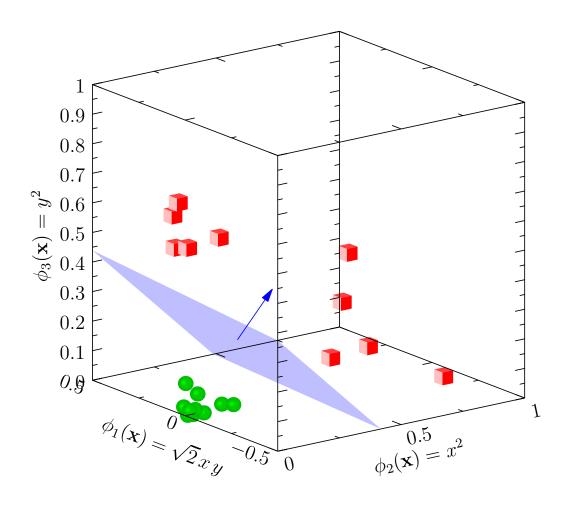
Advanced Machine Learning

Kernel Trick

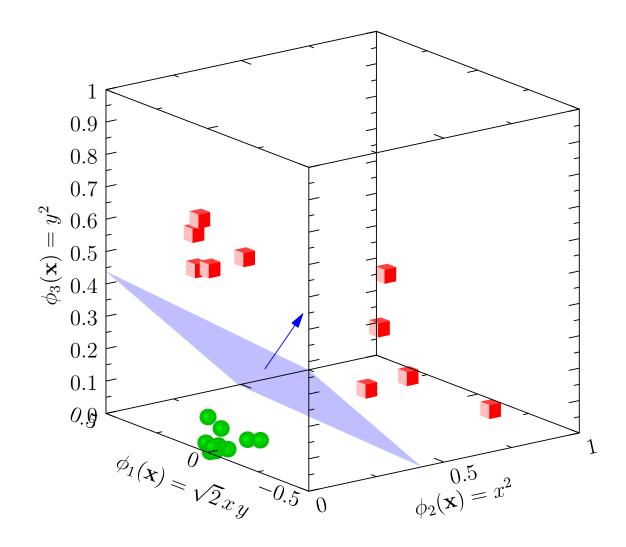


The Kernel Trick, SVMs, Regression

Outline

1. The Kernel Trick

- PositiveSemi-DefiniteKernels
- 3. Kernel Properties
- 4. Beyond Classification



SVM Kernels

SVM Kernels are functions of two variables that can be factorised

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) \rangle = \sum_{i} \phi_{i}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_{i}(\boldsymbol{y})$$

- where $\phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), ...)^T$ and $\phi_i(x)$ are real valued functions of x!
- K(x,y) will be positive semi-definite (because it is an inner-product)
- Furthermore, any positive semi-definite function will factorise
- This factorisation is not always obvious (we return to this later)

Dual Form

Recall that the dual problem for an SVM is

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=1}^{m} \alpha_k \alpha_l y_k y_l \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_k), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_l) \rangle$$

- subject to $\sum\limits_{k=1}^m y_k \alpha_k = 0$ and $0 \leq \alpha_k (\leq C)$
- But since $K(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_l) = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_k), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_l) \rangle$ the dual problem becomes

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=1}^{m} \alpha_k \alpha_l y_k y_l K(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_l)$$

• This is the **kernel trick**—we never have to compute $\phi(x)$!

Classifying New Data

- Having trained the SVM we now have to use it
- ullet Given a new input x we decide on the class

$$y = \operatorname{sgn}(\langle {m w}, {m \phi}({m x})
angle - b)$$
 but ${m w} = \sum_{k=1}^m lpha_k y_k {m \phi}({m x}_k)$

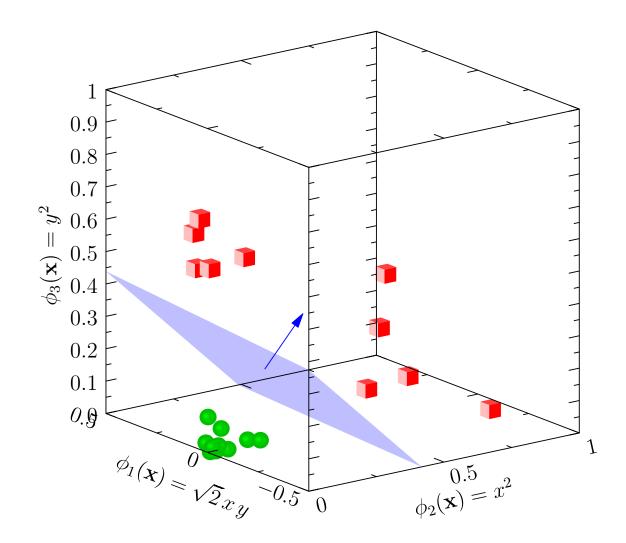
In the dual representation this becomes

$$\operatorname{sgn}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha_k y_k K(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}) - b\right)$$

where we only need to sum over the non-zero α_k (i.e. the support vectors SVs)

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Recap on Eigen Systems

ullet Recall for a symmetric (n imes n) matrix $oldsymbol{M}$ an eigenvector, $oldsymbol{v}$

$$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$

- There are n independent eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}^{(i)}$ with real eigenvalues $\lambda^{(i)}$
- The eigenvectors are orthogonal so that ${m v}^{(i)\mathsf{T}}{m v}^{(j)}=0$ if i
 eq j
- Forming a matrix of eigenvectors $\mathbf{V}=(\boldsymbol{v}^{(1)},\boldsymbol{v}^{(2)},...\,\boldsymbol{v}^{(n)})$ the matrix satisfies

$$\mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T} = \mathbf{I}$$

Such matrices are said to be orthogonal

Eigen Decomposition

ullet From the eigenvalue equation $oldsymbol{M} oldsymbol{v}^{(k)} = \lambda^{(k)} oldsymbol{v}^{(k)}$

$$\mathbf{MV} = \mathbf{V}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$$
 where $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$

ullet Multiplying on the right by ${f V}^{\sf T}$ we get

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{V} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T} = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda^{(k)} \boldsymbol{v}^{(k)} \boldsymbol{v}^{(k)\mathsf{T}}$$

Or

$$M_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda^{(k)} v_i^{(k)} v_j^{(k)} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} u_i^{(k)} u_j^{(k)} = \langle \boldsymbol{u}_i, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle$$

$$u_i^{(k)} = \sqrt{\lambda^{(k)}} v_i^{(k)}$$

Eigenfunctions

ullet By analogy for a symmetric function of two variables we can define an eigenfunction

$$\int K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \psi(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{y} = \lambda \psi(\boldsymbol{x})$$

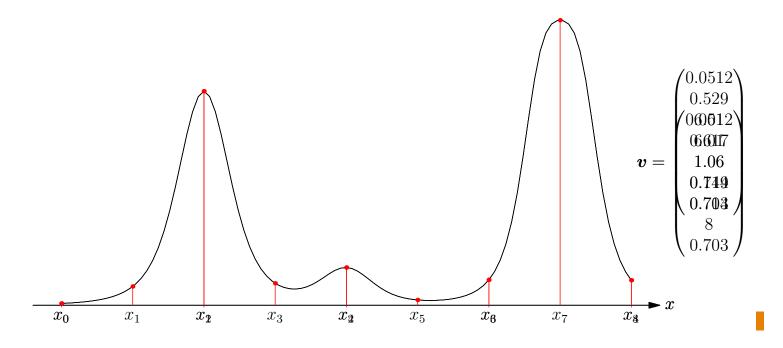
• In general there will be a denumerable set of eigenfunctions $\psi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x})$ where

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{k} \lambda^{(k)} \psi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \psi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{y})$$

This is known as Mercer's theorem.

Limit Process

Consider sampling a function at a set of points

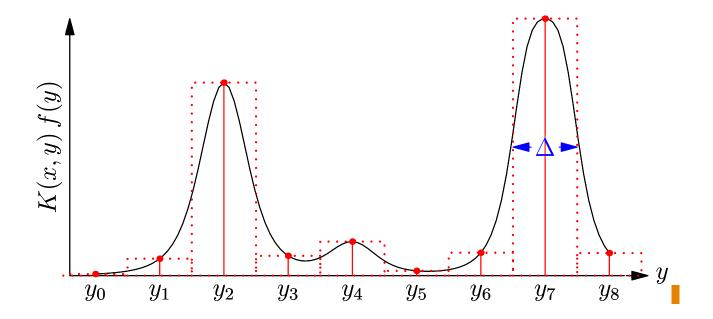


- In the limit where the number of sample points goes to infinity the vector more closely approximates a function.
- Instead of the indices being numbers we use $k \leftarrow x_k$

Linear Operators

ullet Recall a linear function $\mathcal{T}[f(x)]$ can be represented by a kernel

$$\mathcal{T}[f(x)] = \int_{y \in \mathcal{I}} K(x, y) f(y) dy \approx \Delta \sum_{j=1}^{n} K(x, y_j) f(y_j)$$



This is just a matrix equation with $M_{ij} = \Delta K(x_i, y_j)$

SVM Kernels

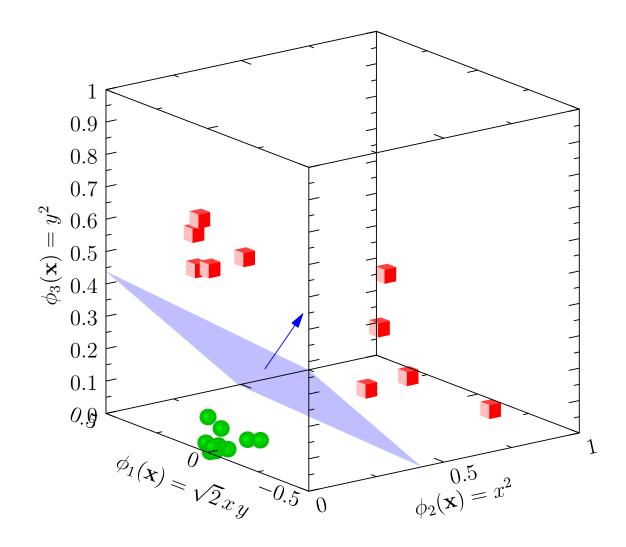
• If we define $\phi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sqrt{\lambda^{(k)}} \psi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x})$ then

$$K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{k} \lambda^{(k)} \psi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \psi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{k} \phi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathbb{I}$$

- This is the definition of a SVM kernel we started with
- Note that for $\phi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x})$ to be real $\lambda^{(k)} \geq 0$ for all k
- If $\lambda^{(k)} < 0$ then $\langle \phi(x), \phi(x) \rangle = \|\phi(x)\|^2$ might be negative and "distance" between points in the extended feature space can be negative!
- If we use a kernel that isn't positive semi-definite then the Hessian of the dual objective function will not be negative semi-definite and there will be a maximum where α diverges

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Positive Semi-Definite Kernels

- Kernels (or matrices) that have eigenvalues $\lambda^{(k)} \geq 0$ are called positive semi-definite
- (If the eigenvalues are strictly positive $\lambda^{(k)} > 0$ the kernels or matrices are called positive definite)
- Positive semi-definite kernels can always be decomposed into a sum of real functions

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) \rangle$$

Properties of Positive Semi-Definiteness

Since

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \left\langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) \right\rangle$$

ullet An immediate consequence is that for any function $f(oldsymbol{x})$

$$\int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y} = \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) \left\langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) \right\rangle f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y}$$

$$= \left\langle \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}, \int f(\boldsymbol{y}) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{y} \right\rangle$$

$$= \left\| \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x} \right\|^2 \ge 0$$

Positive Semi-Definiteness

- The following statements are equivalent
 - $\star K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is positive semi-definite (written $K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \succeq 0$)
 - \star The eigenvalues of $K({m x},{m y})$ are non-negative
 - * The kernel can be written

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) \rangle$$

where the $\phi^{(k)}(\boldsymbol{x})$'s are real functions

 \star For any real function f(x)

$$\int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y} \ge 0$$

Adding Kernels

- We can construct SVM kernels from other kernels
- If $K_1({m x},{m y})$ and $K_2({m x},{m y})$ are valid kernels then so is $K_3({m x},{m y})=K_1({m x},{m y})+K_2({m x},{m y})$

$$Q = \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K_3(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y}$$

$$= \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) \left(K_1(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) + K_2(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \right) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y}$$

$$= \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K_1(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y} + \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K_2(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y} \ge 0$$

• If $K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ is a valid kernel so is $cK(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ for c>0

Product of Kernels

- If $K_1(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ and $K_2(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ are valid kernels then so is $K_3(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})=K_1(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})K_2(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$
- Writing

$$K_1(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_i \phi_i^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_i^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{y}), \qquad K_2(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_j \phi_j^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_j^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{y})$$

then

$$K_3(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{i,j} \phi_i^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_i^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \phi_j^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_j^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \blacksquare$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} \phi_{ij}^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_{ij}^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \blacksquare = \left\langle \boldsymbol{\phi}^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \right\rangle \blacksquare$$

where
$$\phi_{ij}^{(3)}({m x})=\phi_i^{(1)}({m x})\phi_j^{(2)}({m x})$$

Exponentiating Kernels

- If $K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ is a valid kernel so is $K^n(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ (by induction)
 - \star Assume $K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})\succeq 0$ this satisfies base case
 - \star If $K^{n-1}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})\succeq 0$ then

$$K^n(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = K^{n-1}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \succeq 0$$

ullet and $\exp(K(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}))$ is also a valid kernel since

$$e^{K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i!} K^{i}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = 1 + K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) + \frac{1}{2} K^{2}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) + \cdots$$

but each term in the sum is a kernel

RBF Kernel

- Now $x^{\sf T}y=\langle x,y\rangle$ is a valid kernel because it is an inner product of functions $\phi(x)=x$
- For $\gamma > 0$ we have $2\gamma \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{y} \succeq 0$
- Thus $\exp(2\gamma \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{y}) \succeq 0$
- If $K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})\succeq 0$ then $g(\boldsymbol{x})K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})g(\boldsymbol{y})\succeq 0$

$$\int f(\boldsymbol{x})g(\boldsymbol{x})K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})g(\boldsymbol{y})f(\boldsymbol{y})\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y} = \int h(\boldsymbol{x})K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})h(\boldsymbol{y})\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y} \ge 0$$

where $f(\boldsymbol{x})g(\boldsymbol{x}) = h(\boldsymbol{x})$

$$e^{-\gamma \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}} e^{2\gamma \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{y}} e^{-\gamma \boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{y}} = e^{-\gamma \|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|^2} \succeq 0$$

Other Kernels

- The success of SVMs has meant that researchers try to increase the area of application
- The condition that a SVM kernel must be positive semi-definite is quite restrictive
- There has been a cottage industry of researchers finding smart kernels for solving complicated problems
- The key to finding new kernels is to use the properties of kernels to build more complicated kernels from simpler ones

String Kernels

- One area where SVMs were very important is in document classification
- This requires comparing strings
- There are a large number of kernels developed to do this

Spectrum Kernel

- A simple way to compare documents is to collect a histogram of all occurrences of substrings of length p
- This is known as a p-spectrum
- A p-spectrum kernel counts the number of common substrings

$$s=$$
 statistics $\mathcal{S}_3(s)=\{$ sta,tat,ati,tis,ist,sti,tic,ics $\}$ $t=$ computation $\mathcal{S}_3(t)=\{$ com,omp,mpu,put,uta,tat,ati,tio,ion $\}$

• K(s,t)=2 ("tat" and "ati")

All Subsequences Kernel

- A more sophisticated kernel is to count all of the common subsequences that occur in two documents
- Naively this would take an exponential amount of time to compute!
- Using clever dynamic-programming techniques this can be done relatively efficiently.
- This can even be extended to include sub-sequence matches with possible gaps between words

Other Kernel Applications

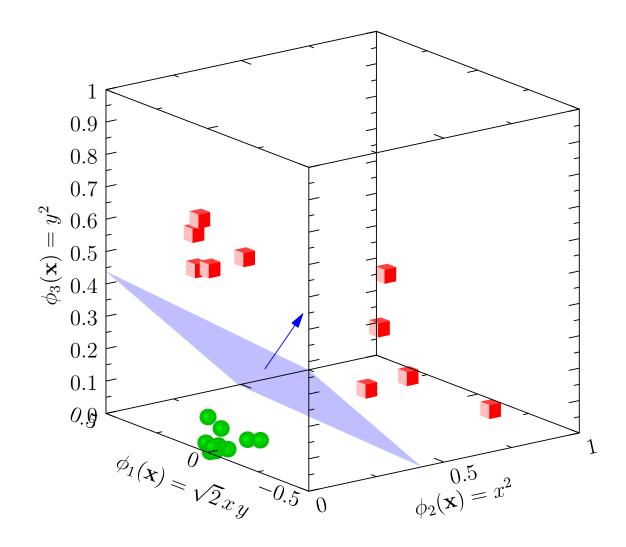
- String kernels for comparing subsequences are used in bioinformatics
- Kernels have been developed for comparing trees (e.g. for computer program evaluation, XML, etc.)
- Kernels have also been developed for comparing graphs (e.g. for comparing chemicals based on their molecular graph)

Fisher Kernels

- In an attempt to build kernels that capture more domain knowledge, kernels are constructed from other learning machines
- An example of this are "Fisher kernels" whose features come from an Hidden Markov Model (HMM) trained on the data
- These tend to have better discriminative power than the underlying model (HMM), and has a better feature set than a SVM using a generic kernel

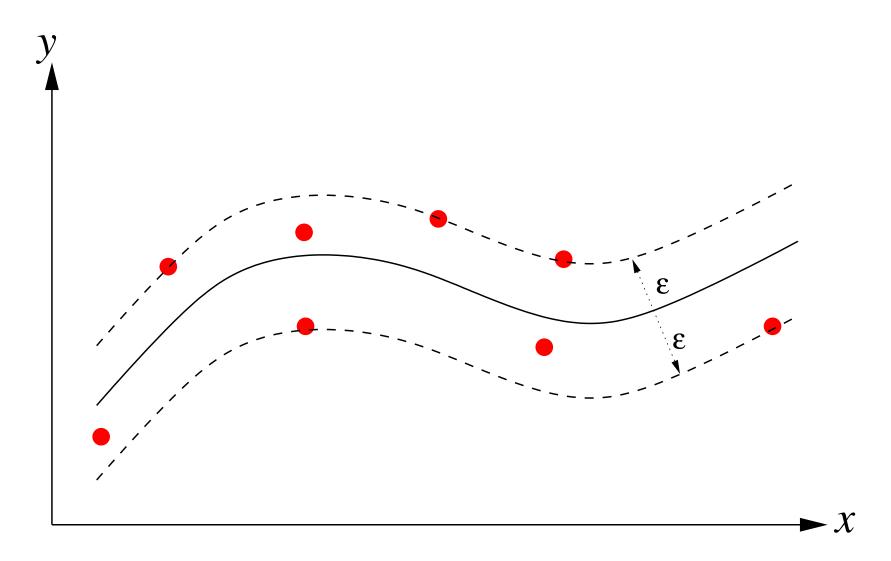
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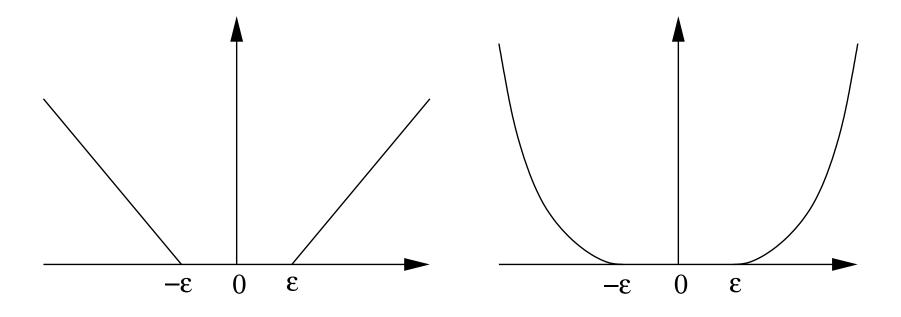
Regression with Margins

• SVMs can be modified to perform regression



Error Functions

Can introduce slack variables with different errors



• This can be transformed to a quadratic programming problem

Ridge Regression Using Kernels

- We can also solve regression problems without using margins
- To solve a regression problem once again the problem is set up as a quadratic programming problem

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \lambda \|\boldsymbol{w}\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y_i - \boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)\right)^2$$

- ullet the $\|oldsymbol{w}\|^2$ is a regularisation term
- By assuming ${m w}=\sum_i \alpha_i {m \phi}({m x}_i)$ we obtain a quadratic equation for the α_i 's which we can solve!

Kernel Methods

- Kernel methods where we project into an extended feature space are used with other linear algorithms
 - ★ Kernel Fisher discriminant analysis (KFDA)
 - ★ Kernel principle component analysis (KPCA)
 - Kernel canonical correlation analysis (KCCA)
 - ★ Gaussian Processes
- These are also extremely powerful machine learning algorithms

Summary

- SVMs require a positive definite kernel function
- These can be built from simpler function
- There was a cottage industry of people creating new kernels for different application
- SVMs are just one example of a host of machine that
 - * use the kernel trick
 - ⋆ often use linear constraints
 - ★ tend to be convex optimisation problems