Kernel Methods

Machine Learning

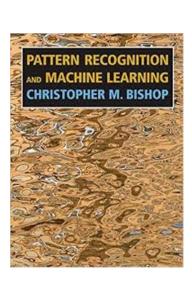
Daniele Loiacono



Outline and References

- Outline
 - ▶ Introduction [PRML 6]
 - Kernel Ridge Regression [PRML 6.1]
 - Kernel Design [PRML 6.2]
 - Kernel Regression [PRML 6.3, 2.5.1]
 - ► Gaussian Processes [PRML 6.4]

- References
 - ▶ This slides are based on material of prof. Marcello Restelli
 - ▶ Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, Bishop [PRML]

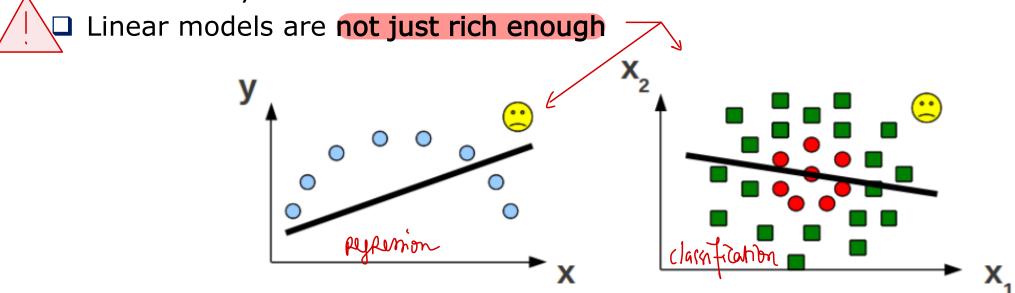


Introduction to Kernel Methods

"extrusion of what we saw in these regression, & these damfication"

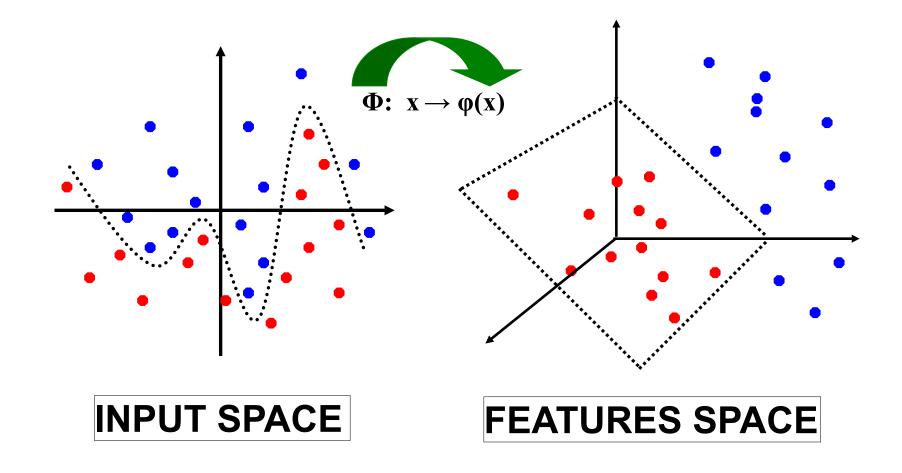
Feature Mapping

- ☐ Often we want to capture nonlinear patterns in the data
 - ▶ Nonlinear Regression: input-output relationship may not be linear
 - Nonlinear Classification: Classes may not be separable by a linear boundary



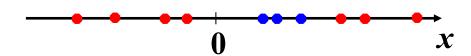
■ Kernel methods allow to make linear models work in nonlinear settings by mapping data to higher dimensions where it exhibits linear patterns

Feature Mapping (2)

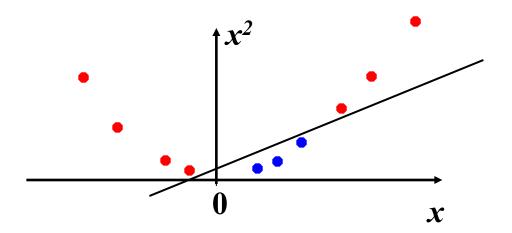


Example: 1D Binary Classification

☐ Let consider this binary classification problem for which **no linear separator** exists:



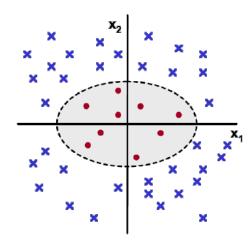
- Now let map the input space (single variable x) to a feature space with **two** features: $x \to \{x, x^2\}$
- □ Data is now linear separable:



Example: 2D Binary Classification

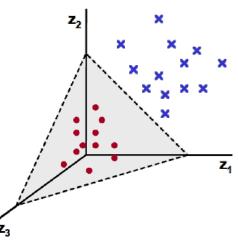
☐ Let consider the following binary classification problem for which no linear

separator exists in the input space $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, x_2\}$



☐ We can make data linearly separable by mapping the input space to a suitable

feature space: $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, x_2\} \rightarrow \mathbf{z} = \{x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2\}$



Why kernel methods?

 \Box Let consider a quadratic mapping for a problem with M input variables:

$$\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_M\} \rightarrow \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \{x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots, x_M^2, x_1 x_2, x_2 x_3, \dots, x_1 x_M, \dots, x_{M-1} x_M\}$$

The dimension of my office will explode very quickly!

□ Curse of dimensionality! The number of features grows significantly with the number of input variable and the mapping become quickly computationally unfeasible



- ☐ Kernels methods deal with this issue:
 - they don't require to explicitly compute the feature mapping
 - they are expensive but computationally feasible

different mathematical / technique ...

Kernel Functions

The kernel function is defined as the scalar product between the feature vectors of two data samples:

$$k(x,x') = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}')$$
 | Scalar product to one high dimensional feature space.

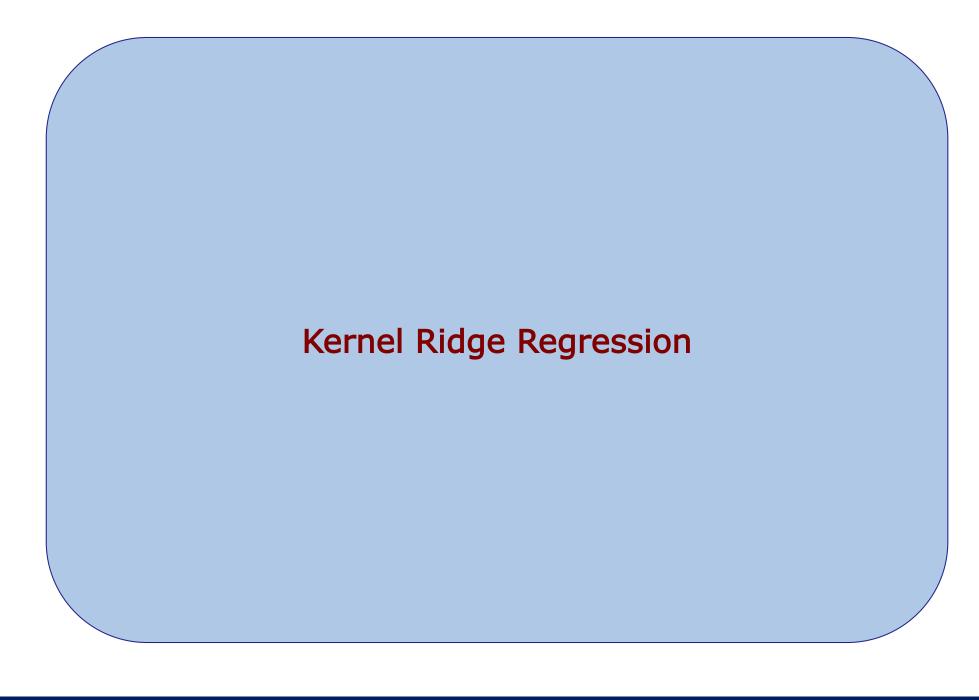
- By def: \blacktriangleright Kernel function is symmetric: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x})$
- We'll prove \longrightarrow Kernel function can be interpreted as a <u>similarity measure</u> between x and x'
 - Very large feature vectors (even non finite ones) might result in an easy to compute kernel function \longrightarrow In fact we den't need to compute $\phi(x) \not\in \phi(x')$ to compute $\psi(x) \not\in \phi(x')$.
 - Special class of kernels
 - ▶ Stationary kernels: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}')$
 - ▶ Homogeneous kernels (or radial basis functions): $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}'||)$

Kernel Trick

- What kernel function is used for?
 - It is possible to rework the representation of linear models to replace all the terms that involve $\phi(x)$ with other terms that involve only $k(x,\cdot)$
 - ▶ In other words, the output of linear model can be computed only on the basis of the similarities between data samples (computed with the kernel function)
- ☐ This approach, called **kernel trick**, is used in several learning algorithm
 - ▶ Ridge Regression
 - ► K-NN Regression
 - Perceptron
 - ► (Nonlinear) PCA
 - Support Vector Machines
 - **>** ...

Kernel Trick

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 - Perceptron
 - ► (Nonlinear) PCA
 - ► Gaussian Processes (Bayesian Linear Regulession)
 - Support Vector Machines
 - **>** . . .



Dual Representation

☐ Let's go back to the loss function used for the ridge regression:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathbf{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_{n}) - t_{n} \right)^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w})^{T} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{w}$$
Regularization [.]

 \square To solve it, we set to zero the gradient of L with respect to \mathbf{w} :

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \lambda \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{\Phi}^T \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w} \right) = 0$$

■ Now, instead of solving it for w, let do a variable change:

$$\mathbf{a} = \lambda^{-1} \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\Phi}^T \lambda^{-1} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a}$$

We don't want to follow this path today! Indeed we don't want to compute ϕ make in because it would mean computing $\phi(x)$, $\forall x \in Datas \in T$. $\to Too expensive$.



Now we can replace w in the gradient:

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \lambda \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{\Phi}^T (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w}) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T \left(\lambda \mathbf{a} - \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a} \right) \right) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T \left(\lambda \mathbf{a} - \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a} \right) \right) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\Phi}^T \left(\mathbf{v}_{\lambda} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T \left(\lambda \mathbf{a} - \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a} \right) \right) = 0$$

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$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T \left(\lambda \mathbf{a} - \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a} \right) \right) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{\Phi}^T\mathbf{a} + \lambda\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{t} \longrightarrow (\phi\phi^T + \lambda \mathbf{I})\alpha = \mathbf{t}$$

$$\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{t}$$

 $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a}$

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T$$

Gram Matrix and Kernel Function

□ The **Gram matrix** is a NxN matrix, where each element is the inner product between the feature vectors:

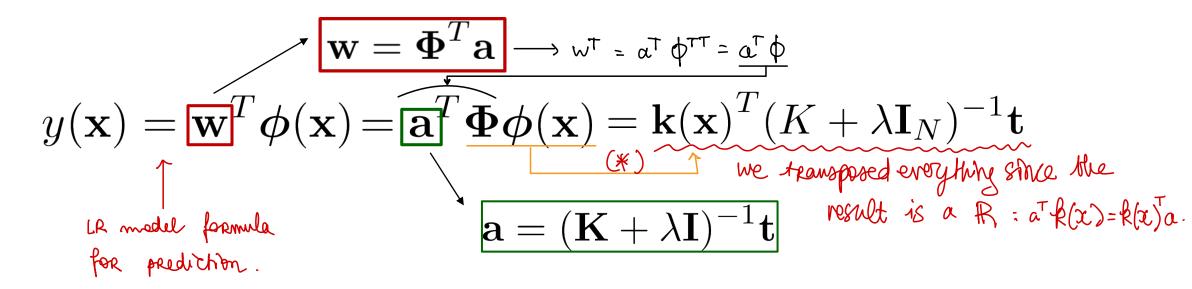
we didn't have to compute the
$$K = \begin{bmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_M) \stackrel{\text{Recall}}{=} k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) = \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_m)$$

K matrix represents the similarities between each pair of samples in the training data

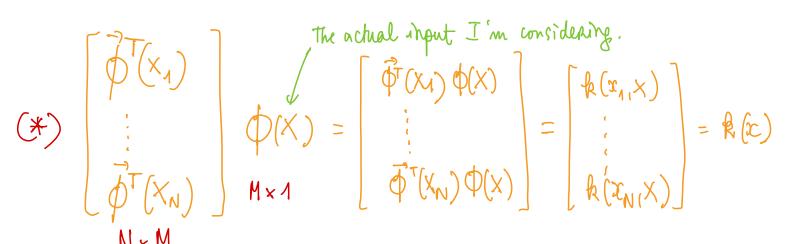
Prediction Function

■ How can we compute the prediction using the dual representation?





$$(*) \begin{bmatrix} \overrightarrow{p}^{T}(X_{1}) \\ \overrightarrow{p}^{T}(X_{N}) \\ N \times M \end{bmatrix}$$



Prediction Function

It's way less expensive to compute K, k(z;, zj), etc. than

■ How can we compute the prediction using the dual representation?

How can we compute the prediction using the dual representation?
$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x})^T (K + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{t}$$

$$\mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x})^T (K + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{t}$$

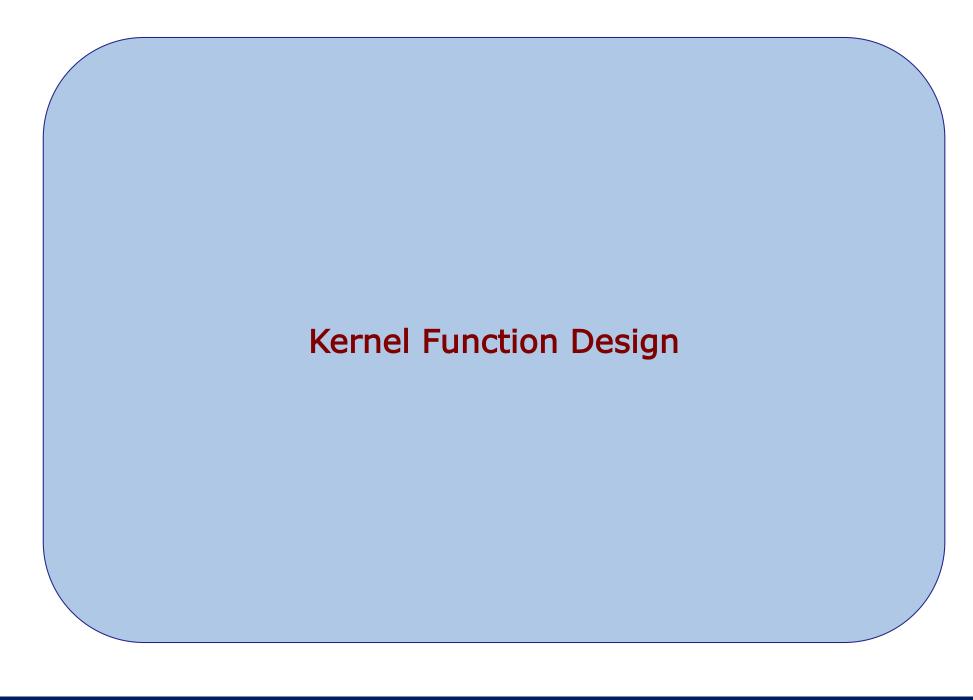
$$\mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x})$$

- ▶ Where k(x) is such that $k_n(x) = k(x_n, x) \forall x_n \in \mathcal{D}$ _
- Accordingly the prediction is computed as the linear combination of the target values of the samples in the training set

Here: non-portunethir type of model since I don't choose the amount of parameters that I have, it's the data that determine it.

Original vs Dual Representation?

- Original representation
 - ▶ Requires to compute the inverse of $(\Phi^T \Phi + \lambda I_M)$ which is a $M \times M$ matrix
 - ▶ Is computationally convenient when *M* is rather small
- Dual representation
 - ▶ Requires to compute the inverse of $(K + \lambda I_N)$ which is a NxN matrix
 - ▶ Is computationally convenient when *M* is very large or even infinite
 - ▶ Does not require to explicitly compute Φ , making it possible to apply this approach also to complex type of data (e.g., graphs, sets, strings, text, etc.)
 - The similarity between data samples (i.e., the kernel function) is generally both less expensive to compute and easy to design than computing Φ



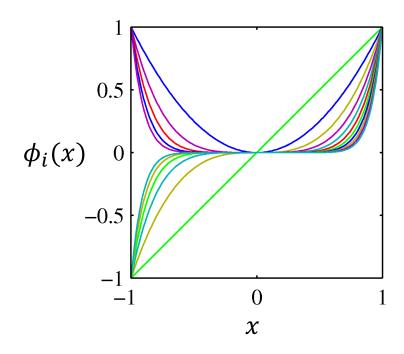
Design of Kernels

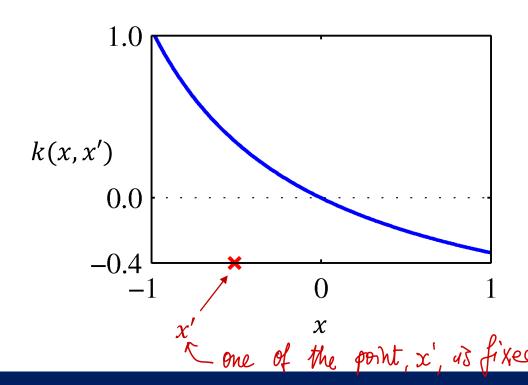
DEF:

☐ We defined the kernel function as the dot product in the feature space:

$$k(x, x') = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}') = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \phi_i(\mathbf{x}) \phi_i(\mathbf{x}')$$

■ Examples (1D input space)



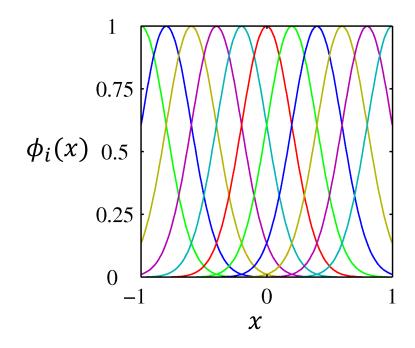


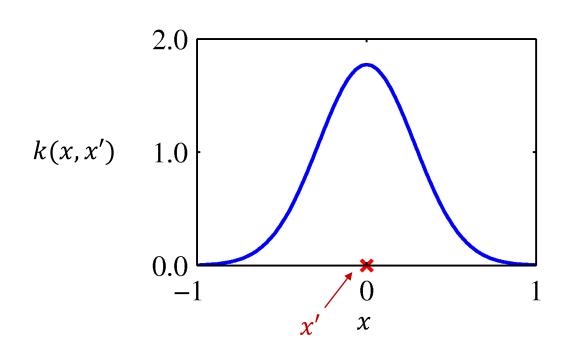
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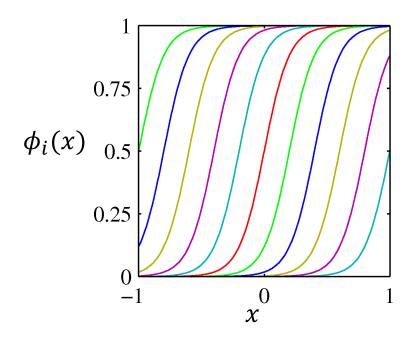


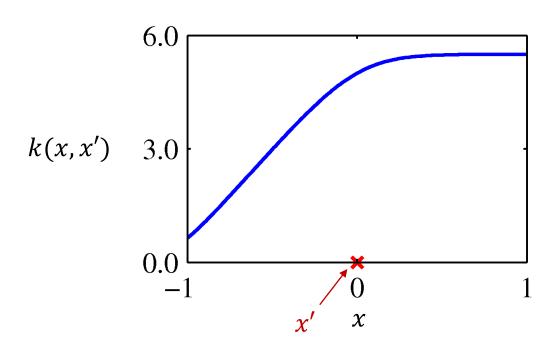
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■ Examples (1D input space)





Design of Kernels: alternative methods

- We do not necessarily have to compute the kernel function starting from the feature space, as we do not want to explicitly compute the feature vectors
- ☐ There are two major alternatives to design a kernel function:
 - ✓ Directly design the kernel functions from scratch
 - -2 ► Design from existing kernel functions by applying a set of rules
- ☐ In general, we must make sure that the designed kernel functions is **valid**, that is it correspond to a scalar product into any feature space
- Mercer Theorem: Any continuous, symmetric, positive semi-definite kernel function k(x, x') can be expressed as a dot product in a high-dimensional space
 - ▶ Necessary and sufficient condition for a function $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ to be a valid kernel is that Gram matrix K is positive semi-definite for all possible choice of $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_i\}$
 - ▶ It means $\mathbf{x}^T K \mathbf{x} > 0$ for any non zero real vector \mathbf{x} , i.e., $\sum_i \sum_j K_{ij} x_i x_j$ for any real numbers x_i and x_j

Kernel direct design: an example

- \Box Let consider the following kernel function: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2$
- ☐ Is it a valid kernel function?
- ☐ Let check it in a two dimensional space:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2 = (x_1 x_1' + x_2 x_2')^2 = x_1^2 x_1'^2 + 2x_1 x_1' x_2 x_2' + x_2^2 x_2'^2$$
$$= (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2, x_2^2) (x_1'^2, \sqrt{2}x_1' x_2', x_2'^2)^T = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

- ▶ It does correspond to the scalar product in a feature space with only second order terms (also notice that is less computationally expensive to compute)
- \Box To get also constant and linear terms, we can define $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^2$
- \Box To get all the terms up to degree z, we can define $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + c)^z$

Rules to design valid kernels

From valid kernels, how to generate other valid kernels?

- \Box Given valid kernels $k_1(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')$ and $k_2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')$ the following rules can be applied to design a new valid kernel:
- 1. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = ck_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$, where c > 0 is a constant
- 2. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = f(\mathbf{x})k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')f(\mathbf{x}')$, where $f(\cdot)$ is any function
- 3. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = q(k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$, where $q(\cdot)$ is a polynomial with non-negative coefficients
- 4. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = exp(k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$
- 5. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') + k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$
- 6. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$
- 7. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k_3(\phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}'))$, where $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ maps \mathbf{x} to \mathbb{R}^M and $k_3(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a valid kernel in \mathbb{R}^M
- 8. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}'$, where A is a symmetric semidefinite matrix

9. $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k_a(\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{x}'_a) + k_b(\mathbf{x}_b, \mathbf{x}'_b)$ Where $\mathbf{x} = \{\mathbf{x}_a\} \cup \{\mathbf{x}_b\}$ are two subsets no necessarily disjoints of variables and k_a , k_b are valid kernels

☐ This is a commonly used kernel:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2 / 2\sigma^2)$$

▶ We can check it is a valid kernel, expanding the square:

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2 = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}'^T \mathbf{x}' - 2\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'$$

$$\Rightarrow k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}/2\sigma^2) \exp(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'/\sigma^2) \exp(-\mathbf{x}'^T \mathbf{x}'/2\sigma^2)$$
Rule 2 and 4

- ☐ The feature space corresponding to Gaussian kernel has infinite dimension
- \square We can extend Gaussian Kernel by replacing $\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x}'$ with a nonlinear kernel $\kappa(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')$:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \kappa(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x}') - 2\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))\right)$$

Kernels for Symbolic Data

> Non-numerical data

- ☐ Kernel methods can be extended also to inputs different from real vectors, such as graphs, sets, strings, texts, etc.
- In fact, the kernel function represents a measure of the similarity between two samples
- ☐ A common kernel used for set is:

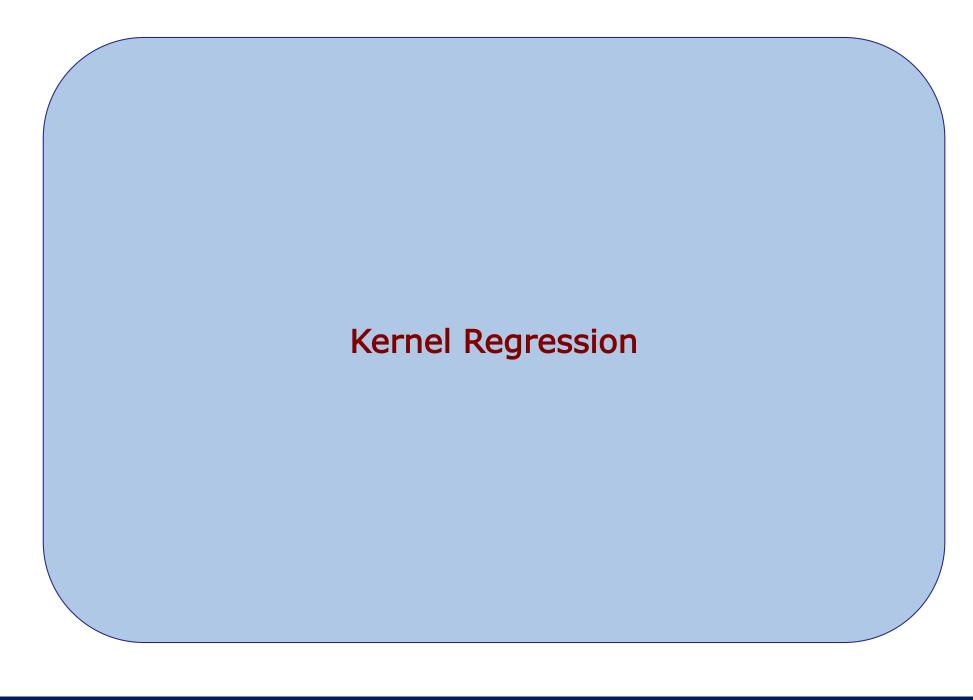
$$k(A_1,A_2)=2^{|A_1\cap A_2|}$$
 Cardinal of $A_1\cap A_2$. This is a possible "similarity" measure between two sets A_1 & A_2 .

Kernels Based on Generative Models

- ☐ It is also possible to define a kernel function based on probability distribution
- \square Given a generative model $p(\mathbf{x})$ we can define a kernel as:

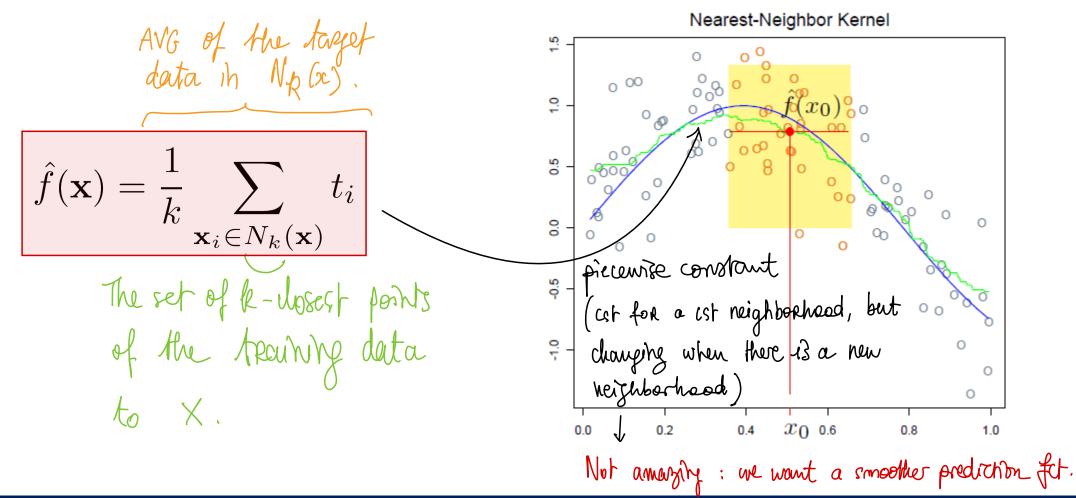
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = p(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}')$$

☐ It is a valid kernel, since it corresponds to the inner product in the one dimensional feature space defined mapping x to p(x)



k-NN Regression

☐ The k Nearest Neighbour (k-NN) can be applied to solve a regression problem by averaging the K nearest samples in the training data:

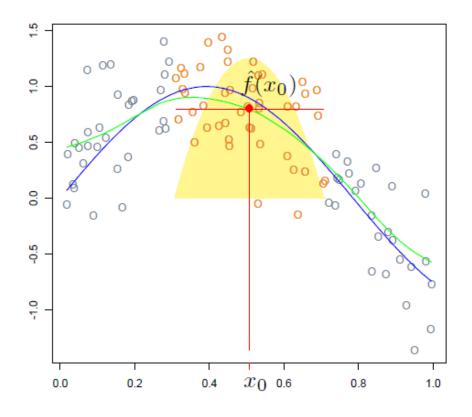


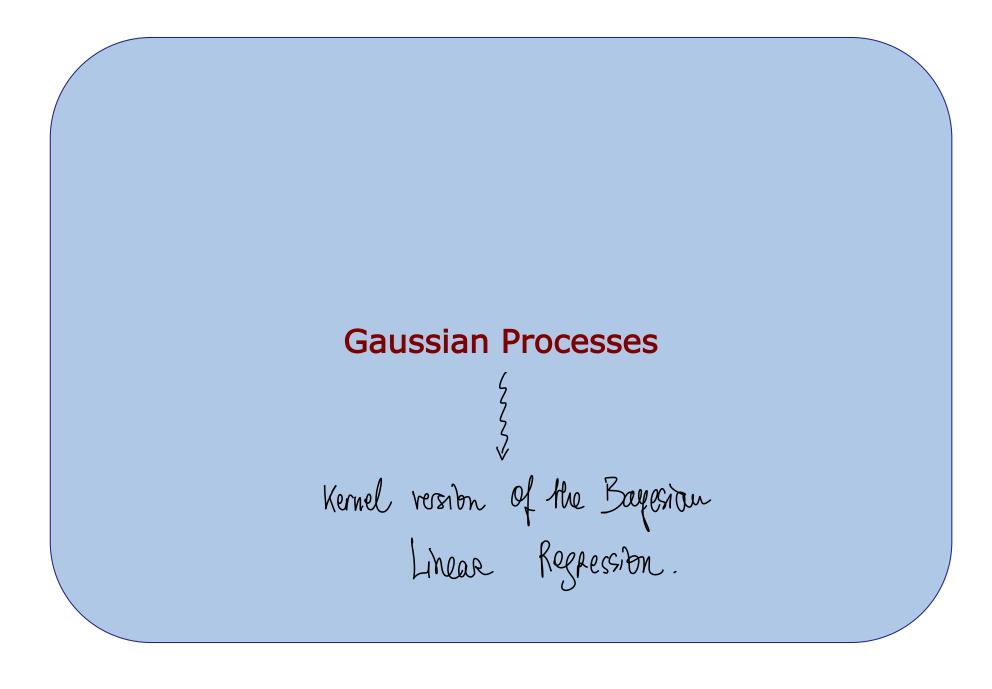
Nadaraya-Watson Model

- □ In k-NN regression the model output is generally very noisy due to the discontinuity of neighborhood averages
- Nadaraya-Watson model (or kernel regression) deal with this issue by using kernel function to compute a weighted average of samples:

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) t_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)}$$

- ☐ Typical choices for kernels are:
 - ► Epanechnikov Kernel (bounded support)
 - Gaussian Kernel (infinite support)





Linear Regression Revisited

☐ Let's start from the same assumptions used in Bayesian Linear Regression

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})$$
 $p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{w}|0, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}\right)$ } typical choice of Prior.

Now compute the prior distribution of the outputs of the regression function:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w} \longrightarrow p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N} (\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{S})$$
 from of the $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}] = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{w}] = \mathbf{0}$
$$\mathbf{S} = \text{cov}[\mathbf{y}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}^T] = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^T] \mathbf{\Phi}^T = \tau^2 \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T = \mathbf{K}$$
 Gram matrix

Gaussian Processes and Gram Matrix

- □ In general, a Gaussian Process is defined as a distribution probability over a function y(x) such that the set of values $y(x_i)$ for an arbitrary $\{x_i\}$ jointly have a Gaussian Distribution.
- ☐ In our specific case,

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$$

▶ where K is the Gram matrix defined as:

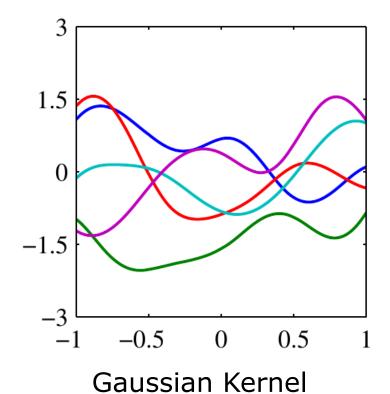
$$K_{nm} = k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) = \tau^2 \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_m)$$

☐ This gives a probabilistic interpretation of the Kernel function as:

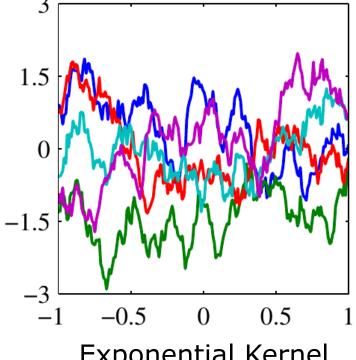
$$k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) = \mathbb{E}[y(\mathbf{x}_n)y(\mathbf{x}_m)]$$

Kernel Design

- We can apply the usual approaches to design the kernels
- ☐ Two families of kernels typically used with GP are:



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



Exponential Kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\theta |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|)$$