in margin).
- Can apply to similarity functions that are not legal kernels. E.g.,
 - K(x,y)=1 if x,y within distance d, else 0.
 - K(s₁, s₂) = output of arbitrary dynamic-programming alg applied to s₁, s₂, scaled to [-1,1].
 - Nice work on using this in the context of edit-distance similarity fns for string data [Bellet-Sebban-Habrard 11]
- This def is really an L₁ style margin, so has nice properties:
 - E.g., given k similarity fns with hope that some convex combination is good: only log(k) blowup in sample size.