

## 2. Kernels and Regularization

GI01/M055: Supervised Learning

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# Today's Plan

## Feature Maps

- Ridge Regression
- Basis Functions (Explicit Feature Maps)
- Kernel Functions (Implicit Feature Maps)

## bibliography

Chapters 2 and 3 of *Kernel Methods for Pattern Analysis*,  
Shawe-Taylor.J, and Cristianini N., Cambridge University Press (2004)

Part I

# **Feature Maps**

# Overview

- We show how a linear method such as least squares may be **lifted** to a (potentially) higher dimensional space to provide a nonlinear regression.
- We consider both **explicit** and **implicit** feature maps
- A feature map is simply a function that maps the “inputs” into a new space.
- Thus the original method is now nonlinear in original “inputs” but linear in the “mapped inputs”
- Explicit feature maps are often known as the *Method of Basis Functions*
- Implicit feature maps are often known as the *(reproducing) “Kernel Trick”*

# Linear interpolation

## Problem

We wish to find a function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$  which best interpolates a data set  $S = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$

- If the data have been generated in the form  $(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x}))$ , the vectors  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are linearly independent and  $m = n$  then there is a unique interpolant whose parameter  $\mathbf{w}$  solves

$$X\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{y}$$

where, recall,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)^\top$  and  $X = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m]^\top$

- Otherwise, this problem is *ill-posed*

# Ill-posed problems

A problem is well-posed – in the sense of Hadamard (1902) – if

- (1) a solution exists
- (2) the solution is unique
- (3) the solution depends continuously on the data

A problem is ill-posed if it is not well-posed

Learning problems are in general ill-posed (usually because of (2))

Regularization theory provides a general framework to solve ill-posed problems

# Ridge Regression

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# Ridge Regression

Motivation:

1. Give a set of  $k$  hypothesis classes  $\{\mathcal{H}_r\}_{r \in \mathbb{N}_k}$  we can choose an appropriate hypothesis class with *cross-validation*
2. An alternative compatible with linear regression is to choose a single “complex” hypothesis class and then modify the error function by adding a “complexity” term which penalizes complex functions
3. This is known as **regularization**
4. Cross-validation may still be needed to set the regularization parameter (see below) and other parameters defining the complexity term



# Ridge Regression

We minimize the regularized (penalized) empirical error

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{emp}_\lambda}(\mathbf{w}) := \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{\ell=1}^n w_\ell^2 \equiv (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^\top (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{w}$$

The positive parameter  $\lambda$  defines a trade-off between the error on the data and the norm of the vector  $\mathbf{w}$  (degree of regularization)

Setting  $\nabla \mathcal{E}_{\text{emp}_\lambda}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$ , we obtain the modified normal equations

$$-2X^\top (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) + 2\lambda \mathbf{w} = 0 \tag{1}$$

whose solution (called *regularized solution*) is

$$\mathbf{w} = (X^\top X + \lambda I_n)^{-1} X^\top \mathbf{y} \tag{2}$$

# Dual representation

It can be shown that the regularized solution can be written as

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x} \quad (*)$$

where the vector of parameters  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)^\top$  is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (X X^\top + \lambda I_m)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \quad (3)$$

- **Function representations:** we call the functional form (or representation)  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$  the *primal form* and (\*) the *dual form* (or representation)

The dual form is computationally convenient when  $n > m$

## Dual representation (continued – 1)

We rewrite eq.(1) as

$$\mathbf{w} = \frac{X^T(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})}{\lambda}$$

Thus we have

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i \quad (4)$$

with

$$\alpha_i = \frac{y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i}{\lambda} \quad (5)$$

Consequently, we have that

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$

proving eq.(\*).

## Dual representation (continued – 2)

Plugging eq.(4) in eq.(5) we obtain

$$\alpha_i = \frac{y_i - (\sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j \mathbf{x}_j)^\top \mathbf{x}_i}{\lambda}$$

Thus (with defining  $\delta_{ij} = 1$  if  $i = j$  and as 0 otherwise)

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &= (\sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j \mathbf{x}_j)^\top \mathbf{x}_i + \lambda \alpha_i \\ y_i &= \sum_{j=1}^m (\alpha_j \mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_i + \alpha_j \lambda \delta_{ij}) \\ y_i &= \sum_{j=1}^m (\mathbf{x}_j^\top \mathbf{x}_i + \lambda \delta_{ij}) \alpha_j \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $(XX^\top + \lambda \mathbf{I}_m) \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \mathbf{y}$  from which eq.(3) follows.

# Computational Considerations

Training time:

- Solving for  $\mathbf{w}$  in the primal form requires  $O(mn^2 + n^3)$  operations while solving for  $\alpha$  in the dual form requires  $O(nm^2 + m^3)$  (see (\*)) operations

If  $m \ll n$  it is more efficient to use the dual representation Running

(testing) time:

- Computing  $f(\mathbf{x})$  on a test vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in the primal form requires  $O(n)$  operations while the dual form (see (\*)) requires  $O(mn)$  operations

# Sparse representation

We can benefit even further in the dual representation if the inputs are sparse!

## Example

Suppose each input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  has most of its components equal to zero (e.g., consider images where most pixels are 'black' or text documents represented as 'bag of words')

- If  $k$  denotes the number of nonzero components of the input then computing  $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t}$  requires at most  $O(k)$  operations.

How do we do this?

- If  $km \ll n$  (which implies  $m, k \ll n$ ) the dual representation requires  $O(km^2 + m^3)$  computations for training and  $O(mk)$  for testing

# Basis Functions

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## Basis Functions – Explicit Feature Map

The above ideas can naturally be generalized to nonlinear function regression

By a *feature map* we mean a function  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \phi_N(\mathbf{x}))^\top, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- The  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$  are called *basis functions*
- Vector  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$  is called the *feature vector* and the space

$$\{\phi(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

the *feature space*

The non-linear regression function has the primal representation

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^N w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$



## Feature Maps (Example 1 : [BIAS])

We've already seen one example with  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}, 1)^\top$$

In the context of linear regression before application of the feature map we had

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i - y_i)^2$$

After the feature map we have

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + b - y_i)^2$$

thus allowing us to learn a linear fit with a constant offset.

## Feature Maps (Example 2 : [XOR])

Consider the XOR function defined as

$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_1 \text{ XOR } x_2$
1	1	-1
1	-1	1
-1	1	1
-1	-1	-1

Does there exist a linear classifier that fits XOR perfectly? What if we add a bias term? **Why?**

What if instead we first apply the feature map  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) := (\mathbf{x}, x_1 x_2)^\top$ ?

## Feature (Example 3 : Correlations)

More generally the trick behind XOR was to add to the original vector the “correlate”  $x_1x_2$ .

More generally for second order correlations if  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) := (\mathbf{x}, x_1x_1, x_1x_2, \dots, x_1x_n, x_2x_2, x_2x_3, \dots, x_2x_n, \dots, x_nx_n)^\top$$

I.e.,  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\frac{n^2+3n}{2}}$ .

What is the motivation for this feature map?

More generally we might also include higher order correlations.

What is a potential problem with this technique?

# Kernels

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# Computational Considerations Revisited

Again, if  $m \ll N$  it is more efficient to work with the dual representation

**Key observation:** in the dual representation we don't need to know  $\phi$  explicitly; we just need to know the inner product between any pair of feature vectors!

**Example:** Consider the following feature map with second order correlations ( $N = n^2$ )

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(\mathbf{x}) &= (x_1x_1, x_1x_2, \dots, x_nx_n)^\top \\ \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}) \rangle &= (x_1x_1, x_1x_2, \dots, x_nx_n)(t_1t_1, t_1t_2, \dots, t_nt_n)^\top \\ &= x_1x_1t_1t_1 + x_1x_2t_1t_2 + \dots + x_nx_nt_nt_n \\ &= (x_1t_1 + \dots + x_nt_n)(x_1t_1 + \dots + x_nt_n) \\ &= (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^2\end{aligned}$$

Observe that  $(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^2$  requires only  $O(n)$  computations whereas the more direct  $(x_1x_1, x_1x_2, \dots, x_nx_n)(t_1t_1, t_1t_2, \dots, t_nt_n)^\top$  requires  $O(n^2)$  computations

## Kernel Functions – **Implicit** Feature Map

Given a feature map  $\phi$  we define its associated kernel function

$K : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}) \rangle, \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- **Key Point:** for some feature map  $\phi$  computing  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$  is independent of  $N$  (only dependent on  $n$ ). Where *necessarily*  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$  depends on  $N$ .

**Example (cont.)** If  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \cdots x_{i_r} : i_1, \dots, i_r \in \{1, \dots, n\})$  then we have that

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^r$$

In this case  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$  is computed with  $O(n)$  operations, which is essentially independent of  $r$  or  $N = n^r$ . On the other hand, computing  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$  requires  $O(N)$  operations – **Exponential in  $r$ !**.

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**Question:** So far the feature map has all  $r$ -order correlates how can we change it so that  $(r-1)$ -order,  $(r-2)$ -order, etc., correlates are included?

# Redundancy of the feature map

## Warning

The feature map is not unique! If  $\phi$  generates  $K$  so does  $\hat{\phi} = \mathbf{U}\phi$  where  $\mathbf{U}$  is an (any!)  $N \times N$  orthogonal matrix. Even the dimension of  $\phi$  is not unique!

## Example

If  $n = 2$ ,  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^2$  is generated by both  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, x_2^2, x_1x_2, x_2x_1)$  and  $\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2)$ .

# Regularization-based learning algorithms

Let us open a short parenthesis and show that the dual form of ridge regression holds true for other loss functions as well

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{emp}_\lambda}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^m V(y_i, \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle) + \lambda \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \rangle, \quad \lambda > 0 \quad (6)$$

where  $V: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a loss function

## Theorem

If  $V$  is differentiable wrt. its second argument and  $\mathbf{w}$  is a minimizer of  $E_\lambda$  then it has the form

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \Rightarrow f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{x}) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})$$

This result is usually called the *Representer Theorem*



# Representer theorem

Setting the derivative of  $E_\lambda$  wrt.  $\mathbf{w}$  to zero we have

$$-\sum_{i=1}^m V'(y_i, \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + 2\lambda \mathbf{w} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \quad (7)$$

where  $V'$  is the partial derivative of  $V$  wrt. its second argument and we defined

$$\alpha_i = \frac{1}{2\lambda} V'(y_i, \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \rangle) \quad (8)$$

Thus we conclude that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{w}, \phi(\mathbf{x}) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i),$$

## Some remarks

- Plugging eq.(7) in the rhs. of eq.(8) we obtain a set of equations for the coefficients  $\alpha_j$ :

$$\alpha_i = \frac{1}{2\lambda} V \left( y_i, \sum_{j=1}^m K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \alpha_j \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

When  $V$  is the square loss and  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$  we retrieve the linear eq.(5)

- Substituting eq.(7) in eq.(6) we obtain an objective function for the  $\alpha$ 's:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m V(y_i, (\mathbf{K}\alpha)_i) + \lambda \alpha^\top \mathbf{K} \alpha, \quad \text{where : } \mathbf{K} = (K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j))_{i,j=1}^m$$

**Remark:** the Representer Theorem holds true under more general conditions on  $V$  (for example  $V$  can be any continuous function)

# What functions are “kernels”?

## Question

Given a function  $K : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , which properties of  $K$  guarantee that there exists a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{W}$  and a feature map  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$  such that  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}) \rangle$ ?

## Note

We've generalized the definition of *finite-dimensional* feature maps

$$\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$$

to now allow potentially *infinite-dimensional* feature maps

$$\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$$

# Positive Semidefinite Kernel

## Definition

A function  $K : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **positive semidefinite** if it is symmetric and the matrix  $(K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) : i, j = 1, \dots, k)$  is positive semidefinite for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and every  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$

## Theorem

$K$  is positive semidefinite if and only if

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}) \rangle, \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

for some feature map  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$  and Hilbert space  $\mathcal{W}$

## Positive semidefinite kernel (cont.)

### Proof of “ $\Leftarrow$ ”

If  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}) \rangle$  then we have that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^m c_i c_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \right\rangle = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \right\|^2 \geq 0$$

for every choice of  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$

### Note

the proof of ‘ $\Rightarrow$ ’ requires the notion of reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces.

Informally, one can show that the linear span of the set of functions

$\{K(\mathbf{x}, \cdot) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$  can be made into a Hilbert space  $H_K$  with inner product induced by the definition  $\langle K(\mathbf{x}, \cdot), K(\mathbf{t}, \cdot) \rangle := K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$ . In particular, the map

$\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow H_K$  defined as  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = K(\mathbf{x}, \cdot)$  is a feature map associated with  $K$ .

Observe then with  $f(\cdot) := \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \cdot)$  that  $\|f\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \alpha_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ .

## Two Example Kernels

### Polynomial Kernel(s)

If  $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a polynomial with nonnegative coefficients then  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = p(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})$ ,  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a positive semidefinite kernel. For example if  $a \geq 0$

- $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^r$
- $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (a + \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^r$
- $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \sum_{i=0}^d \frac{a^i}{i!} (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^i$

are each positive semidefinite kernels.

### Gaussian Kernel

An important example of a “radial” kernel is the Gaussian kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \exp(-\beta \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}\|^2), \quad \beta > 0, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

note: any corresponding feature map  $\phi(\cdot)$  is  $\infty$ -dimensional.

# Polynomial and Anova Kernel

## Anova Kernel

$$K_a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 + x_i t_i)$$

Compare to the polynomial kernel  $K_p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (1 + \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^d$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{array} & \Rightarrow & \begin{array}{c} \phi_p(\mathbf{x}) = \\ \sqrt{d} x_1 \\ \sqrt{d} x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{d} x_n \\ \sqrt{d(d-1)} x_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sqrt{\binom{d}{i_0, i_1, \dots, i_n}} x_1^{i_1} x_2^{i_2} \dots x_n^{i_n} \\ \vdots \end{array} \\
 & & \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{array} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \phi_a(\mathbf{x}) = \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ x_1 x_2 \dots x_n \end{array} \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

where  $\sum_{j=0}^n i_j = d$

**Problem:** Argue that  $\langle \phi_a(\mathbf{x}), \phi_a(\mathbf{t}) \rangle = K_a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$ .

# Kernel construction

Which operations/combinations (eg, products, sums, composition, etc.) of a given set of kernels is still a kernel?

If we address this question we can build more interesting kernels starting from simple ones

## Example

We have already seen that  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^r$  is a kernel. For which class of functions  $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $p(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})$  a kernel? More generally, if  $K$  is a kernel when is  $p(K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}))$  a kernel?



# General linear kernel

If  $\mathbf{A}$  is an  $n \times n$  psd matrix the function  $K: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{t}$$

is a kernel

## Proof

Since  $\mathbf{A}$  is psd we can write it in the form  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}^\top$  for some  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{R}$ . Thus  $K$  is represented by the feature map  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}$

Alternatively, note that:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i,j} c_i c_j \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_j &= \sum_{i,j} c_i c_j (\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^\top (\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}_j) = \\ &= \sum_i c_i [(\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)]^\top \left[ \sum_j c_j (\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}_j) \right] = \left\| \sum_i c_i \mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

# Kernel composition

More generally, if  $K : \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a kernel and  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ , then

$$\tilde{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = K(\phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}))$$

is a kernel

## Proof

By hypothesis,  $K$  is a kernel and so, for every  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the matrix  $(K(\phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)) : i, j = 1, \dots, m)$  is psd

In particular, the previous example corresponds to  $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t}$  and  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{x}$

## Kernel construction (cont.)

### Question

If  $K_1, \dots, K_q$  are kernels on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $F: \mathbb{R}^q \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , when is the function

$$F(K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}), \dots, K_q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})), \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

a kernel?

Equivalently: when for every choice of  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_q$   $m \times m$  psd matrices, is the following matrix psd?

$$(F(A_{1,ij}, \dots, A_{q,ij}) : i, j = 1, \dots, m)$$

We discuss some examples of functions  $F$  for which the answer to these question is YES

# Nonnegative combination of kernels

If  $\lambda_j \geq 0$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, q$  then  $\sum_{j=1}^q \lambda_j K_j$  is a kernel

This fact is immediate (a non-negative combination of psd matrices is still psd)

**Example:** Let  $q = n$  and  $K_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = x_i t_i$ .

In particular, this implies that

- $aK_1$  is a kernel if  $a \geq 0$
- $K_1 + K_2$  is a kernel

# Product of kernels

The pointwise product of two kernels  $K_1$  and  $K_2$

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) := K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}), \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

is a kernel

## Proof

We need to show that if  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are psd matrices, so is

$C = (A_{ij}B_{ij} : i, j = 1, \dots, m)$  ( $C$  is also called the Schur product of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ ).

We write  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  in their singular value form,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{U}^\top$ ,  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^\top$

where  $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}$  are orthogonal matrices and  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m)$ ,

$\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$ ,  $\sigma_i, \lambda_i \geq 0$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i,j=1}^m a_i a_j C_{ij} &= \sum_{ij} a_i a_j \sum_r \sigma_r U_{ir} U_{jr} \sum_s \lambda_s V_{is} V_{js} = \sum_{ij} \sum_{rs} a_i a_j \sigma_r U_{ir} U_{jr} \lambda_s V_{is} V_{js} \\ &= \sum_{rs} \sum_{ij} a_i a_j \sigma_r U_{ir} U_{jr} \lambda_s V_{is} V_{js} = \sum_{rs} \sigma_r \lambda_s \sum_i a_i U_{ir} V_{is} \sum_j a_j U_{jr} V_{js} \\ &= \sum_{rs} \sigma_r \lambda_s \left( \sum_i a_i U_{ir} V_{is} \right)^2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

## Theorem

If  $K_1, K_2$  are kernels,  $a \geq 0$ ,  $A$  is a symmetric positive semi-definite matrix,  $K$  a kernel on  $\mathbb{R}^N$  and  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  then the following functions are positive semidefinite kernels on  $\mathbb{R}^n$

1.  $\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{t}$
2.  $K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) + K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$
3.  $aK_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$
4.  $K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$
5.  $K(\phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{t}))$

# Polynomial of kernels

Let  $F = p$  where  $p : \mathbb{R}^q \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a polynomial in  $q$  variables with nonnegative coefficients. By properties 1,2 and 3 above we conclude that  $p$  is a valid function

In particular if  $q = 1$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^d a_i (K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}))^i$$

is a kernel if  $a_1, \dots, a_d \geq 0$

The above observation implies that if  $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a polynomial with nonnegative coefficients then  $p(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})$ ,  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a kernel on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In particular if  $a \geq 0$  the following are valid polynomial kernels

- $(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^r$
- $(a + \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^r$
- $\sum_{i=0}^d \frac{a^i}{i!} (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^i$



## 'Infinite polynomial' kernel

If in the last equation we set  $r = \infty$  the series

$$\sum_{i=0}^r \frac{a^i}{i!} (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})^i$$

converges everywhere uniformly to  $\exp(\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})$  showing that this function is also a kernel.

Assume for simplicity that  $n = 1$ . A feature map corresponding to the kernel  $\exp(\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{t})$  is

$$\phi(x) = \left( 1, \sqrt{a}x, \sqrt{\frac{a}{2}}x^2, \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{6}}x^3, \dots \right) = \left( \sqrt{\frac{a^i}{i!}}x^i : i \in \mathbb{N} \right)$$

- The feature space has an infinite dimensionality!

# Translation invariant and radial kernels

We say that a kernel  $K : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is

- *Translation invariant* if it has the form

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = H(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}), \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

where  $H : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a differentiable function

- *Radial* if it has the form

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = h(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}\|), \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

where  $h : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is a differentiable function

# The Gaussian kernel

An important example of a radial kernel is the Gaussian kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \exp(-\beta \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}\|^2), \quad \beta > 0, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

It is a kernel because it is the product of two kernels

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = (\exp(-\beta(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t}^\top \mathbf{t}))) \exp(2\beta \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})$$

(We saw before that  $\exp(2\beta \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{t})$  is a kernel. Clearly  $\exp(-\beta(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t}^\top \mathbf{t}))$  is a kernel with one-dimensional feature map  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(-\beta \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x})$ )

## Exercise:

Can you find a feature map representation for the Gaussian kernel?

# The min kernel

We give another example of a kernel.

$$K_{\min}(x, t) := \min(x, t)$$

with  $x, t \in [0, \infty)$ . We argue informally that this is the kernel associated with the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}_{\min}$  of all functions with the following four properties.

1.  $f: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
2.  $f(0) = 0$
3.  $f$  is absolutely continuous (hence  $f(b) - f(a) = \int_a^b f'(x) dx$  )
4.  $\|f\| = \sqrt{\int_0^\infty [f'(x)]^2 dx}$

# Proof sketch

## Proof sketch

Our argument is simplified as follows,

1. We argue only that the induced norms are the same.
2. We only consider  $f \in \mathcal{H}_{\min}$  s.t.  $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \min(x_i, x)$ .

Define  $h_c(x) = [x \leq c]$  i.e.,  $h_c(x) = [\min(c, x)]'$

$$\begin{aligned}\|f\|^2 &= \int_0^\infty [f'(x)]^2 dx \\&= \int_0^\infty \left[ \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \min(x_i, x) \right)' \right]^2 dx \\&= \int_0^\infty \left[ \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i h_{x_i}(x) \right) \right]^2 dx \\&= \sum_{i,j}^m \alpha_i \alpha_j \int_0^\infty h_{x_i}(x) h_{x_j}(x) dx = \sum_{i,j}^m \alpha_i \alpha_j \min(x_i, x_j)\end{aligned}$$

# Computational Summary

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# Summary : Computation with Basis Functions

**Data:**  $X, \quad (m \times n); \quad \mathbf{y}, \quad (m \times 1)$

**Basis Functions:**  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N$  where  $\phi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

**Feature Map:**  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \phi_N(\mathbf{x})), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

**Mapped Data Matrix:**

$$\Phi := \begin{pmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_m) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & \phi_N(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_m) & \dots & \phi_N(\mathbf{x}_m) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (m \times N)$$

**Regression Coefficients:**  $\mathbf{w} = (\Phi^\top \Phi + \lambda I_N)^{-1} \Phi^\top \mathbf{y}$

**Regression Function:**  $\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \phi_i(\mathbf{x})$

## Summary : Computation with Kernels

**Data:**  $X, \quad (m \times n); \quad \mathbf{y}, \quad (m \times 1)$

**Kernel Function:**  $K : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

**Kernel Matrix:**

$$\mathbf{K} := \begin{pmatrix} K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_m) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ K(\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & K(\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_m) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (m \times m)$$

**Regression Coefficients:**  $\alpha = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda I_m)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

**Regression Function:**  $\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})$