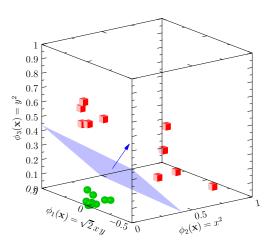
Advanced Machine Learning

Kernel Trick



The Kernel Trick, SVMs, Regression

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SVM Kernels

• SVM Kernels are functions of two variables that can be factorised

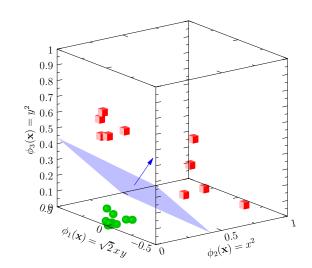
$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y}) \rangle = \sum_i \phi_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_i(\boldsymbol{y})$$

- where $\phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), ...)^\mathsf{T}$ 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)

Outline

1. The Kernel Trick

- 2. Positive
 Semi-Definite
 Kernels
- 3. Kernel Properties
- 4. Beyond Classification



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Dual Form

• Recall that the dual problem for an SVM is

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

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

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

• 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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Classification

2. Positive

4. Beyond

Kernels

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 $0.5 \\ \phi_2(\mathbf{x}) = x^2$

Recap on Eigen Systems

• Recall for a symmetric $(n \times n)$ matrix M an eigenvector, v

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

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

$$oldsymbol{MV} = oldsymbol{V}oldsymbol{\Lambda} \qquad \qquad \text{where} \quad oldsymbol{\Lambda} = egin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

• Multiplying on the right by V^T we get

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

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

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

0.9

0.8

0.7

0.3

0.20.1

Eigenfunctions

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

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

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

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

• This is known as Mercer's theorem

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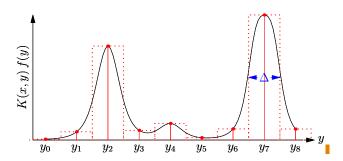
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Linear Operators

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

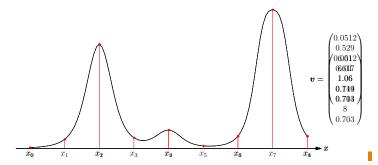
$$\mathcal{T}[f(x)] = \int_{y \in \mathcal{I}} K(x,y) f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y \, \mathbf{1} \approx \Delta \sum_{j=1}^{n} K(x,y_j) f(y_j) \, \mathbf{1}$$



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

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 $k \leftarrow x_k$

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SVM Kernels

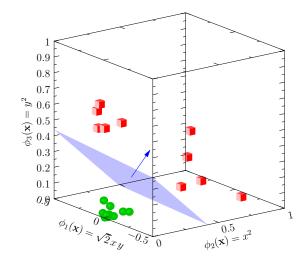
ullet If we define $\phi^{(k)}(oldsymbol{x}) = \sqrt{\lambda^{(k)}} \psi^{(k)}(oldsymbol{x})$ then

$$K({m x},{m y}) = \sum_k \lambda^{(k)} \psi^{(k)}({m x}) \psi^{(k)}({m y}) = \sum_k \phi^{(k)}({m x}) \phi^{(k)}({m y})$$

- 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

Outline

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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

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

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Properties of Positive Semi-Definiteness

Since

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

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

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

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

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

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

Positive Semi-Definiteness

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

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

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

 \star For any real function f(x)

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

Adding Kernels

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

$$\begin{split} Q &= \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K_3(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y} \\ &= \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) \left(K_1(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) + K_2(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \right) f(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y} \\ &= \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K_1(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y} + \int f(\boldsymbol{x}) K_2(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y} \geq 0 \end{split}$$

• If K(x,y) is a valid kernel so is cK(x,y) for c>0

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Exponentiating Kernels

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

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

• and $\exp(K(x,y))$ 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

Product of Kernels

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

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

then

$$\begin{split} K_3(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) &= \sum_{i,j} \phi_i^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_i^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \phi_j^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_j^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathbb{I} \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \phi_{ij}^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{x}) \phi_{ij}^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \mathbb{I} = \left\langle \phi^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{x}), \phi^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{y}) \right\rangle \mathbb{I} \end{split}$$

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

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RBF Kernel

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

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

where f(x)q(x) = h(x)

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

Other Kernels String 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

- 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

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Spectrum Kernel

- ullet 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

$$s = \text{statistics}$$
 $S_3(s) = \{\text{sta}, \text{tat}, \text{ati}, \text{tis}, \text{ist}, \text{sti}, \text{tic}, \text{ics}\}$
 $t = \text{computation}$ $S_3(t) = \{\text{com}, \text{omp}, \text{mpu}, \text{put}, \text{uta}, \text{tat}, \text{ati}, \text{tio}, \text{ion}\}$

• 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

Fisher Kernels

- 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)

- 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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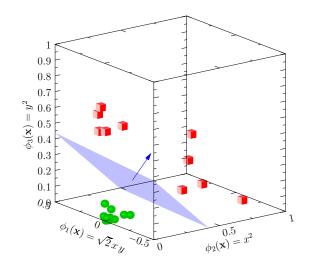
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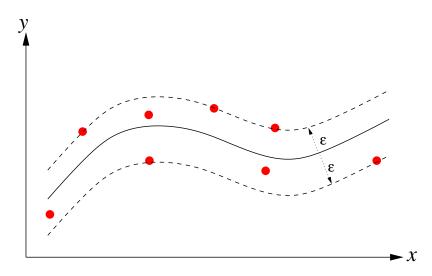
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Regression with Margins

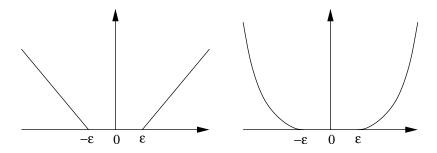
• SVMs can be modified to perform regression



Error Functions

Ridge Regression Using Kernels

• Can introduce slack variables with different errors



• This can be transformed to a quadratic programming problem

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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

- 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

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

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

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