

Kernel Methods

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Setup and Motivation

The Input Space \mathcal{X}

- Our general learning theory setup: no assumptions about \mathcal{X}
- But $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$ for the specific methods we've developed:
 - Ridge regression
 - Lasso regression
 - Support Vector Machines
- Our hypothesis space for these was all affine functions on \mathbf{R}^d :

$$\mathcal{H} = \{x \mapsto w^T x + b \mid w \in \mathbf{R}^d, b \in \mathbf{R}\}.$$

- What if we want to do prediction on inputs not natively in \mathbf{R}^d ?

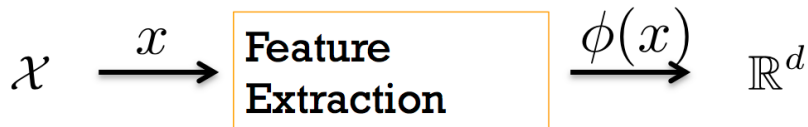
Feature Extraction

Definition

Mapping an input from \mathcal{X} to a vector in \mathbb{R}^d is called **feature extraction** or **featurization**.

Raw Input

Feature Vector

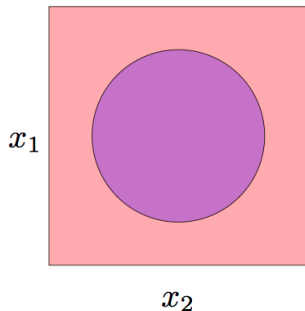


Linear Models with Explicit Feature Map

- Input space: \mathcal{X} (no assumptions)
- Introduce **feature map** $\psi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$
- The feature map maps into the **feature space** \mathbf{R}^d .
- Hypothesis space of affine functions on feature space:

$$\mathcal{H} = \{x \mapsto w^T \psi(x) + b \mid w \in \mathbf{R}^d, b \in \mathbf{R}\}.$$

Geometric Example: Two class problem, nonlinear boundary



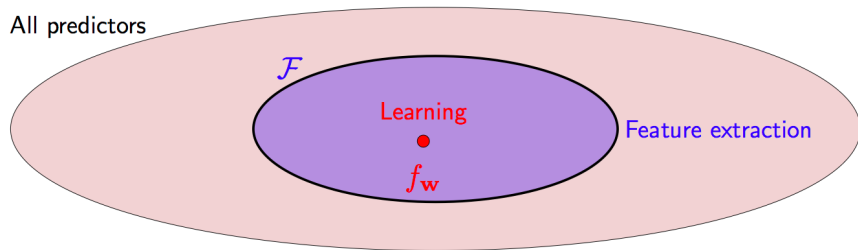
- With linear feature map $\phi(x) = (x_1, x_2)$ and linear models, can't separate regions
- With appropriate nonlinearity $\phi(x) = (x_1, x_2, x_1^2 + x_2^2)$, piece of cake.
- Video: <http://youtu.be/3liCbRZPrZA>

From Percy Liang's "Lecture 3" slides from Stanford's CS221, Autumn 2014.

Expressivity of Hypothesis Space

- Consider a linear hypothesis space with a feature map $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f(x) = w^T \phi(x)\}$$



Question: does \mathcal{F} contain a good predictor?

We can grow the linear hypothesis space \mathcal{F} by adding more features.

From Percy Liang's "Lecture 3" slides from Stanford's CS221, Autumn 2014.

Linear Models Need Big Feature Spaces

- To get **expressive** hypothesis spaces using linear models,
 - need high-dimensional feature spaces
- Suppose we start with $x = (1, x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbf{R}^{d+1} = \mathcal{X}$.
- We want to add all monomials up to degree M : $x_1^{p_1} \cdots x_d^{p_d}$, with $p_1 + \cdots + p_d \leq M$.
- How many features will we end up with?
 - $\binom{M+d}{M}$ (“flower shop problem” from combinatorics)
 - For $d = 40$ and $M = 8$, we get 377348994 features.
- That will make some extremely large matrices...

Very large feature spaces have two problems:

- ① Overfitting
 - ② Memory and computational costs
- Overfitting we handle with regularization.
 - “Kernel methods” can (sometimes) help with memory and computational costs.

Kernel Methods: Motivation

Review: Linear SVM and Dual

- The [featurized] SVM prediction function is the solution to

$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d, b \in \mathbf{R}} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - y_i [w^T \psi(x_i) + b])_+.$$

- Found it is equivalent to solve the dual problem to get α^* :

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \psi(x_j)^T \psi(x_i) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\ & \alpha_i \in \left[0, \frac{c}{n}\right] \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

- Notice: $\psi(x)$'s only show up as inner products with other x 's.

Some Methods Can Be “Kernelized”

Definition

A method is **kernelized** if inputs only appear inside inner products: $\langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle$ for $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$.

- The **kernel function** corresponding to ψ and inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is

$$k(x, x') = \langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle.$$

- Why introduce this new notation $k(x, x')$?
- Turns out, we can often evaluate $k(x, x')$ directly,
 - without explicitly computing $\psi(x)$ and $\psi(x')$.
- For large feature spaces, can be much faster.

Kernel Evaluation Can Be Fast

Example

Quadratic feature map for $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbf{R}^d$.

$$\phi(x) = (x_1, \dots, x_d, x_1^2, \dots, x_d^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, \dots, \sqrt{2}x_1x_d, \dots, \sqrt{2}x_{d-1}x_d)^T$$

has dimension $O(d^2)$, but for any $x, x' \in \mathbf{R}^d$

$$k(x, x') = \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle = \langle x, x' \rangle + \langle x, x' \rangle^2$$

- Naively explicit computation of $k(x, x')$: $O(d^2)$
- Implicit computation of $k(x, x')$: $O(d)$

Kernels as Similarity Scores

- Often useful to think of the kernel function as a **similarity score**.
- But this is not a mathematically precise statement.
- There are many ways to design a similarity score.
 - We will use **Mercer kernels**, which correspond to inner products in some feature space.
 - Has many mathematical benefits.

What are the Benefits of Kernelization?

- ① Computational (e.g. when feature space dimension d larger than sample size n).
- ② Access to infinite-dimensional feature spaces.
- ③ Allows thinking in terms of “similarity” rather than features.

Example: SVM

- Recall the SVM dual optimization problem for training set $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_j^T x_i \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\ & \alpha_i \in \left[0, \frac{C}{n}\right] \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

- Can replace $x_j^T x_i$ by an arbitrary kernel $k(x_j, x_i)$.
- What kernel are we currently using?

- Input space: $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$
- Feature space: $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{R}^d$, with standard inner product
- Feature map

$$\psi(x) = x$$

- Kernel:

$$k(x, x') = x^T x'$$

The Kernel Matrix (or the Gram Matrix)

Definition

For points of $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$ and an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on \mathcal{X} , the **kernel matrix** or the **Gram matrix** is defined as

$$K = (\langle x_i, x_j \rangle)_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x_1, x_1 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_1, x_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle x_n, x_1 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_n, x_n \rangle \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then for the standard Euclidean inner product $\langle x_i, x_j \rangle = x_i^T x_j$, we have

$$K = XX^T$$

SVM Dual with Kernel Matrix

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K_{ji} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\ & \alpha_i \in \left[0, \frac{C}{n}\right] \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

- Once our algorithm works with kernel matrices, we can change kernel just by changing the matrix.
- Size of matrix: $n \times n$, where n is the number of data points.
- Recall with ridge regression, we worked with $X^T X$, which is $d \times d$, where d is feature space dimension.

Some Nonlinear Kernels

Quadratic Kernel in \mathbf{R}^d

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$
- Feature space: $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{R}^D$, where $D = d + \binom{d}{2} \approx d^2/2$.
- Feature map:

$$\phi(x) = (x_1, \dots, x_d, x_1^2, \dots, x_d^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, \dots, \sqrt{2}x_ix_j, \dots, \sqrt{2}x_{d-1}x_d)^T$$

- Then for $\forall x, x' \in \mathbf{R}^d$

$$\begin{aligned}k(x, x') &= \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle \\ &= \langle x, x' \rangle + \langle x, x' \rangle^2\end{aligned}$$

- Computation for inner product with explicit mapping: $O(d^2)$
- Computation for implicit kernel calculation: $O(d)$.

Polynomial Kernel in \mathbf{R}^d

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$
- Kernel function:

$$k(x, x') = (1 + \langle x, x' \rangle)^M$$

- Corresponds to a feature map with all monomials up to degree M .
- For any M , computing the kernel has same computational cost
- Cost of explicit inner product computation grows rapidly in M .

Radial Basis Function (RBF) / Gaussian Kernel

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$. $\forall x, x' \in \mathbf{R}^d$,

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

where σ^2 is known as the bandwidth parameter.

- Does it act like a similarity score?
- Why “radial”?
- Have we departed from our “inner product of feature vector” recipe?
 - Yes and no: corresponds to an infinite dimensional feature vector
- Probably the most common nonlinear kernel.

Kernel Trick: Overview

The “Kernel Trick”

- ➊ Given a kernelized ML algorithm.
- ➋ Can swap out the inner product for a new kernel function.
- ➌ New kernel may correspond to a high dimensional feature space.
- ➍ Once kernel matrix is computed, computational cost depends on number of data points, rather than the dimension of feature space.

Swapping out a linear kernel for a new kernel is called the **kernel trick**.

Inner Product Spaces and Projections (Hilbert Spaces)

Inner Product Space (or “Pre-Hilbert” Spaces)

An **inner product space** (over reals) is a vector space \mathcal{V} and an **inner product**, which is a mapping

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

that has the following properties $\forall x, y, z \in \mathcal{V}$ and $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$:

- Symmetry: $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- Linearity: $\langle ax + by, z \rangle = a \langle x, z \rangle + b \langle y, z \rangle$
- Positive-definiteness: $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ and $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$.

Norm from Inner Product

For an inner product space, we define a norm as

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}.$$

Example

\mathbf{R}^d with standard Euclidean inner product is an inner product space:

$$\langle x, y \rangle := x^T y \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbf{R}^d.$$

Norm is

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{x^T x}.$$

What norms can we get from an inner product?

Theorem (Parallelogram Law)

A norm $\|\cdot\|$ can be written in terms of an inner product on \mathcal{V} iff $\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{V}$

$$2\|x\|^2 + 2\|x'\|^2 = \|x + x'\|^2 + \|x - x'\|^2,$$

and if it can, the inner product is given by the **polarization identity**

$$\langle x, x' \rangle = \frac{\|x\|^2 + \|x'\|^2 - \|x - x'\|^2}{2}.$$

Example

ℓ_1 norm on \mathbf{R}^d is NOT generated by an inner product. [Exercise]

Is ℓ_2 norm on \mathbf{R}^d generated by an inner product?

Pythagorean Theorem

Definition

Two vectors are **orthogonal** if $\langle x, x' \rangle = 0$. We denote this by $x \perp x'$.

Definition

x is orthogonal to a set S , i.e. $x \perp S$, if $x \perp s$ for all $s \in S$.

Theorem (Pythagorean Theorem)

If $x \perp x'$, then $\|x + x'\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|x'\|^2$.

Proof.

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\|x + x'\|^2 &= \langle x + x', x + x' \rangle \\ &= \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, x' \rangle + \langle x', x \rangle + \langle x', x' \rangle \\ &= \|x\|^2 + \|x'\|^2\end{aligned}$$

Projection onto a Plane (Rough Definition)

- Choose some $x \in \mathcal{V}$.
- Let M be a subspace of inner product space \mathcal{V} .
- Then m_0 is the **projection of x onto M** ,
 - if $m_0 \in M$ and is the closest point to x in M .
- In math: For all $m \in M$,

$$\|x - m_0\| \leq \|x - m\|.$$

Hilbert Space

- Projections exist for all finite-dimensional inner product spaces.
- We want to allow infinite-dimensional spaces.
- Need an extra condition called **completeness**.
- A space is **complete** if all Cauchy sequences in the space converge.

Definition

A **Hilbert space** is a complete inner product space.

Example

Any finite dimensional inner product space is a Hilbert space.

The Projection Theorem

Theorem (Classical Projection Theorem)

- \mathcal{H} a Hilbert space
- M a closed subspace of \mathcal{H} (picture a hyperplane through the origin)
- For any $x \in \mathcal{H}$, there **exists a unique** $m_0 \in M$ for which

$$\|x - m_0\| \leq \|x - m\| \quad \forall m \in M.$$

- This m_0 is called the **[orthogonal] projection of x onto M** .
- Furthermore, $m_0 \in M$ is the projection of x onto M iff

$$x - m_0 \perp M.$$

Projection Reduces Norm

Theorem

Let M be a closed subspace of \mathcal{H} . For any $x \in \mathcal{H}$, let $m_0 = \text{Proj}_M x$ be the projection of x onto M . Then

$$\|m_0\| \leq \|x\|,$$

with equality only when $m_0 = x$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\|x\|^2 &= \|m_0 + (x - m_0)\|^2 \text{ (note: } x - m_0 \perp m_0 \text{ by Projection theorem)} \\ &= \|m_0\|^2 + \|x - m_0\|^2 \text{ by Pythagorean theorem} \\ \|m_0\|^2 &= \|x\|^2 - \|x - m_0\|^2\end{aligned}$$

Then $\|x - m_0\|^2 \geq 0$ implies $\|m_0\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2$. If $\|x - m_0\|^2 = 0$, then $x = m_0$, by definition of norm. □

Representer Theorem

Generalize from SVM Objective

- Featurized SVM objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i [\langle w, \psi(x_i) \rangle]).$$

- Generalized objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle),$$

where

- $R: \mathbf{R}^{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is nondecreasing (**Regularization term**)
- and $L: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is arbitrary. (**Loss term**)

General Objective Function for Linear Hypothesis Space (Details)

- Generalized objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle),$$

where

- $w, \psi(x_1), \dots, \psi(x_n) \in \mathcal{H}$ for some Hilbert space \mathcal{H} . (We typically have $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{R}^d$.)
- $\|\cdot\|$ is the norm corresponding to the inner product of \mathcal{H} . (i.e. $\|w\| = \sqrt{\langle w, w \rangle}$)
- $R: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is nondecreasing (**Regularization term**), and
- $L: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is arbitrary (**Loss term**).

General Objective Function for Linear Hypothesis Space (Details)

- **Generalized objective:**

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle),$$

- What's “linear”?
- The prediction/score function $x \mapsto \langle w, \psi(x_i) \rangle$ is linear – in what?
 - in parameter vector w , and
 - in the feature vector $\psi(x_i)$.
- Why? [Real-valued] inner products are linear in each argument.
- **The important part is the linearity in the parameter w .**
- When we discuss neural networks, we'll mention a “linear network” in which prediction functions are linear in the feature vector $\psi(x)$, but nonlinear in the parameter vector w . In other words, we have something like

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle f(w), \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle f(w), \psi(x_n) \rangle),$$

for some (known) nonlinear function f . **Our discussion will not apply to this situation.**

General Objective Function for Linear Hypothesis Space (Details)

- Generalized objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle),$$

- Ridge regression and SVM are of this form.
- What if we penalize with $\lambda\|w\|_2$ instead of $\lambda\|w\|_2^2$? Yes!.
- What if we use lasso regression? No! ℓ_1 norm does not correspond to an inner product.

The Representer Theorem

Theorem (Representer Theorem)

Let

$$J(w) = R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle),$$

where

- $w, \psi(x_1), \dots, \psi(x_n) \in \mathcal{H}$ for some Hilbert space \mathcal{H} . (We typically have $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{R}^d$.)
- $\|\cdot\|$ is the norm corresponding to the inner product of \mathcal{H} . (i.e. $\|w\| = \sqrt{\langle w, w \rangle}$)
- $R: \mathbf{R}^{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is nondecreasing (**Regularization term**), and
- $L: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is arbitrary (**Loss term**).

If $J(w)$ has a minimizer, then it has a minimizer of the form $w^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$.

[If R is strictly increasing, then all minimizers have this form. (Proof in homework.)]

The Representer Theorem (Proof)

- 1 Let w^* be a minimizer.
- 2 Let $M = \text{span}(\psi(x_1), \dots, \psi(x_n))$. [the “span of the data”]
- 3 Let $w = \text{Proj}_M w^*$. So $\exists \alpha$ s.t. $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$.
- 4 Then $w^\perp := w^* - w$ is orthogonal to M .
- 5 Projections decrease norms: $\|w\| \leq \|w^*\|$.
- 6 Since R is nondecreasing, $R(\|w\|) \leq R(\|w^*\|)$.
- 7 By (4), $\langle w^*, \psi(x_i) \rangle = \langle w + w^\perp, \psi(x_i) \rangle = \langle w, \psi(x_i) \rangle$.
- 8 $L(\langle w^*, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w^*, \psi(x_n) \rangle) = L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle)$
- 9 $J(w) \leq J(w^*)$.
- 10 Therefore $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$ is also a minimizer.

Q.E.D.

Using Representer Theorem to Kernelize

Kernelized Predictions

- Consider $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$. (As representer theorem implies.)
- How do we make predictions for a given $x \in \mathcal{X}$?

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = \langle w, \psi(x) \rangle &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i), \psi(x) \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \langle \psi(x_i), \psi(x) \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(x_i, x) \end{aligned}$$

Note: $f(x)$ is a linear combination of $k(x_1, x), \dots, k(x_n, x)$, all considered as functions of x .

Kernelized Regularization

- Consider $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$.
- What does $R(\|w\|)$ look like?

$$\begin{aligned}\|w\|^2 &= \langle w, w \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i), \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \psi(x_j) \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle \psi(x_i), \psi(x_j) \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j k(x_i, x_j)\end{aligned}$$

(You should recognize the last expression as a quadratic form.)

The Kernel Matrix (a.k.a. Gram Matrix)

Definition

The **kernel matrix** or **Gram matrix** for a kernel k on a set $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is

$$K = (k(x_i, x_j))_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_1, x_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_n, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_n, x_n) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}.$$

Kernelized Regularization: Matrix Form

- Consider $w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$.
- What does $R(\|w\|)$ look like?

$$\begin{aligned}\|w\|^2 &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j k(x_i, x_j) \\ &= \alpha^T K \alpha\end{aligned}$$

- So $R(\|w\|) = R\left(\sqrt{\alpha^T K \alpha}\right)$.

Kernelized Predictions

- Write $f_\alpha(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(x, x_i)$. (Switched from $k(x_i, x)$ by symmetry of inner product.)
- Predictions on the training points have a particularly simple form:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} f_\alpha(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ f_\alpha(x_n) \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 k(x_1, x_1) + \cdots + \alpha_n k(x_1, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_1 k(x_n, x_1) + \cdots + \alpha_n k(x_n, x_n) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_1, x_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_n, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_n, x_n) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= K\alpha \end{aligned}$$

- Substituting

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \psi(x_i)$$

into generalized objective, we get

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}^n} R\left(\sqrt{\alpha^T K \alpha}\right) + L(K\alpha).$$

- No direct access to $\psi(x_i)$.
- All references are via kernel matrix K .
- This is the **kernelized objective function**.

- The SVM objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - y_i [\langle w, \psi(x_i) \rangle])_+.$$

- Kernelizing yields

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T K \alpha + \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - y_i (K \alpha)_i)_+$$

Kernelized Ridge Regression

- Ridge Regression:

$$\min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 + \lambda \|w\|^2$$

- Featurized Ridge Regression

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\langle w, \psi(x_i) \rangle - y_i)^2 + \lambda \|w\|^2$$

- Kernelized Ridge Regression

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}^n} \frac{1}{n} \|K\alpha - y\|^2 + \lambda \alpha^T K \alpha,$$

where $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$.

Prediction Functions with RBF Kernel

Radial Basis Function (RBF) / Gaussian Kernel

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$

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

where σ^2 is known as the bandwidth parameter.

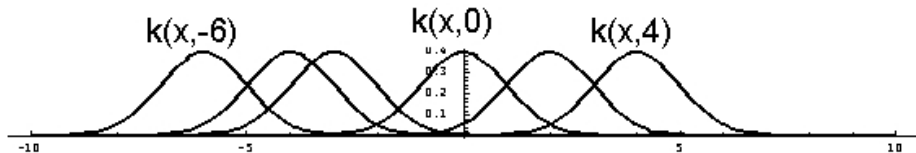
- Does it act like a similarity score?
- Why “radial”?
- Have we departed from our “inner product of feature vector” recipe?
 - Yes and no: corresponds to an infinite dimensional feature vector
- Probably the most common nonlinear kernel.

RBF Basis

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$
- Output space: $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$
- RBF kernel $k(w, x) = \exp\left(- (w - x)^2\right)$.
- Suppose we have 6 training examples: $x_i \in \{-6, -4, -3, 0, 2, 4\}$.
- If representer theorem applies, then

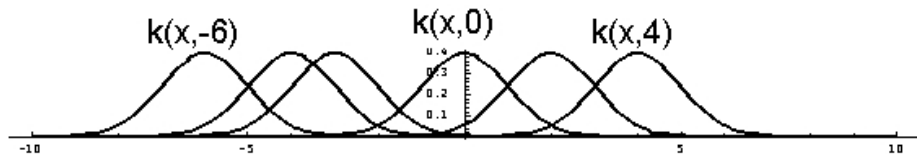
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^6 \alpha_i k(x_i, x).$$

- f is a linear combination of 6 basis functions of form $k(x_i, \cdot)$:

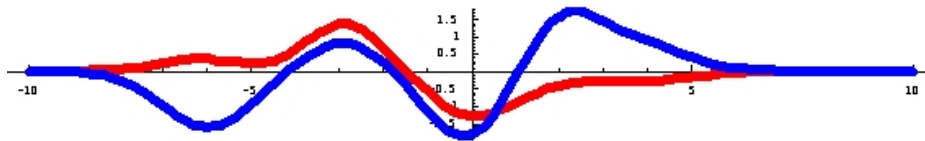


RBF Predictions

- Basis functions



- Predictions of the form $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^6 \alpha_i k(x_i, x)$:



- When kernelizing with RBF kernel, prediction functions always look this way.
- (Whether we get w from SVM, ridge regression, etc...)

RBF Feature Space: The Sequence Space ℓ_2

- To work with infinite dimensional feature vectors, we need a space with certain properties.
 - an inner product
 - a norm related to the inner product
 - projection theorem: $x = x_{\perp} + x_{\parallel}$ where $x_{\parallel} \in S = \text{span}(w_1, \dots, w_n)$ and $\langle x_{\perp}, s \rangle = 0 \quad \forall s \in S$.
- Basically, we need a Hilbert space.

Definition

ℓ_2 is the space of all real-valued sequences: $(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$ with $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2 < \infty$.

Theorem

*With the inner product $\langle x, x' \rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i x'_i$, ℓ_2 is a **Hilbert space**.*

The Infinite Dimensional Feature Vector for RBF

- Consider RBF kernel (1-dim): $k(x, x') = \exp\left(-(x - x')^2 / 2\right)$
- We claim that $\psi : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \ell_2$ defined by

$$[\psi(x)]_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} e^{-x^2/2} x^n$$

gives the “infinite-dimensional feature vector” corresponding to RBF kernel.

- Is this mapping even well-defined? Is $\psi(x)$ even an element of ℓ_2 ?
- Yes:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} e^{-x^2} x^{2n} = e^{-x^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x^2)^n}{n!} = 1 < \infty$$

The Infinite Dimensional Feature Vector for RBF

- Does feature vector $[\psi(x)]_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} e^{-x^2/2} x^n$ actually correspond to the RBF kernel?
- Yes! Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} e^{-(x^2 + (x')^2)/2} x^n (x')^n \\ &= e^{-(x^2 + (x')^2)/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(xx')^n}{n!} \\ &= \exp\left(-\left[x^2 + (x')^2\right]/2\right) \exp(xx') \\ &= \exp\left(-\left[(x - x')^2/2\right]\right)\end{aligned}$$

QED

When is $k(x, x')$ a kernel function? (Mercer's Theorem)

How to Get Kernels?

- 1 Explicitly construct $\psi(x) : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$ and define $k(x, x') = \psi(x)^T \psi(x')$.
- 2 Directly define the kernel function $k(x, x')$, and verify it corresponds to $\langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle$ for some ψ .

There are many theorems to help us with the second approach

Positive Semidefinite Matrices

Definition

A real, symmetric matrix $M \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is **positive semidefinite (psd)** if for any $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$,

$$x^T M x \geq 0.$$

Theorem

The following conditions are each necessary and sufficient for M to be positive semidefinite:

- *M has a “square root”, i.e. there exists R s.t. $M = R^T R$.*
- *All eigenvalues of M are greater than or equal to 0.*

Positive Semidefinite Function

Definition

A symmetric kernel function $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is **positive semidefinite (psd)** if for any finite set $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \in \mathcal{X}$, the kernel matrix on this set

$$K = (k(x_i, x_j))_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_1, x_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_n, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_n, x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

is a positive semidefinite matrix.

Mercer's Theorem

Theorem

A symmetric function $k(x, x')$ can be expressed as an inner product

$$k(x, x') = \langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle$$

*for some ψ if and only if $k(x, x')$ is **positive semidefinite**.*

Generating New Kernels from Old

- Suppose $k, k_1, k_2 : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ are psd kernels. Then so are the following:

$$k_{\text{new}}(x, x') = k_1(x, x') + k_2(x, x')$$

$$k_{\text{new}}(x, x') = \alpha k(x, x')$$

$$k_{\text{new}}(x, x') = f(x)f(x') \text{ for any function } f(\cdot)$$

$$k_{\text{new}}(x, x') = k_1(x, x')k_2(x, x')$$

- See Appendix for details.
- Lots more theorems to help you construct new kernels from old...

Details on New Kernels from Old

- Suppose k_1 and k_2 are psd kernels with feature maps ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 , respectively.
- Then

$$k_1(x, x') + k_2(x, x')$$

is a psd kernel.

- Proof: Concatenate the feature vectors to get

$$\phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x)).$$

Then ϕ is a feature map for $k_1 + k_2$.

Closure under Positive Scaling

- Suppose k is a psd kernel with feature maps ϕ .
- Then for any $\alpha > 0$,

$$\alpha k$$

is a psd kernel.

- Proof: Note that

$$\phi(x) = \sqrt{\alpha}\phi(x)$$

is a feature map for αk .

Scalar Function Gives a Kernel

- For any function $f(x)$,

$$k(x, x') = f(x)f(x')$$

is a kernel.

- Proof: Let $f(x)$ be the feature mapping. (It maps into a 1-dimensional feature space.)

$$\langle f(x), f(x') \rangle = f(x)f(x') = k(x, x').$$

Closure under Hadamard Products

- Suppose k_1 and k_2 are psd kernels with feature maps ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 , respectively.
- Then

$$k_1(x, x') k_2(x, x')$$

is a psd kernel.

- Proof: Take the outer product of the feature vectors:

$$\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) [\phi_2(x)]^T.$$

Note that $\phi(x)$ is a matrix.

- Continued...

Closure under Hadamard Products

- Then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle &= \sum_{ij} \phi(x) \phi(x') \\&= \sum_{ij} \left[\phi_1(x) [\phi_2(x)]^T \right]_{ij} \left[\phi_1(x') [\phi_2(x')]^T \right]_{ij} \\&= \sum_{ij} [\phi_1(x)]_i [\phi_2(x)]_j [\phi_1(x')]_i [\phi_2(x')]_j \\&= \left(\sum_i [\phi_1(x)]_i [\phi_1(x')]_i \right) \left(\sum_j [\phi_2(x)]_j [\phi_2(x')]_j \right) \\&= k_1(x, x') k_2(x, x')\end{aligned}$$