

Kernel Models

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Overview

// Back to Feature Maps

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// Kernels

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Support Vector Machines

- Main Idea and Details
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Back to Feature Maps

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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.

Map // Selection	Explicit	Implicit
Explicit	Basis Functions with Stepwise	Regularization
Implicit	Kernelization with Stepwise	Kernel Methods with Regularization

- // Implicit Selection are widely adopted in Machine Learning
- Explicit Mapping is not very systematic, being more problem-dependent, but some recipes are universal (interactions, z-scores, etc.)
- // Implicit Mapping with Implicit Feature selection is Our Focus Today!
- // Implicit mapping with Explicit feature selection is not generally used

Back to Ridge Regression

// If we consider the Ridge Regression case, we have

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}(\lambda)} \mathbf{MSE}[\boldsymbol{\beta}(\lambda)] = \left| |\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}| \right|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \left| |\boldsymbol{\beta}| \right|_{2}^{2}, \text{ for a given } \lambda \geq 0$$

/// we can rewrite this expression as

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}(\lambda)} MSE[\boldsymbol{\beta}(\lambda)] = \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{y} - 2\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \lambda \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \boldsymbol{I}_{JxJ} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

/// First order condition: $\nabla_{\beta(\lambda)} MSE[\beta(\lambda)] = 0$, then

$$-2X^{T}y^{T} + X^{T}X\beta + \lambda I_{IXI}\beta = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow -2X^{T}y + (X^{T}X + \lambda I_{IXI})\beta = \mathbf{0}$$

/// Yielding the solution, akin to Linear Regression, but with a new param

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \left(\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{I \times I} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}$$

/// Second order condition: $H[MSE[\beta(\lambda)]]$ is positive semi-definite

$$H[MSE[\beta(\lambda)]] = (X^TX + \lambda I_{JxJ})^T = (X^TX + \lambda I_{JxJ})$$

since X^TX is positive semi-definite, I_{JxJ} is positive definite, the hessian matrix will be positive semi-definite for a suitable choice of λ (usually $\lambda \ge 0$)

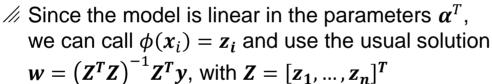
PS: remember to scale *X* columns (like having zero mean and unit std)

Explicit Feature Maps

M Overall, the main idea is to extend the model, including new features engineered using some nonlinear mapping (a.k.a. basis function)

$$y_i = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

with $\phi: S^J \to \mathcal{R}^M$, usually M > J; hence more coefficients have to be fitted



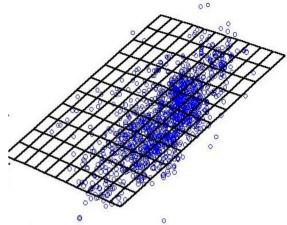
Some commonly used feature maps, adopted in many situations

$$/\!\!/$$
 Polynomial: ϕ : $x_i \rightarrow (1, x_i, x_i^2, x_i^3, ...)$

/// Veronese/ANOVA/Interaction mapping

$$\phi: x_{i1}, x_{i2} \to (1, x_{i1}, x_{i2}, x_{i1}^2, x_{i2}^2, x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots)$$

// In fact, log, sqrt, one-hot encoding, etc. and any other transformation





Kernel Ridge Regression

- // Is it possible to create polynomial features, without incurring in all the additional calculations, memory storage, etc.? A: Yes
- // First step: rewrite Ridge Regression solution by

$$X^T X \beta + \lambda I_{JxJ} \beta = X^T y \Rightarrow \lambda I_{JxJ} \beta = X^T y - X^T X \beta \Rightarrow \beta = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right) X^T [y - X \beta]$$

hence, β can be expressed as a linear combination of the columns of X^T

$$\beta = X^T \alpha$$

with $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ being the dual coefficient vector; further manipulation show

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)[y - X\beta] \Rightarrow \alpha\lambda = [y - XX^T\alpha] \Rightarrow (XX^T + \lambda I_{nxn})\alpha = y$$

// therefore, $\alpha = (XX^T + \lambda I_{nxn})^{-1}y$, implying that α

// minimizes
$$MSE[\alpha(\lambda)] = \left| \left| y - XX^T \alpha \right| \right|_2^2 + \lambda \alpha^T XX^T \alpha$$

 $/\!\!/$ written in terms of inner products of rows (XX^T) not columns (X^TX)



Kernel Trick

// Second step: since α is written in terms of inner products of rows

$$XX^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle x_{1}, x_{1} \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_{1}, x_{n} \rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle x_{n}, x_{1} \rangle & \cdots & \langle x_{n}, x_{n} \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

 $/\!\!/$ if, we consider a feature map of x_i , $\phi: S^J \to \mathcal{R}^M$, we can rewrite the Gram-Matrix XX^T after feature mapping by

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \langle \phi(x_1), \phi(x_1) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \phi(x_1), \phi(x_n) \rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle \phi(x_n), \phi(x_1) \rangle & \cdots & \langle \phi(x_n), \phi(x_n) \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_1, x_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_n, x_1) & \cdots & k(x_n, x_n) \end{bmatrix} = K$$

- // where $k(x_k, x_i) \coloneqq \langle \phi(x_k), \phi(x_i) \rangle$ is a (kernel) function that replicates a certain feature mapping plus an inner product!
- $/\!\!/$ Example: consider that $x, z \in \mathbb{R}^2$ (think as two rows of a 2-d dataset) and $k(x, z) = \langle x, z \rangle^2$, then $k(x, z) = x_1^2 z_1^2 + x_2^2 z_2^2 + 2x_1 x_2 z_1 z_2 = \cdots$

... =
$$[x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2]^T [z_1^2, z_2^2, \sqrt{2}z_1z_2] = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}) \rangle$$

for a map $\phi(x) = [x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2]$, close to a second degree polynomial

// hence, $\langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle$ takes roughly $O(n^2)$ whilst k(x, z) takes O(n)

Dual Representation – Pros and Cons

// Primal Form: Computation with Basis Functions

- // Training: $O(J^p)$ for feature mapping and $O(nJ^2 + J^3)$ for estimation
 - // Dataset $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$
 - // Basis functions: $\phi_1, ..., \phi_k$ where $\phi: \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathbb{R}$
 - /// Feature map: $\phi(x) = [\phi_1(x), ..., \phi_k(x)]$
 - // Solution: $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{Z}^T \boldsymbol{Z})^{-1} \boldsymbol{Z}^T \boldsymbol{y}$, with $\boldsymbol{Z} = [\boldsymbol{\phi}(x_1), ..., \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_n)]^T$
- // Prediction: $\hat{y}(x_i) = \beta^T \phi(x_i)$, taking O(k) operations

// Dual Form: Implicit Feature Map

- // Training: O(Jn) to create K and $O(Jn^2 + n^3)$ for estimation
 - // Dataset $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$
 - // Kernel Function: $k: \mathbb{R}^J \times \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathbb{R}$
 - // Kernel Matrix: $\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & \cdots & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_1) & \cdots & k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_n) \end{bmatrix}$
 - // Solution: $\alpha = (K + \lambda I_{nxn})^{-1}y$
- // Prediction: $\hat{y}(v) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} k(x_{i}, v)$, taking O(nJ) operations



Kernels

- // Definition
- // Kernelization
- /// Some key facts and results
- // A bestiary of kernels

Definition

// Kernel

 \mathscr{M} A function $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a kernel on \mathcal{X} if there exists a Hilbert space \mathcal{F} and a map $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{F}$, such that $k(x,z) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle_{\mathcal{F}}$

// In our more usual terminology

 $/\!\!/ \phi \colon \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{F}$ is called a **feature map**

 $/\!\!/ \mathcal{F}$ is called a **feature space**

// Hence, a kernel function is a composition of "feature map" with scalar product. Our previous example, $x, z \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we have:

 $//(k(x,z)) = \langle x,z \rangle^2$ (homogenous 2-degree polynomial kernel)

$$/\!\!/ \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) = [x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2] \text{ or } \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) = [x_1^2, x_2^2, x_1x_2, x_1x_2]$$

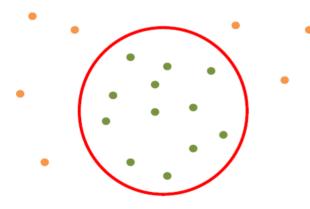
is one of the most common instantiations of a kernel function

// Note that a kernel function is not always is associated with an unique feature map!



Kernelization

- // Kernels allow to make linear algorithms work on non-linear features, by replicating a very complicated feature mapping by a kernel function over the raw features
- // Example: Support Vector Machine: $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n, y_i \in \{-1,1\}$



$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sgn}(\beta_0 + \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x})$$

 $\beta = \sum_i \alpha_i x_i y_i$ solves a QP involving $X^T X$, with α_i representing "dual variables



$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\beta_0 + \sum_i \alpha_i \, k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z})\right)$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z})$$

lpha solves a QP involving kernel matrix K





Key facts and results

// What functions are kernels?

- // Given a function $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, which properties of k guarantee that there exists a Hilbert space \mathcal{F} and a map $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{F}$, such that $k(x, z) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle_{\mathcal{F}}$?
- **Subtle note**: we have generalized the definition of **finite-dimensional** feature maps $\phi: \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathbb{R}^m$ to **infinite-dimensional** feature maps $\phi: \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathcal{F}$ (Hilbert space)
- **First**: a function $h: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is positive semidefinite if is symmetric and the matrix H made of $H_{ixj} = h(x_i, x_j)$ for every i and j is positive semidefinite ($v^T H v \ge 0$)
- // Theorem (Positive Semidefinite Kernels)

 $/\!\!/$ A function k is positive semidefinite if and only if

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{z}) \rangle, \, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^J$$

for some feature map $\phi \colon \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathcal{F}$ and Hilbert space \mathcal{F}

Key facts and results

- // Theorem (Moore-Aronszajn, 1950)
- // For every positive semidefinite kernel $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, there is an unique feature map $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{F}$ (up to a isomorphism) into an unique Hilbert space \mathcal{F} (the so-called Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space RKHS)
 - $/\!\!/$ **RKHS**: $\phi: x \to k(x, .)$ and $\langle k(x, .), f(.) \rangle_{\mathcal{F}} = f(x), \ \forall f \in \mathcal{F}$
- // Theorem (Kimeldorf-Wahba, 1971) "Representer Theorem"
 - $/\!\!/L$ Let $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ be data points
 - $/\!\!/$ Let k be a positive semidefinite kernel with RHKS $\mathcal F$
 - $/\!\!/$ Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^J \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be any loss function
 - // Let Ω: [0, ∞) → $\mathbb R$ strictly increasing penalty function
- ## Then, there is a minimizer of the type $f(x) = \alpha^T \mathbf{k}(x,.)$ to $R(f) = \sum_i \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \Omega(||f||_{\mathcal{F}})$



A bestiary of kernels

- **Linear**: $k(x, z) = x^T A z$ (usually A is a positive definite matrix)
- **Dot-product**: $k(x, z) = f(\langle x, z \rangle)$ (usually f is a positive definite)
- // Polynomial: $k(x, z) = (\theta \langle x, z \rangle + c)^d$ (general formulation)
- // Sigmoid: $k(x, z) = tanh(\sigma(x, z) + c)$ (not positive definite...)
- // Radial basis function kernels

Gaussian/RBF Kernel

Laplacian Kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\left|\left|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}\right|\right|_{2}^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right) \quad k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\left|\left|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}\right|\right|}{\sigma}\right)$$

- // Proposition
- // For positive definite kernels $k_1, k_2, ...$ and $c_i > 0$, any of the composition below is also a positive definite kernel

$$k_1(x, z) + c_1$$
 $c_1 k_1(x, z) + c_2 k_2(x, z)$ $k_1(x, z) k_2(x, z)$

$$\frac{k_1(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{z})}{\sqrt{k_1(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{x})k_1(\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{z})}}$$



 $\frac{k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})}{\sqrt{k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})k_1(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z})}} \qquad \mathbf{MLI} \qquad \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i \left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \right\rangle^i}_{\text{(in case of convergence)}}$

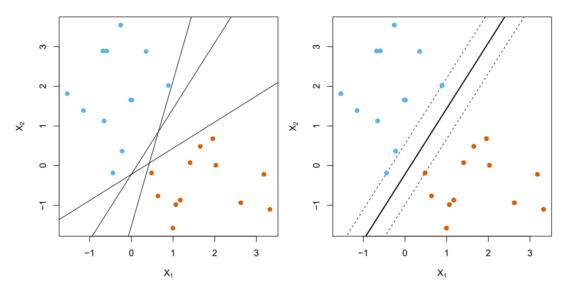


Support Vector Machines

- // Main Idea and Details
- // Linear Support Vector Machines
- // Kernel/Nonlinear Support Vector Machines
- // Kernel selection and fine-tuning

Main Idea and Details

Main idea: given a $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n, y_i \in \{-1, 1\}, H = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^J: \langle w, x \rangle = c\}$, with normal vector w and offset c, separating points from class -1 and class 1 with the largest symmetric margin of $\pm \eta$



A contrast: whilst Logistic Regression first build a conditional probability model, and then classify based in a threshold, SVMs bypass the first step, and build a classifier directly!



Linear Support Vector Machines

Hard margin Linear SVM: Find a hyperplane $H = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^J : < w, x > = c\}$, with normal vector w and offset c, separating points from class -1 and class 1 with the largest symmetric margin of $\pm \eta = \frac{1}{||w||}$

$$\max_{w,c} \eta$$
, $s.t.y_i \cdot (\langle w, x_i \rangle - c) \ge 1$, $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$

Too strict in practice!

// Soft margin Linear SVM

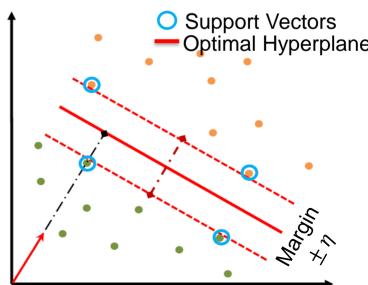
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},c} \frac{1}{2} ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 + C \sum_{i} \xi_i,$$

$$s.t.: y_i \cdot (< w, x_i > -c) \ge 1 - \xi_i \text{ and } \xi_i \ge 0$$

where ξ_i is a slack variable for each data point; it measures how much the i-th sample is allowed to violate the margin. Two conflicting objectives, maximize η but minimizing ξ_i as possible; $\mathcal C$ is the hyperparameter that control this trade-off

Quadratic Programming solvers

Both problems can be solved via







Kernel Support Vector Machines

// Primal form

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},c} \frac{1}{2} \big| |\boldsymbol{w}| \big|^2 + C \sum_{i} \xi_i,$$

$$s.t. y_i \cdot (\langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x_i} \rangle - c) \ge 1 - \xi_i \text{ and } \xi_i \ge 0$$

// Dual form

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \ \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{\alpha} - \sum_{i} \alpha_i$$

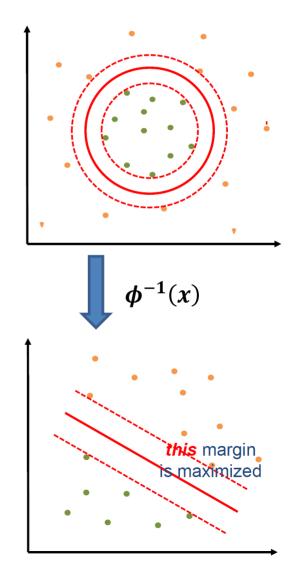
s. t.
$$\mathbf{y}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha} = 0$$
, with $0 \le \alpha_i \le C$, $i=1,...,n$

with $Q_{ik} := y_i y_k k(x_i, x_k)$ is an $n \times n$ positive definite matrix and C an upper bound for the dual weights

// Decision function

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\sum_{i} y_{i} \alpha_{i} K(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{z}) + c\right)$$

Also solvable via QP, via Slater Theorem



Kernel selection and fine-tuning

- // Kernel Ridge Regression (remember to scale input variables)
 - // Start with a **Grid-search strategy**, making it fine-grained after a certain range looks promising
 - // Try a range of regularization values: $\lambda = [0.0001, 1.0]$
 - // RBF Kernel is preferred; values ranging: $\sigma = [0.01, 10.0]$
 - // Use RMSE, but also MAD and Pseudo-R2 (Square of the Correlation) for hyperparameter selection
- // Support Vector Machines (remember to scale input variables)
 - // Grid-search strategy: similar to KRR
 - // Try a range of penalty values: C = [0.001, 10.0]
 - // RBF Kernel is preferred; values ranging: $\sigma = [0.01, 10.0]$
 - F1-Score tends to be a good generic metric, but also Area Under the ROC curve (AUC), and precision/recall are important metrics. Accuracy is fine when the classes are well-balanced

Main Reading

- // Chapters 5.8 and 12, of Elements of Statistical Learning, Hastie T., Tibshirani R. and Friedman J.
- // Chapelle, O. (2007). Training a support vector machine in the primal. Neural computation, 19(5), 1155-1178.

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Further Reading

- // Chapters 2 and 3 of Kernel Methods for Pattern Analysis, Shawe-Taylor J., and Cristianini N., Cambridge University Press
- // Chapter 19, Support Vector Machines and Kernel Methods, Computer Age Statistical Inference, Efron B., Hastie T.
- // Hofmann, T., Schölkopf, B., & Smola, A. J. (2008). Kernel methods in machine learning. The annals of statistics, 1171-1220.
- // General Reference: Scholkopf, B., & Smola, A. J. (2001). Learning with kernels: support vector machines, regularization, optimization, and beyond. MIT press.

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