# Kernel Methods

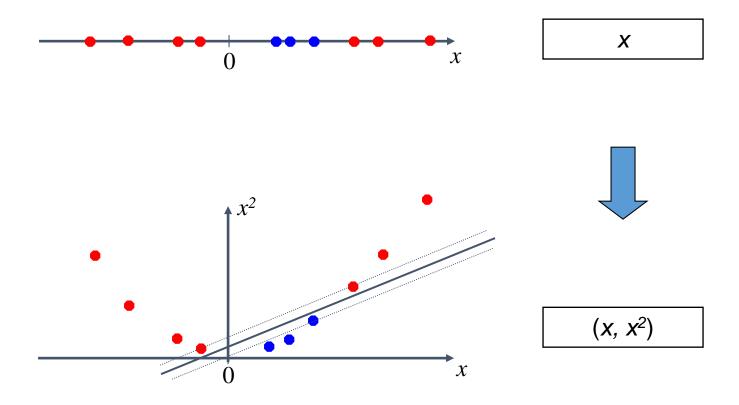
CS534

#### **Key concepts:**

Feature mapping to address non-linear separability Kernel trick to avoid explicit feature mapping Definition of Kernel functions Kernelized perceptron

Kernelized linear regression with L2 regularization

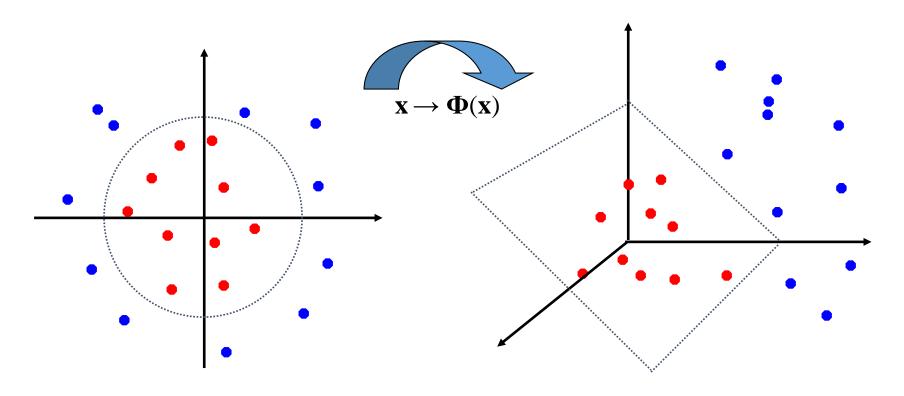
#### Nonlinearly separable data



Mapping the data to a higher dimensional space can introduce linear separability for data not linearly separable in the original space

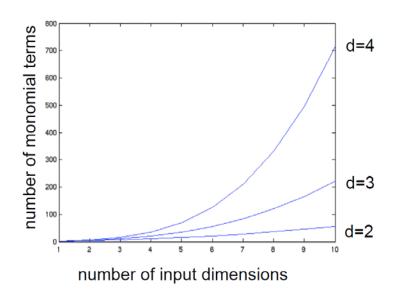
#### Non-linear classifier via feature mapping

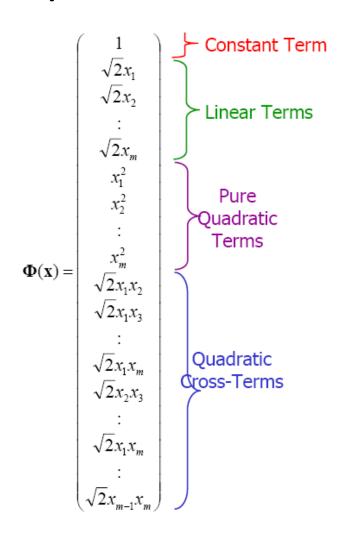
 General idea: For <u>any</u> data set, the *original input space* can always be mapped to some higher-dimensional **feature spaces** such that the data is linearly separable:



#### Example: Quadratic Feature Space

- Assume *m* input dimensions  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$
- Number of quadratic terms:
- 1+m+m+m(m-1)/2  $\approx O(m^2)$
- What if we want to consider even higher order features?
  - For cubic feature space:  $O(m^3)$
  - The number of dimensions after mapping increase rapidly with increasing order d





## Revisiting perceptron

Given current weight  $w_t$ , predict for x by:  $\hat{y}(x) = sign(w_t \cdot x)$ If mistake at time t, update the weight:

$$w_{t+1} = w_t + y_t x_t$$

If remember all the mistakes made up to t in  $s_t$ , we have:

$$w_t = \sum_{i \in S_t} y_i x_i$$

The prediction rule now becomes:

$$\hat{y}(x) = sign(\sum_{i \in S_t} y_i x_i \cdot x)$$

Now data is mapped to higher dimension:

$$\hat{y}(x) = sign\left(\sum_{i \in S_t} y_i \phi(x_i) \cdot \phi(x)\right)$$

#### Dot product in the Quadratic Feature Space

Explicit mapping takes  $O(m^2)$  time

Explicit mapping takes 
$$O(m^2)$$
 time
$$\Phi(\mathbf{a}) \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{b}) = \begin{pmatrix}
1 \\ \sqrt{2}a_1 \\ \sqrt{2}a_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_m \\ a_i^2 \\ a_i^2 \\ a_i^2 \\ a_i^2 \\ a_i^2 \\ a_i^2 \\ b_i^2 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_2 \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_3 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_m \\ \sqrt{2}a_2a_3 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}a_1a_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}b_nb_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}b_mb_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}b_mb_mb_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}b_mb_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}b_mb_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}b_mb_m \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{2}$$

 $\kappa(a,b) = (a \cdot b + 1)^2$  computes the dot product in quadratic space in O(m) time

#### Kernel functions: the kernel trick

- **Definition:** A function  $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$  is called a <u>kernel function</u> if  $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle$  for some mapping function  $\phi$
- **Implication**: we can simply replace any occurrences of dot product  $\langle \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}' \rangle$  with a kernel function  $\kappa$  that computes  $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle$
- **Implication**: we do not need to explicitly compute the mapping of the features --- significant computational savings
- For example, to compute the dot product in the quadratic space:
  - With the quadratic kernel function: O(m)
  - With explicit mapping:  $O(m^2)$

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The prediction rule now becomes:

$$\hat{y}(x) = sign(\sum_{i \in S_t} y_i x_i \cdot x)$$

Now data is mapped to higher dimension:

$$\hat{y}(x) = sign\left(\sum_{i \in S_t} y_i \phi(x_i) \cdot \phi(x)\right) = sign\left(\sum_{i \in S_t} y_i K(x_i, x)\right)$$

## Kernelizing perceptron

```
Let \mathbf{w} \leftarrow (0,0,...,0)

Repeat if iter \leq iters

for every training example m=1,...,n

u_m = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_m

if y_m u_m \leq 0 \quad \mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_m \mathbf{x}_m

iter = iter + 1
```

Remembering all mistakes in *s* 

```
S = [] //list of mistaken examples Repeat if iter \leq iters for every training example m = 1, ..., n u_m = \sum_{i \in S} y_i \kappa(x_i, x_m) if y_m u_m \leq 0 add m to S iter = iter + 1
```

## Kernelizing perceptron

```
S = [] // \text{list of mistaken examples} Repeat if iter \leq iters for every training example m = 1, ..., n u_m = \sum_{i \in S} y_i \kappa(x_i, x_m) if y_m u_m \leq 0 add m \text{ to } S iter = iter + 1
```

More efficiently, count for each example the number of times it gets misclassified.

```
Let \alpha_i = 0 \ \forall i = 1, ..., n

Repeat if iter \leq iters

for every training example m = 1, ..., n

u_m = \sum_{i=1 \ to \ n} \alpha_i y_i \kappa(x_i, x_m)
\text{if } y_m u_m \leq 0 \qquad \alpha_m \leftarrow \alpha_m + 1
iter = iter + 1
```

#### What functions are kernels?

- A kernel function can be intuitively viewed as computing some similarity measure between examples
- ullet In practice, we directly use the kernel functions without explicitly stating the transformation  $\phi$
- Given a kernel function, finding its corresponding transformation can be very cumbersome or impossible
  - RBF kernel's mapped space has infinite dimensions
- Not all functions are kernels
  - ullet For some functions there does not exist a corresponding mapping  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$
- If you have a good similarity measure, can we use it as a kernel?

#### Kernel function or not

 Consider a finite set of m points, we define the kernel (Gram) marix as

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} \kappa(x^{1}, x^{1}) & \kappa(x^{1}, x^{2}) & \dots & \kappa(x^{1}, x^{m}) \\ \kappa(x^{2}, x^{1}) & \kappa(x^{2}, x^{2}) & \dots & \kappa(x^{2}, x^{m}) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \kappa(x^{m}, x^{1}) & \kappa(x^{m}, x^{2}) & \dots & \kappa(x^{m}, x^{m}) \end{bmatrix}_{mxm}$$

- Kernel matrices are square and symmetric
- Mercer theorem:

A function K is a kernel function iff for any finite sample  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_m$ , its corresponding kernel matrix is positive semi-definite (has non-negative eigenvalues)

# Closure property of kernels

If  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are kernel functions, then the following are all kernel functions:

- $K(x,y) = K_1(x,y) + K_2(x,y)$ 
  - $\bullet \ \phi = \phi_1 + \phi_2$
- $K(x, y) = aK_1(x, y)$ , where a > 0
  - $\phi = \sqrt{a}\phi_1$
- $\bullet \ K(x,y) = K_1(x,y)K_2(x,y)$ 
  - If  $\phi_1$  has  $N_1$  features and  $\phi_2$  has  $N_2$  features
  - $\phi$  will have  $N_1 \times N_2$  features:  $\phi_{ij} = \phi_{1i} \cdot \phi_{2j}$

## Key Choices in Applying Kernel

- Selecting the kernel function
  - In practice, we often try different kernel functions and use (cross-) validation to choose
  - Linear kernel, polynomial kernels (with low degrees) and RBF kernels are popular choices
  - One can also construct a kernel using linear combinations of different kernels and learn the combination parameters (kernel learning)
  - There are many kernel functions defined for non-traditional data, e.g., graph kernel, set kernel, string kernel etc.
- Selecting the kernel parameter
  - Very strong impact on performance
  - Often the optimal range is reasonably large
  - Grid search with (cross-)validation

## Revisiting linear regression

Consider the L2 regularized linear regression

$$\max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

where  $\mathbf{X}$  is the data matrix, each row contains the features of one training example

y is the vector of ground truth predictions for all training examples

Closed form solution:

$$\mathbf{w} = (\lambda \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

where *I* is the identity matrix

• w lies in the space spanned by the training examples, i.e.,  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i$ 

## Kernelizing linear regression

#### Learned Function:

- Original:  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$
- Kernelized:  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \alpha_i \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})$  (by plugging in  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i$  and replace dot product with kernel function)

#### • Objective:

- Original:  $\frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{y} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}||^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$
- Kernelized:  $\frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{y} \boldsymbol{\alpha}K||^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T K \boldsymbol{\alpha}$

This is referred to as the dual of the original optimization problem

K is the kernel (gram) matrix of the training data

Closed form solution:

$$\alpha = (K + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

# General application of Kernel methods

- Many learning tasks are framed as optimization problems and their solutions are some weighted sum of the input training examples
- By explicitly formulating the optimization in the space of the weights, we arrive at the so called "dual formulation" of the optimization problems
- The dual problem is often expressed in terms of the dot product between examples
- The kernel trick can be applied by replacing dot product with kernel functions.
- This allows the use of high dimensional feature spaces without having to pay the price of working with the high dimensional features