#### Kernel Methods

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Bring in the feature map to kernelization

## A kernelized objective

• Previously, we took the following optimization problem:

$$w^* \in \underset{w \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, x_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle w, x_n \rangle)$$

and kernelized it as

$$\alpha^* \in \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}^n} R\left(\sqrt{\alpha^T K \alpha}\right) + L(K \alpha),$$

where

$$K = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x_1, x_1 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_1, x_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \cdots \\ \langle x_n, x_1 \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_n, x_n \rangle \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad k_x = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x_1, x \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x_n, x \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

- But computing K and  $k_x$  can be computationally hard for large feature spaces.
- To address this issue, we'll take a step back, and explicitly talk about feature maps.

# The Input Space $\mathfrak X$

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

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ x \mapsto w^T x + b \mid w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

• What if we want to do prediction on inputs not natively in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ?

# Linear Models with Explicit Feature Map

- ullet Input space:  $\chi$
- Feature space:  $\mathcal{H}$  (a Hilbert space, i.e. an inner product space with projections, e.g.  $\mathsf{R}^d$ )
- Feature map:  $\psi : \mathfrak{X} \to \mathfrak{H}$
- Hypothesis space of affine functions on feature space:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{x \mapsto \langle w, \psi(x) \rangle + b \mid w \in \mathcal{H}, b \in \mathbf{R}\}.$$

## Kernelized objective with feature map

Optimization problem with explicit feature map:

$$w^* \in \underset{w \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} R(\|w\|) + L(\langle w, \psi(x_1) \rangle, \dots, \langle w, \psi(x_n) \rangle)$$

and kernelized it as

$$\alpha^* \in \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}^n} R\left(\sqrt{\alpha^T K \alpha}\right) + L(K \alpha),$$

where

$$K = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \psi(x_1), \psi(x_1) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \psi(x_1), \psi(x_n) \rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \cdots \\ \langle \psi(x_n), \psi(x_1) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \psi(x_n), \psi(x_n) \rangle \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad k_x = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \psi(x_1), \psi(x) \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle \psi(x_n), \psi(x) \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

The Kernel Function

#### The Kernel Function

- $\bullet \ \, \textbf{Input space} \colon \, \mathfrak{X}$
- Feature space:  $\mathcal{H}$  (a Hilbert space, i.e. an inner product space with projections, e.g.  $R^d$ )
- Feature map:  $\psi: \mathfrak{X} \to \mathcal{H}$
- The kernel function corresponding to  $\psi$  in  $\mathcal H$  is

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

where  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is the inner product associated with  $\mathcal{H}$ .

# The Kernel Function: Why do we need this?

- Feature map:  $\psi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{H}$
- The kernel function corresponding to  $\psi$  is

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

- Why introduce this new notation k(x,x')?
- We can often evaluate k(x,x') 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  $x = (x_1, ..., x_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

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

has dimension  $O(d^2)$ , but for any  $x, x' \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and the standard Euclidean dot products,

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

- 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 kernel functions that correspond to inner products in some feature space.
- These are called Mercer kernels.

### What are the Benefits of Kernelization?

- Computational (when optimizing over  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is better than over  $\mathbb{R}^d$ )).
- $oldsymbol{\circ}$  Can sometimes avoid any O(d) operations
  - allows access to infinite-dimensional feature spaces.
- 4 Allows thinking in terms of "similarity" rather than features.

#### The Kernel Matrix

#### Definition

The **kernel matrix** for a kernel k on  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$  is

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

- In ML this is also called a **Gram matrix**, but traditionally (in linear algebra),
  - Gram matrices are defined without reference to a kernel or feature map.

### The Kernel Matrix

- The kernel matrix summarizes all the information we need about the training inputs  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  to solve a kernelized optimization problem.
- e.g. in the kernelized SVM, we can replace  $\psi(x_i)^T \psi(x_j)$  with  $K_{ij}$ :

$$\sup_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} K_{ij}$$
s.t. 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_{i} \in \left[0, \frac{c}{n}\right] \ i = 1, \dots, n.$$

### The "Kernel Trick"

- Given a kernelized ML algorithm (i.e. all  $\psi(x)$ 's show up as  $\langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle$ ).
- 2 Can swap out the inner product for a new kernel function.
- New kernel may correspond to a very high-dimensional feature space.
- Once the kernel matrix is computed, the computational cost depends on number of data points, rather than the dimension of feature space.

The **trick** is that once you've implemented your method in terms of a kernel matrix, you can go from a kernel corresponding to a very small feature vector to a kernel corresponding to a very large (even infinite dimensional) feature vector, without changing your code, just by swapping one kernel matrix for another. Runtime is unaffected, after the kernel matrix is computed.

# The Kernel Trick(s)

- Given a kernelized ML algorithm (i.e. all  $\psi(x)$ 's show up as  $\langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle$ ).
- ② Can write training function to depend on x's only through kernel matrix:
  - kernelized\_train(kernel\_matrix K, training\_labels y)
- One "kernel trick" is that whether the kernel corresponds to a small feature vector, a very large feature vector, or even an infinite dimensional feature vector (to be discussed), the training code and training time remain the same (once the kernel matrix is computed).
- Another "kernel trick" is that often we can compute the entries of the kernel matrix without the computational cost of explicitly working in the feature space.

Kernels

# Choose a kernel instead of choosing a feature map

- Once a method is kernelized, we can effectively change the feature map by changing the kernel function.
- This will allow us to run linear methods with kernels that correspond to infinite dimensional feature maps.
- Below we discuss the most commonly used kernels.

#### Linear Kernel

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

$$\psi(x) = x$$

• Kernel:

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

# Quadratic Kernel in R<sup>d</sup>

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

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

• Then for  $\forall x, x' \in \mathbb{R}^d$ 

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

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

Based on Guillaume Obozinski's Statistical Machine Learning course at Louvain, Feb 2014.

# Polynomial Kernel in $\mathbf{R}^d$

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

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

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

The RBF Kernel

# Radial Basis Function (RBF) / Gaussian Kernel

• Input space  $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$ 

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

where  $\sigma^2$  is known as the bandwidth parameter.

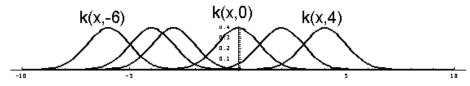
- Does it act like a similarity score?
- Why "radial"?
- Have we departed from our "inner product of feature vector" recipe?
  - Yes and no: corresponds to an infinite dimensional feature vector
- Probably the most common nonlinear kernel.

#### **RBF** Basis

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

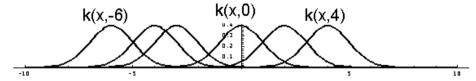
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \alpha_i k(x_i, x).$$

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

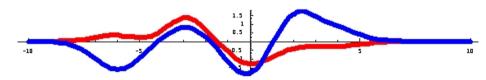


### **RBF** Predictions

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 $\ell_2$

- 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  $\langle x_{\perp}, s \rangle = 0$   $\forall s \in S$ .
- Basically, we need a Hilbert space.

#### **Definition**

 $\ell_2$  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  $\langle x, x' \rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i x_i'$ ,  $\ell_2$  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  $\psi: R \to \ell_2$ , defined by

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

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

- Is this mapping even well-defined? Is  $\psi(x)$  even an element of  $\ell_2$ ?
- Yes:

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

.

## The Infinite Dimensional Feature Vector for RBF

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

$$\langle \psi(x), \psi(x') \rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} e^{-(x^2 + (x')^2)/2} x^j (x')^j$$

$$= e^{-(x^2 + (x')^2)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(xx')^j}{j!}$$

$$= \exp\left(-\left[x^2 + (x')^2\right]/2\right) \exp(xx')$$

$$= \exp\left(-\left[(x - x')^2/2\right]\right)$$

QED

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

#### How to Get Kernels?

- Explicitly construct  $\psi(x): \mathcal{X} \to \mathbf{R}^d$  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  $\psi$ .

There are many theorems to help us with the second approach

#### Positive Semidefinite Matrices

#### Definition

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

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

#### Theorem

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

- M has can be factorized as  $M = R^T R$ , for some matrix R.
- All eigenvalues of M are greater than or equal to 0.

#### Positive Semidefinite Function

#### Definition

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

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

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  $\psi$  if and only if k(x,x') is **positive semidefinite**.

# Generating New Kernels from Old

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

$$\begin{array}{lcl} k_{\mathsf{new}}(x,x') & = & k_1(x,x') + k_2(x,x') \\ k_{\mathsf{new}}(x,x') & = & \alpha k(x,x') \\ k_{\mathsf{new}}(x,x') & = & f(x)f(x') \text{ for any function } f(\cdot) \\ k_{\mathsf{new}}(x,x') & = & k_1(x,x')k_2(x,x') \end{array}$$

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

Details on New Kernels from Old [Optional]

### Additive Closure

- Suppose  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are psd kernels with feature maps  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ , 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  $\phi$  is a feature map for  $k_1 + k_2$ .

# Closure under Positive Scaling

- Suppose k is a psd kernel with feature maps  $\phi$ .
- 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  $\alpha k$ .

### 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  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ , respectively.
- Then

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

is a psd kernel.

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

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

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

Continued...

### Closure under Hadamard Products

Then

$$\begin{split} \left\langle \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{x}') \right\rangle &= \sum_{i,j} \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{x}') \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}) \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]^{T} \right]_{ij} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}') \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}') \right]^{T} \right]_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]_{i} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]_{j} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}') \right]_{i} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}') \right]_{j} \\ &= \left( \sum_{i} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]_{i} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}') \right]_{i} \right) \left( \sum_{j} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]_{j} \left[ \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}') \right]_{j} \right) \\ &= k_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') k_{2}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') \end{split}$$