S&DS 365 / 665 Intermediate Machine Learning

Mercer Kernels

September 11

Please note

- Materials posted to http://interml.ydata123.org
- Readings from "Probabilistic Machine Learning: An Introduction"
- https://probml.github.io/pml-book/book1.html

Some reminders

- Assn 1 posted today
- Due at midnight, September 25 (two weeks)
- Topics: Lasso, smoothing, Mercer kernels, leave-one-out

Topics for today

- Calculation from last class
- Mercer kernels

Bias-variance for density estimation

Recall from last class: We derived an expression for the squared bias of kernel density estimation using a Taylor expansion

The calculation is very similar for the variance

Bias

Recall:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\widehat{f}(x) &= \frac{1}{nh^p} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{h^p} \int K\left(\frac{u - x}{h}\right) f(u) du \\ &= \int K(v) f(x + hv) dv \\ &= \int K(v) \left(f(x) + hv^T \nabla f(x) + \frac{1}{2}h^2 v^T \nabla^2 f(x)v + o(h^2)\right) dv \\ &= f(x) + C(x)h^2 + o(h^2) \\ \text{using } \int K(u) du &= 1 \text{ and } \int uK(u) du = 0 \end{split}$$

Variance

By a similar argument, using $Var(X) \leq \mathbb{E}X^2$

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\widehat{f}(x)^2 &\leq C_2 \frac{1}{n^2 h^{2p}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)^2 \\ &= C_2 \frac{1}{n h^{2p}} \int K\left(\frac{u - x}{h}\right)^2 f(u) du \\ &= C_2 \frac{f(x)}{n h^p} \int K(v)^2 dv + o\left(\frac{1}{n h^p}\right) \\ &= C_2 \frac{f(x)}{n h^p} + o\left(\frac{1}{n h^p}\right) \end{split}$$

assuming $nh^p \to \infty$.

Risk

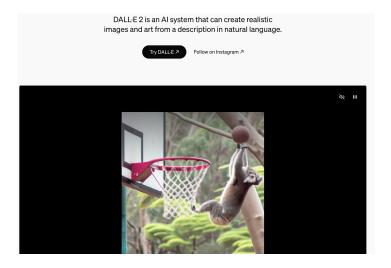
This gives

bias²
$$\approx h^4$$
 var $\approx \frac{1}{nh^p}$

On the assignment, you'll work with these expressions to reason about the smallest possible risk and the curse of dimensionality

- The KDE is a generative model
- We can sample from the density to "generate" a new data point
- What is an algorithm for sampling from the estimated distribution?

- Sample an index i uniformly from 1 to n
- ② Sample a point x from a Gaussian with mean X_i and variance h^2



As we'll see later in the course, Transformers can be naturally seen as a form of kernel smoothing and kernel density estimation.

Mercer Kernels: The big picture



Instead of using local smoothing, we can optimize the fit to the data subject to regularization (penalization). Choose \widehat{m} to minimize

$$\sum_{i} (Y_{i} - \widehat{m}(X_{i}))^{2} + \lambda \text{ penalty}(\widehat{m})$$

where penalty(\widehat{m}) is a *roughness penalty*.

 λ is a parameter that controls the amount of smoothing.

How do we construct a penalty that measures roughness? One approach is: *Mercer Kernels* and *RKHS = Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces*.

A kernel is a bivariate function K(x, x'). We think of this as a measure of "similarity" between points x and x'.

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A Mercer kernel has a special property: For any set of points x_1, \ldots, x_n the $n \times n$ matrix

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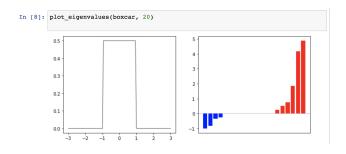
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This property has many important (and beautiful!) mathematical consequences. It is a characterization of Mercer kernels.

1:

Which of the kernels we used for smoothing are Mercer? (demo)



Mercer Kernels: Key example

A Gaussian gives us a Mercer kernel:

$$K(x,x')=e^{-\frac{\|x-x'\|^2}{2h^2}}$$

Note: Here we fix the bandwidth *h*.

A *Mercer kernel* K(x, x') is symmetric and positive semidefinite bivariate function:

$$\int \int f(x)f(x')K(x,x')\,dx\,dx'\geq 0$$

for all (univariate) functions f.

Basis functions

We can create a set of *basis functions* based on *K*.

Fix z and think of K(z, x) as a function of x. That is,

$$K(z,x)=K_z(x)$$

is a function of the second argument, with the first argument fixed.

Defining a norm from the kernel

Because of the positive semidefinite property, we can create an *inner product* and *norm* over the span of these functions

If
$$f(x) = \sum_{r} \alpha_{r} K_{z_{r}}(x)$$
, $g(x) = \sum_{s} \beta_{s} K_{y_{s}}(x)$, the inner product is $\langle f, g \rangle_{K} = \sum_{r} \sum_{s} \alpha_{r} \beta_{s} K(z_{r}, y_{s})$
$$= \alpha^{T} \mathbb{K} \beta$$

where $\mathbb{K} = [K(z_r, y_s)]$

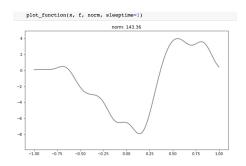
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The norm is

$$||f||_{K}^{2} = \langle f, f \rangle_{K} = \sum_{r} \sum_{s} \alpha_{r} \alpha_{s} K(z_{r}, z_{s})$$
$$= \alpha^{T} \mathbb{K} \alpha \geq 0$$

What do the functions look like? (demo)



Defining a Hilbert space from the kernel

This gives us an infinite dimensional space of functions with a geometry — a notion of angle from the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_K$

Technically speaking, we define the Hilbert space by "completing" the functions to include the limits of all Cauchy sequences with respect to the norm.

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This gives us an infinite dimensional space of functions with a geometry — a notion of angle from the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{K}}$

It is called a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) because

$$\langle f, K_{x}(\cdot) \rangle_{K} = f(x)$$

That is, the kernel "reproduces" the values of the functions through the inner products

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Exercise: Verify this identity!

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Nonparametric regression using Mercer kernels

The norm gives us a way to penalize functions for being too complex.

We carry out least squares regression subject to this penalty:

Minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - m(X_i))^2 + \lambda ||m||_K^2.$$

over the RKHS of functions

Dilemma?

How do we carry out this penalized regression? It looks complicated!

Or maybe intractable...

Linear algebra to the rescue!

Representer Theorem

Let \widehat{m} minimize

$$J(m) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - m(X_i))^2 + \lambda ||m||_{K}^{2}.$$

Then

$$\widehat{m}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(X_i, x)$$

for some $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$.

So, we only need to find the coefficients

$$\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n).$$

Mercer kernel regression

Plug
$$\widehat{m}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(X_i, x)$$
 into J :

$$J(\alpha) = \|Y - \mathbb{K}\alpha\|^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbb{K}\alpha$$

where
$$\mathbb{K}_{jk} = K(X_j, X_k)$$

Now we find α to minimize J. We get (Assn 1):

$$\widehat{\alpha} = (\mathbb{K} + \lambda I)^{-1} Y$$

$$\widehat{m}(x) = \sum_{i} \widehat{\alpha}_{i} K(X_{i}, x)$$

Mercer kernel regression

The estimator depends on the amount of regularization λ .

Again, there is a bias-variance tradeoff.

We choose λ by cross-validation. This is like the bandwidth in smoothing kernel regression.

Takeaways

- Mercer kernels have a special property: When restricted to a finite sample they give positive semidefinite matrices
- This allows us to define an inner product and a norm
- We use the norm to do penalization of the functions

The underlying math is rich—see the notes if you want to learn more!

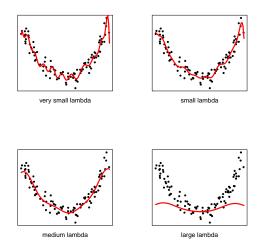
Smoothing Kernels *Versus* **Mercer Kernels**

Smoothing kernels: bandwidth h controls the amount of smoothing.

Mercer kernels: norm $||f||_K$ controls the amount of smoothing.

In practice these two methods give answers that are very similar.

Mercer Kernels: Examples



Kernels from features—and vice-versa

If $x \to \varphi(x) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a feature mapping, we can define a Mercer kernel by

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \varphi(\mathbf{x})^T \varphi(\mathbf{x}')$$

Conversely, for any Mercer kernel we can derive the corresponding feature map (from the spectral theorem)

The importance of being Kernelist

- Mercer kernels play a central role in machine learning
- Why? We can define similarity functions that are kernels for all kinds of data — graphs, molecules, text documents
- Mercer kernels are also important for modern understanding of deep neural networks

Summary for today

- Smoothing methods compute local averages, weighting points by a kernel. The details of the kernel don't matter much
- Mercer kernels using penalization rather than smoothing
- Defining property: Matrix K is always positive semidefinite
- Equivalent to a type of ridge regression in function space
- The curse of dimensionality limits use of both approaches

Some technical details (optional)

Defining the inner product

Check that it is well defined:

If
$$f = \sum_{r} \alpha_{r} K(z_{r}, \cdot)$$
, $g = \sum_{s} \beta_{s} K(y_{s}, \cdot)$, the inner product is
$$\langle f, g \rangle_{K} = \sum_{r} \sum_{s} \alpha_{r} \beta_{s} K(z_{r}, y_{s})$$
$$= \sum_{r} \alpha_{r} g(z_{r})$$
$$= \sum_{s} \beta_{s} f(y_{s})$$

using the reproducing property $\langle f, K(x, \cdot) \rangle = f(x)$

Representer theorem: Proof sketch

We can write any $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$ as

$$f(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} K(X_{i}, x) + v(x)$$

where v is orthogonal to the span of the functions $K(X_i,\cdot)$

By the reproducing property, $f(X_i)$ does not depend on v, and

$$||f||_K^2 = \alpha^T \mathbb{K} \alpha + ||\mathbf{v}||_K^2.$$

So, it must be that the minimizing function has v = 0

Feature maps

If M is symmetric, positive semidefinite matrix, can write

$$M = U^T \wedge U$$

where *U* is an orthogonal matrix. Can rewrite this as

$$M = \Phi^T \Phi$$

where

$$\Phi = \sqrt{\Lambda} U$$

This transformation allows us to define *features* or *feature maps* for Mercer kernels

Features for Mercer kernels

Eigen-decomposition: $\{\psi_j\}$, $\{\lambda_j\}$ where

$$\int K(x,y)\psi_j(y)dy = \lambda_j\psi_j(x) \quad (K\psi_j = \lambda_j\psi_j)$$

The spectral theorem (see previous slide for finite dimensional case) tells us that

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j \psi_j(x) \psi_j(y)$$

We can think of the kernel in terms of the *feature map*

$$x \longrightarrow \Phi(x) = (\sqrt{\lambda_1}\psi_1(x), \sqrt{\lambda_2}\psi_2(x), \ldots)$$

Features for Mercer kernels (continued)

Since ψ_i forms an orthonormal basis, can write any function f as

$$f(x) = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} a_r \psi_r(x)$$

By construction of the RKHS, can also write it as

$$f(x) = \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} K(x_{j}, x)$$

It follows that

$$||f||_K^2 = \sum_{r=1}^\infty \frac{a_r^2}{\lambda_r}$$

The functions that are smooth in the RKHS assign small weight to eigenfunctions with small eigenvalues