

KERNEL METHODS SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES (SVM), RIDGE REGRESSION & LOGISTIC REGRESSION

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Abstract

Kernel methods for better classification result. The theory behind this intelligent method makes it the choice model for both linearly and non-linearly separable data.

1 Support Vector Machine (SVM)

SVM is commonly referred to as the maximum margin classifier.

2 Kernel Ridge regression

We recall first the classical optimization formulation for ridge regression as

$$\min_{\beta} F(\beta, b) = \lambda \|\beta\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^m (\beta^T x_i - y_i)^2 \quad (1)$$

where $\sum_{i=1}^m (\beta^T x_i - y_i)^2$ is the squared loss function between the actual and predicted values we try to minimize and $\lambda \|\beta\|^2$ is the regularization term.

The solution of this optimization problem is given as

$$\beta = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} \quad (2)$$

Where β is the weight parameters that helps us predict we incoming data. We also recall that the solution of the ridge regression reverts to that of ordinary least square $\beta = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$ for very small value of λ (especially when λ is close to zero.)

Consequently, the solution of ridge regression only solves problems in a low dimensional data space. In high dimensional space when $N \rightarrow \infty$ we would need to map x into a higher feature space where learning the covariant with respect to the objective function y is much easier. Ridge regression solves this problem by projecting $x_i \rightarrow \phi(x_i)$.

The new solution of ridge in the kernel space is now given by $\beta = (\phi^T(x_i)\phi(x_i) + \lambda I)^{-1} \phi^T(x_i)y$ where $\phi^T(x_i)\phi(x_i) = \kappa(x_i, x_j)$ and $\alpha = (\phi^T(x_i)\phi(x_i) + \lambda I)^{-1}$.

To prove this, we formalize ridge regression as an optimization problem [2] in the $\phi(x_i)$ space as

$$\min_{\beta, \xi} L_p = \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i^2 \quad (3)$$

$$\text{subject to } y_i - \beta^T \phi(x_i) = \xi \quad \forall i \quad (4)$$

$$\|\beta\|^2 \leq B^2 \quad (5)$$

The Langrangian formulation is therefore follows as

$$L_p = \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^N \eta_i [y_i - \beta^T \phi(x_i) - \xi_i] + \lambda (\|\beta\|_2^2 - B^2)$$

Note that η and λ are the lagrangian multipliers. By taking the first order derivative of L_p we have that,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\xi} L_p &= 2\xi_i - \eta_i = 0 \\ \eta_i &= 2\xi_i \\ \xi_i &= \frac{\eta_i}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\beta} L_p &= -\eta\phi(x_i) + 2\lambda\beta = 0 \\ 2\lambda\beta &= \eta\phi(x_i),\end{aligned}$$

From **representer theorem**, we know that $\beta = \alpha\phi(x_i)$. By substitution in the last equation we have that $\eta = 2\lambda\alpha$. If we substitute back the result of the derivatives into the lagrangian formulation we have that

$$\begin{aligned}L_p &= \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\eta_i^2}{4} + \sum_{i=1}^N 2\lambda\alpha[y - \alpha\kappa(x_i, x_j) - \frac{\eta_i}{2}] \\ &\quad + \lambda\alpha^T \kappa(x_i, x_j)\alpha \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda^2\alpha^2 + 2\lambda\alpha[y - \alpha\kappa(x_i, x_j) - \lambda\alpha] \\ &\quad + \lambda\alpha^T \kappa(x_i, x_j)\alpha\end{aligned}$$

3 Kernel Logistic Regression

Logistic regression is a binary classification algorithm. The algorithm is capable of classifying linearly separable dataset. The linear version of logistic regression is however not able to accurately classify non-linear data, hence its kernel version.

Using the Iterative Reweighted Least Square method (IRLS) proposed by Zhu et al.[1]. an extension of the Support vector machine was introduced to logistic regression (Import vector machines). This method uses much more smaller data points as support vectors than SVMs and hence, outperforms SVMs for classification purposes.

Given a set of training data $\{(x, y)\}^n$ where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ where $i = 1, \dots, N$. The output is a binary output controlled by the sigmoid function $\frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{x} \cdot \beta}}$.

Classical logistic regression is define using the binomial distribution as

$$l(\beta_0, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i)^{y_i} (1 - p(x_i))^{(1-y_i)} \quad (9)$$

By omitting two steps of expansion we can reduce the above equation to

$$\nabla_{\alpha} L_p = -2\lambda^2\alpha - 2\lambda\alpha\kappa(x_i, x_j) + 2\lambda y = 0 \quad (6)$$

$$\alpha = (\kappa(x_i, x_j) + \lambda\mathbf{I})^{-1}y \quad (7)$$

and the *beta* parameter can be estimated as

$$\beta = \alpha\phi(x) = (\kappa(x_i, x_j) + \lambda\mathbf{I})^{-1}\phi(x)y \quad (8)$$

We predict new sample using the function

$$y = \beta^T \phi(x) = (\kappa(x_i, x_j) + \lambda\mathbf{I})^{-1} \kappa(x_i, x_j)y$$

Note that this is the closed form solution of kernel ridge regression, as it can also be solved using optimization algorithm like gradient descent or stochastic gradient descent.

and the log-likelihood follows as

$$L(\beta_0, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log p(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p(x_i))$$

where

$$p(x; \beta) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x \cdot \beta}} \quad (10)$$

and

$$1 - p(x; \beta) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{x \cdot \beta}} \quad (11)$$

However, classical logistic regression will fail to classify accurately non-linearly separable data, hence its kernel version.

The vector space can be expressed as a linear combination of the input vectors such that

$$\beta = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \quad (12)$$

where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ is the dual variable. The function $\phi(x_i)$ maps the data points from lower dimension to higher dimension.

$$\phi : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{D}} \rightarrow \phi(x) \in \mathbb{F} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{D}'} \quad (13)$$

Let $\kappa(x_i, x)$ be a kernel function resulting from the inner product of $\phi(x_i)$ and $\phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$, such that

$$\kappa(x_i, x) = \langle \phi(x_i) \phi(x_j) \rangle \quad (14)$$

From **representer theorem** we know that

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \beta^T \phi(x) = \alpha \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle \\ &= \alpha \kappa(x_i, x_j) \end{aligned}$$

We can now express $p(x; \beta)$ is subspace of input vectors only such that

$$p(\phi; \alpha) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha_i \kappa(x_i, x_j)}} \quad (15)$$

and

$$1 - p(\phi; \alpha) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha_i \kappa(x_i, x_j)}} \quad (16)$$

The logit function is mapped into the kernel space as

$$\text{logit}\left(\frac{p(\phi; \alpha)}{1 - p(\phi; \alpha)}\right) = \alpha \kappa(x_i, x) \quad (17)$$

Deriving the equation of kernel logistic regression requires the regularized logistic regression, precisely the regularized l_2 -norm of the log-likelihood. This is in comparison to the SVM objective function.

$$\begin{aligned} L_\alpha &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log p(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p(x_i)) \\ &\quad - \frac{\lambda}{2} \alpha^T \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) \alpha \end{aligned}$$

3.1 Learning kernel logistic regression

As mentioned earlier, some of the methods for finding the maximum likelihood estimate include gradient descent (**GD**), iterative re-weighted least squares (**IRLS**) method. Here we employ the use of IRLS which is based on the Newton-Raphson algorithm.

• Optimization function:

$$\begin{aligned} L_\alpha &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log p(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p(x_i)) \\ &\quad - \frac{\lambda}{2} \alpha^T \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) \alpha \end{aligned}$$

We can expand the objective function as follows

$$\begin{aligned} L_\alpha &= y \log \left(\frac{p}{1 - p} \right) + \log(1 - p(x_i)) \\ &\quad - \frac{\lambda}{2} \alpha^T \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) \alpha \\ &= y \log \left(\frac{p}{1 - p} \right) + \log \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}} \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{\lambda}{2} \alpha^T \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) \alpha \\ &= y \alpha \kappa(x_i, x) - \log(1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}) \\ &\quad - \frac{\lambda}{2} \alpha^T \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) \alpha \end{aligned}$$

First order derivative of the log-likelihood

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_\alpha L &= y \kappa(x_i, x) - \frac{\kappa(x_i, x) e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}}{1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}} \\ &\quad - \lambda \alpha \kappa(x_i, x) \\ &= y \kappa(x_i, x) - p \kappa(x_i, x) - \lambda \alpha \kappa(x_i, x) \\ \nabla_\alpha L &= \kappa(x_i, x) (y - p) - \lambda \alpha \kappa(x_i, x) \end{aligned}$$

Now we deduce the second derivative from the result of the first. We know from the first that

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_\alpha L &= \kappa(x_i, x) \left(y - \frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}} \right) \\ &\quad - \lambda \alpha \kappa(x_i, x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_\alpha^2 L &= -\kappa(x_i, x)^T \left(\frac{e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}}{(1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)})^2} \right) \\ &\quad \times \kappa(x_i, x) - \lambda \kappa(x_i, x) \\ &= -\kappa(x_i, x)^T \left(\frac{e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}}{1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}} \right) \\ &\quad \times \kappa(x_i, x) - \lambda \kappa(x_i, x) \end{aligned}$$

resulting

$$\nabla_{\alpha}^2 L = -\kappa(x_i, x)^T (p(1-p)) \kappa(x_i, x) - \lambda \kappa(x_i, x)$$

The update for α is

$$\alpha_{j+1} = \alpha_j - (\nabla_{\alpha}^2 L)^{-1} \nabla_{\alpha} L \quad (18)$$

$$\alpha_{j+1} = \alpha_j + (\kappa(x_i, x)^T W \kappa(x_i, x) + \lambda \kappa(x_i, x))^{-1} (\kappa(x_i, x)^T (y - p) - \lambda \kappa(x_i, x) \alpha_j)$$

Where W is the diagonal matrix corresponding to $p(1-p)$. For simplification let $\alpha_j = (\kappa(x_i, x)^T W \kappa(x_i, x) + \lambda \kappa(x_i, x))^{-1} (\kappa(x_i, x)^T W \kappa(x_i, x) + \lambda \kappa(x_i, x) \alpha_j)$ and $\kappa(x_i, x) = K$.

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{j+1} &= (K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} (K^T W K + \lambda K) \alpha_j + (K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} (K^T (y - p) - \lambda K \alpha_j) \\ &= (K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} ((K^T W K + \lambda K) \alpha_j + K^T (y - p) - \lambda K \alpha_j) \end{aligned}$$

After expanding the above term we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{j+1} &= (K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} (K^T W K \alpha_j + K^T (y - p) + \lambda K \alpha_j) \\ &= (K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} K^T W (K \alpha_j + W^{-1} (y - p)) \end{aligned}$$

if $z_j = (K \alpha_j + W^{-1} (y - p))$ we can summarize the solution of α_{j+1} with

a shorthand equation thus.

$$\alpha_{j+1} = (K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} K^T W z_j \quad (19)$$

z_j is the adjusted response.

• **Prediction**

Still using the representer theorem, we compute the posterior probability of a new data point such that

$$y = \text{sign} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}} \right) \quad (20)$$

Here, the prediction is dependent only on α and the inner product of the training and test data.

Algorithm 1: KLR using IRLS

Input : κ, y, α_j

Output: α_{j+1}

1 **begin**

2 $c = 0$;

3 **while** $\left| \frac{DEV^c - DEV^{c+1}}{DEV^{c+1}} \right| \geq \epsilon_1$ **and**

$c \leq \text{Max IRLS Iterations}$ **do**

4 **for** $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** N **do**

5 $\hat{p} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-\alpha \kappa(x_i, x)}}$;

6 $v_i = \hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})$;

7 $z_i = K \alpha^c + \frac{y_i - \hat{p}}{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}$;

8 **end**

9 $\mathbf{V} = \text{diag}(v_1, \dots, v_N)$;

10 $\hat{\alpha}^{c+1} =$

$(K^T W K + \lambda K)^{-1} K^T W z^c$;

11 $c = c + 1$

12 **end**

13 **end**

References

- [1] Zhu J, Hastie T. Kernel logistic regression and import vector machine. *J Comput Graphic Stat*, 14:185–205, 2005.
- [2] Saunders C., Gammerman A., Vovk V., Ridge Regression Learning Algorithm in Dual Variables. *ICML 15th International Conference on Machine Learning.*, 1998.