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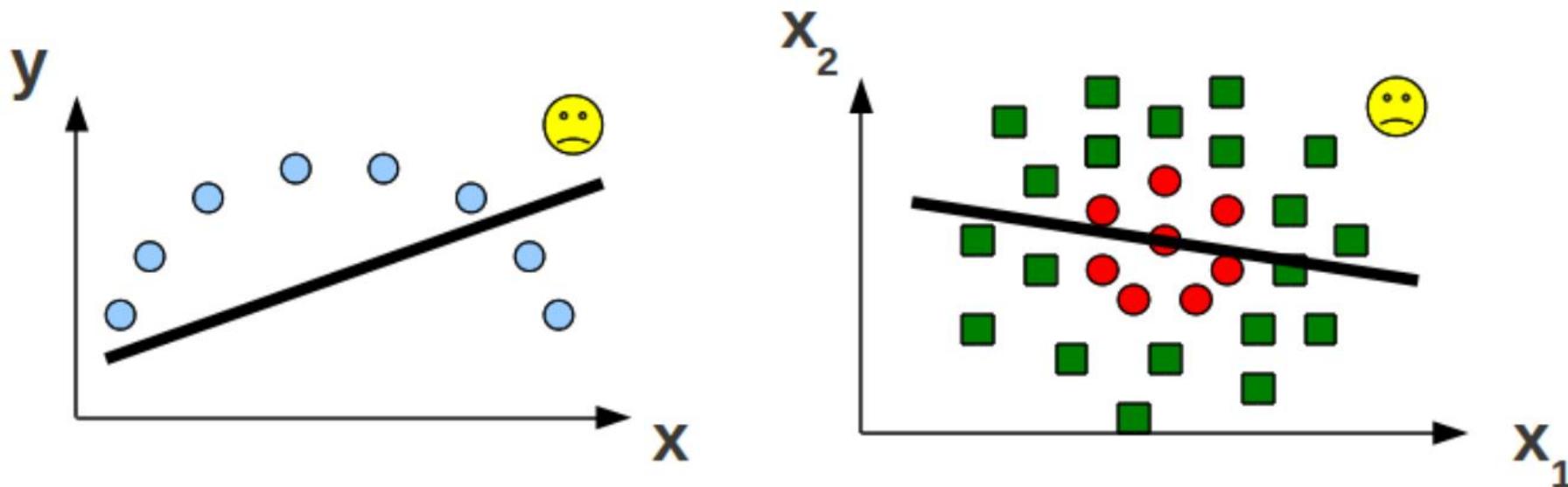
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The Kernel Trick

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Limits of linear Models

- Nice and interpretable but can't learn nonlinear patterns



- So, are linear models useless for such problems?

Linear Models for Nonlinear Problems

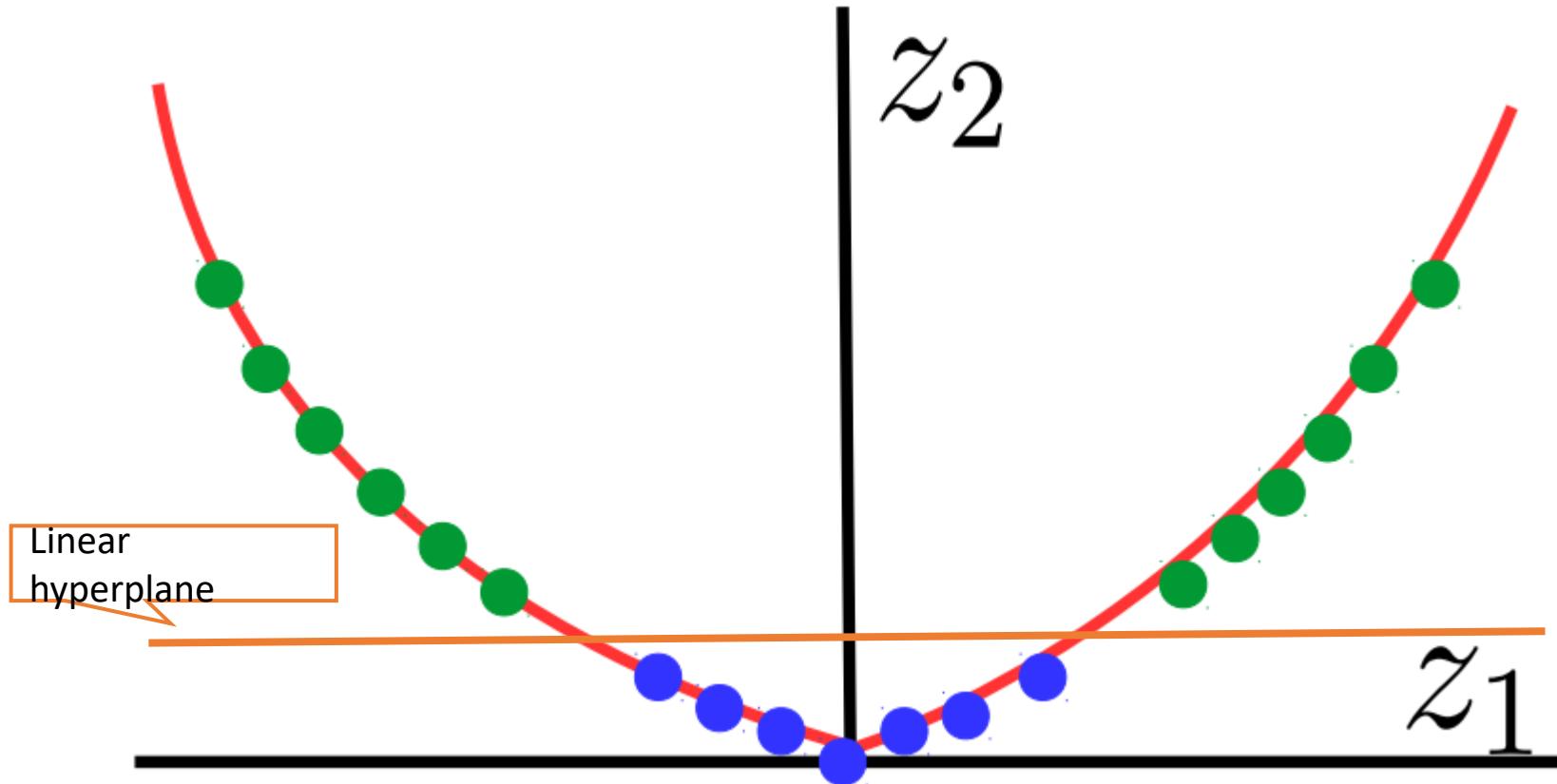
- Consider the following one-dimensional inputs from two classes



- Can't separate using a linear hyperplane

Linear Models for Nonlinear Problems

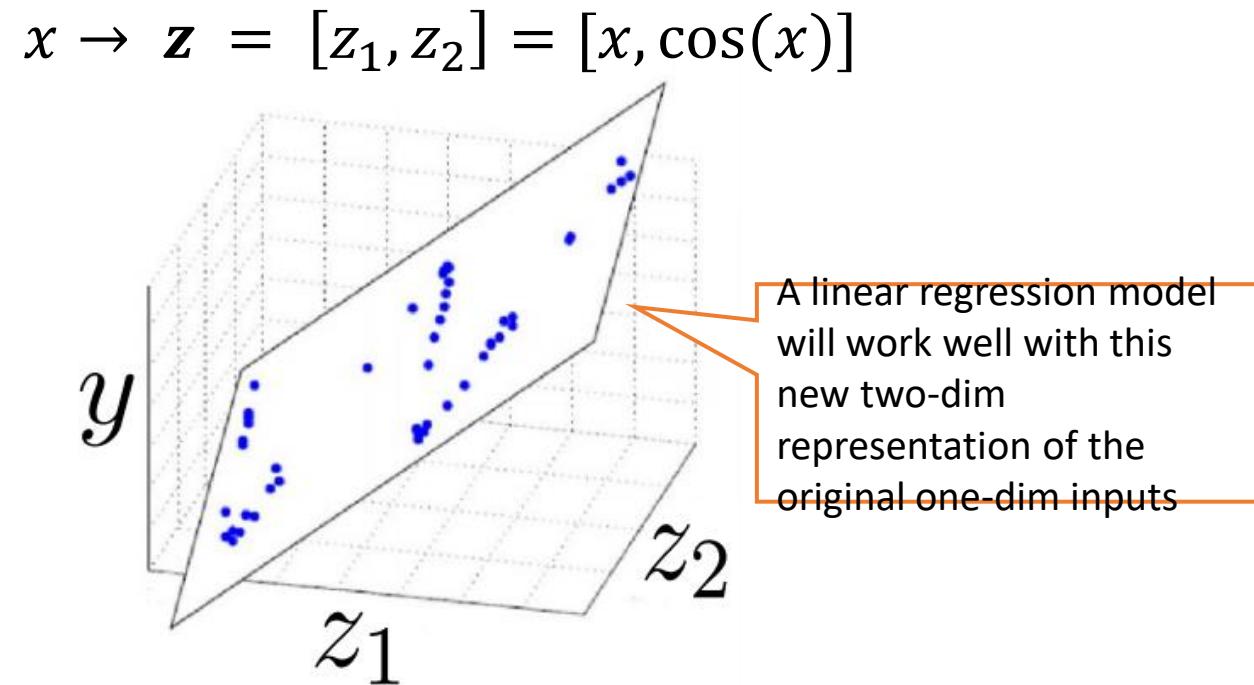
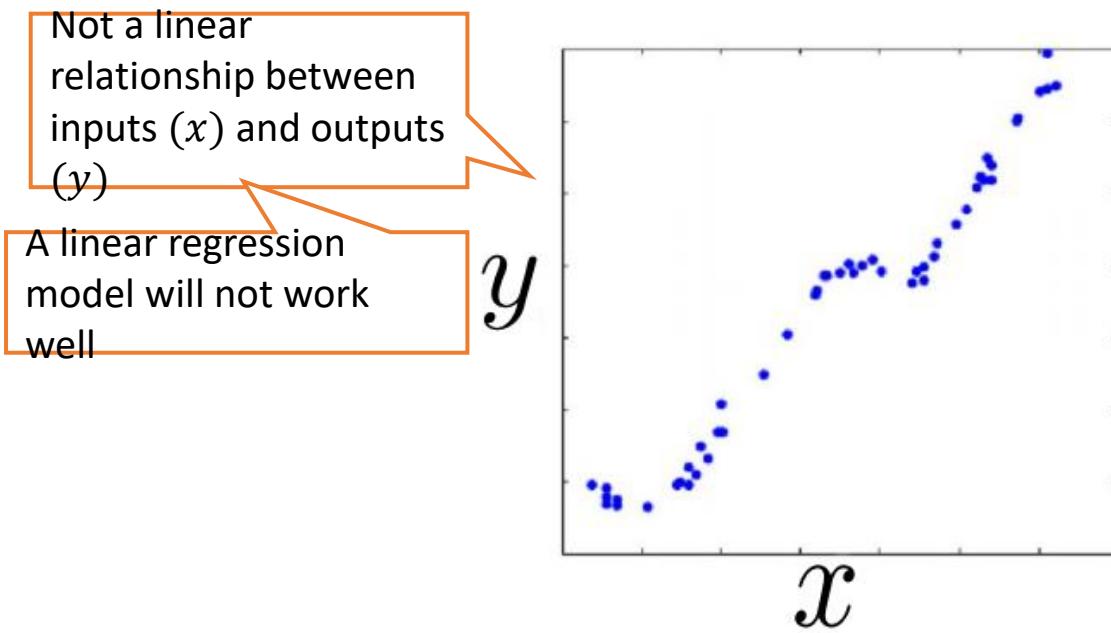
- Consider mapping each x to two-dimensions as $x \rightarrow z = [z_1, z_2] = [x, x^2]$



- Classes are now linearly separable in the two-dimensional space

Linear Models for Nonlinear Problems

- The same idea can be applied for nonlinear regression as well

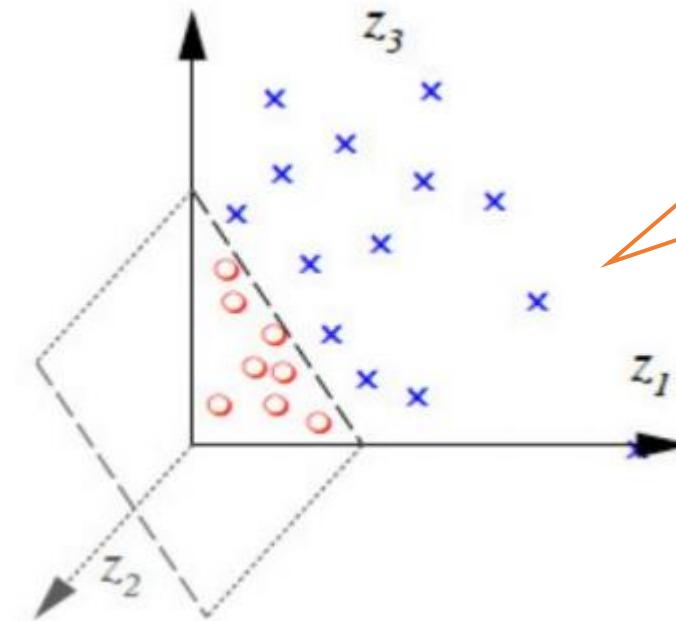
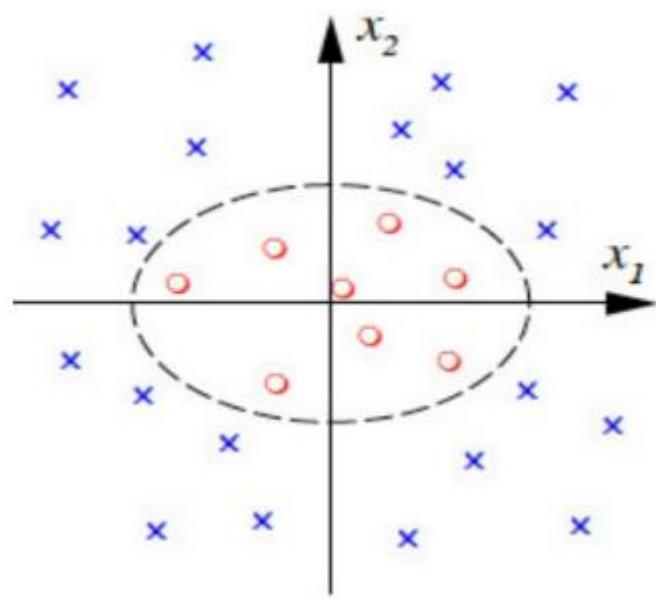


Linear Models for Nonlinear Problems

- Can assume a feature mapping ϕ that maps/transforms the inputs to a “nice” space

$$\phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

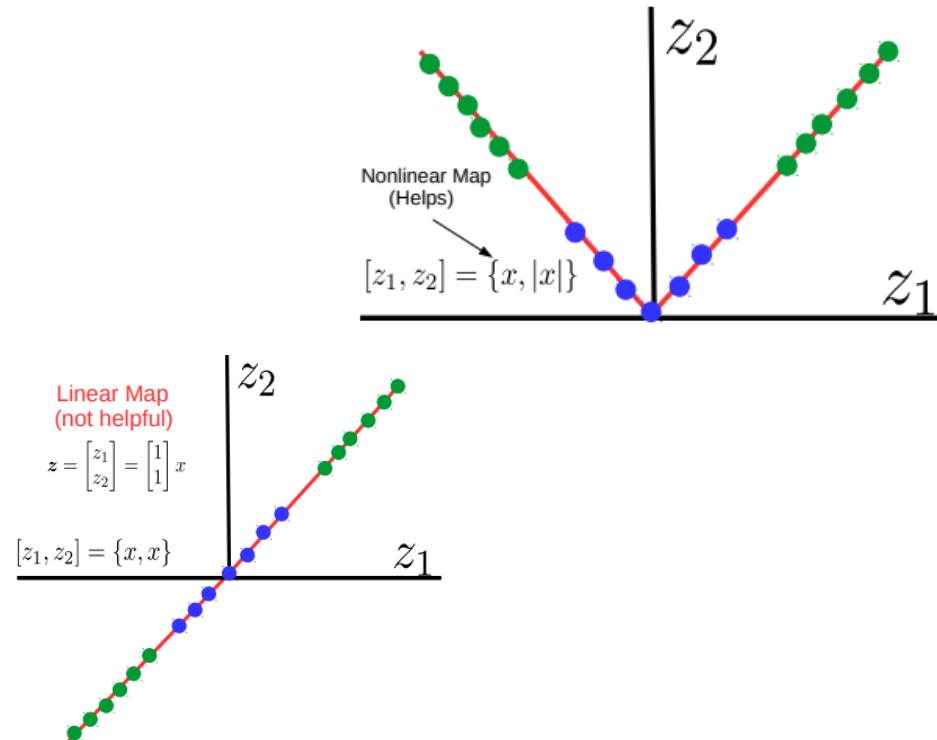
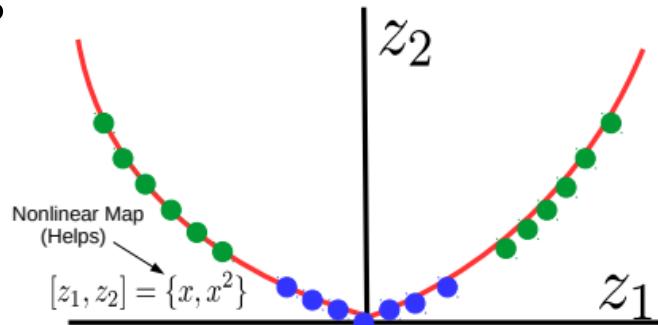
$$(x_1, x_2) \mapsto (z_1, z_2, z_3) := (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2)$$



- .. and then happily apply a linear model in the new space!

Not Every Mapping is Helpful

- Not every higher-dim mapping helps in learning nonlinear patterns
- Must be a nonlinear mapping
- For the nonlinear classification problem we saw earlier, consider some possible mappings



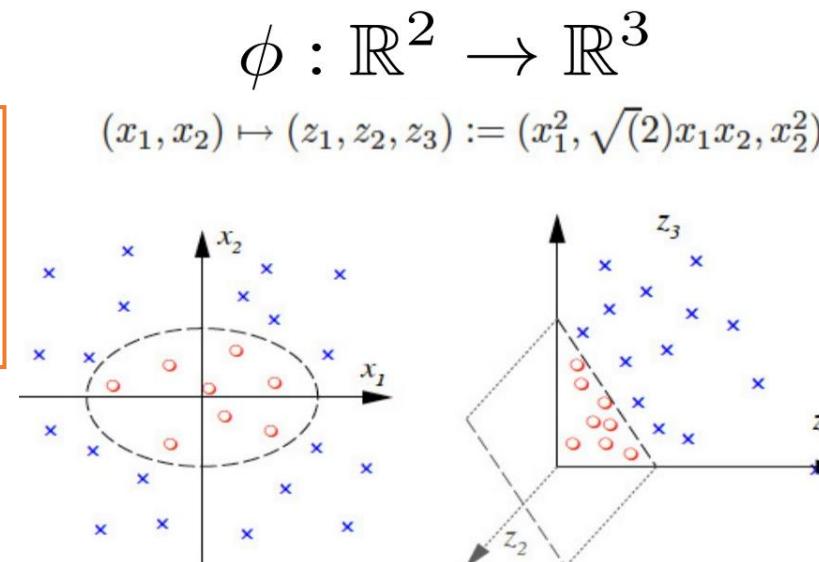
How to get these “good” (nonlinear) mappings?

- Can try to learn the mapping from the data itself (e.g., using **deep learning** - later)
- Can use pre-defined “good” mappings (e.g., defined by kernel functions - today’s topic)



Even if I knew a good mapping, it seems I need to apply it for every input. Won’t this be computationally expensive?

Also, the number of features will increase? Will it not slow down the learning algorithm?



- Kernel: A function $k(.,.)$ that gives dot product similarity b/w two inputs, say x_n and x_m

Important: As we will see, computing $k(.,.)$ does not require computing the mapping ϕ

$$k(x_n, x_m) = \phi(x_n)^\top \phi(x_m)$$

Thankfully, using kernels, you don’t need to compute these mappings explicitly



The kernel will define an “implicit” feature mapping

Important: The idea can be applied to any ML algo in which training and test stage only require computing pairwise similarities b/w inputs

In a high-dim space implicitly defined by an underlying mapping ϕ associated with this kernel function $k(.,.)$

Kernels as (Implicit) Feature Maps

- Consider two inputs (in the same two-dim feature space): $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2], \mathbf{z} = [z_1, z_2]$

Called the "kernel function"

we have a function $k(\cdot, \cdot)$ which takes two inputs

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2$$

Can think of this as a notion of similarity b/w \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z}

This is not a dot/inner product similarity but similarity using a more general function of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} (square of dot product)

Didn't need to compute $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ explicitly. Just using the definition of the kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2$ implicitly gave us this mapping for each input

$$= (x_1 z_1 + x_2 z_2)^2$$

$$= x_1^2 z_1^2 + x_2^2 z_2^2 + 2x_1 x_2 z_1 z_2$$

$$= (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2, x_2^2)^\top (z_1^2, \sqrt{2}z_1 z_2, z_2^2)$$

$$= \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \phi(\mathbf{z})$$

Dot product similarity in the new feature space defined by the mapping ϕ

Remember that a kernel does two things: Maps the data implicitly into a new feature space (feature transformation) and computes pairwise similarity between any two inputs under the new feature representation



Thus kernel function $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2$ implicitly defined a feature mapping ϕ such that for $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2], \phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2, x_2^2)$

- Also didn't have to compute $\phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \phi(\mathbf{z})$. Defn $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2$ gives that

Kernel Functions

As we saw, kernel function $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{z})^2$ implicitly defines a feature mapping ϕ such that for a two-dim $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]$, $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\underline{x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2})$

- Every kernel function k implicitly defines a feature mapping ϕ
- ϕ takes input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ (e.g., \mathbb{R}^D) and maps it to a new “feature space” \mathcal{F}
- The kernel function k can be seen as taking two points as inputs and computing their inner-product based similarity in the \mathcal{F}

$$\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$$

$$k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \phi(\mathbf{z})$$

For some kernels, as we will see shortly, $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ (and thus the new feature space \mathcal{F}) can be very **high-dimensional** or even be **infinite dimensional** (but we don't need to compute it anyway, so it is not an issue)

- \mathcal{F} needs to be a vector space with a dot product defined on it (a.k.a. a **Hilbert space**)
- Is any function $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \phi(\mathbf{z})$ for some ϕ a kernel function?
 - No. The function k must satisfy **Mercer's Condition**

Kernel Functions

- For $k(.,.)$ to be a kernel function
 - k must define a dot product for some Hilbert Space
 - Above is true if k is **symmetric and positive semi-definite (p.s.d.)** function (though there are exceptions; there are also “indefinite” kernels)

For all “square integrable” functions f
 (such functions satisfy $\int f(x)^2 dx < \infty$)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x})$$

$$\iint f(\mathbf{x})k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})f(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{x}d\mathbf{z} \geq 0$$

Loosely speaking a PSD function here means that if we evaluate this function for N inputs (N^2 pairs) then the $N \times N$ matrix will be PSD (also called a kernel matrix)

- The above condition is essentially known as Mercer’s Condition
- Let k_1, k_2 be two kernel functions then the following are also
 - $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$: simple sum
 - $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \alpha k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$: scalar product
 - $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$: direct product of two kernels

Can easily verify that the Mercer’s Condition holds

Can also combine these rules and the resulting function will also be a kernel function

Some Pre-defined Kernel Functions

- Linear kernel: $k(x, z) = x^T z$
- Quadratic Kernel: $k(x, z) = (x^T z)^2$ or $k(x, z) = (1 + x^T z)^2$
- Polynomial Kernel (of degree d): $k(x, z) = (x^T z)^d$ or $k(x, z) = (1 + x^T z)^d$
- Radial Basis Function (RBF) or “Gaussian” Kernel: $k(x, z) = \exp[-\gamma \|x - z\|^2]$
 - Gaussian kernel gives a similarity score between 0 and 1
 - $\gamma > 0$ is a hyperparameter (called the kernel **bandwidth parameter**)
 - The RBF kernel corresponds to an **infinite dim. feature space \mathcal{F}** (i.e., you can't actually write down or store the map $\phi(x)$ explicitly – but we don't need to do that anyway ☺)
 - Also called “**stationary kernel**”: only depends on the distance between x and z (translating both by the same amount won't change the value of $k(x, z)$)
- Kernel hyperparameters (e.g., d, γ) can be set via cross-validation

Several other kernels proposed for non-vector data, such as trees, strings, etc

Remember that kernels are a notion of similarity between pairs of inputs



Kernels can have a pre-defined form or can be learned from data (a bit advanced for this course)

Controls how the distance between two inputs should be converted into a similarity

RBF Kernel = Infinite Dimensional Mapping

- We saw that the RBF/Gaussian kernel is defined as $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \exp[-\gamma \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}\|^2]$
- Using this kernel corresponds to mapping data to infinite dimensional space

$$\begin{aligned}
 k(x, z) &= \exp[-(x - z)^2] \quad \text{(assuming } \gamma = 1 \text{ and } x \text{ and } z \text{ to be scalars)} \\
 &= \exp(-x^2) \exp(-z^2) \exp(2xz) \\
 &= \exp(-x^2) \exp(-z^2) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^k x^k z^k}{k!} \\
 &= \phi(x)^T \phi(z)
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus an infinite-dim vector (ignoring the constants coming from the 2^k and $k!$ terms)

- Here $\phi(x) = [\exp(-x^2)x^1, \exp(-x^2)x^2, \exp(-x^2)x^3, \dots, \exp(-x^2)x^\infty]$
- But again, note that we never need to compute $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ to compute $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$
 - $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ is easily computable from its definition itself ($\exp[-(x - z)^2]$ in this case)

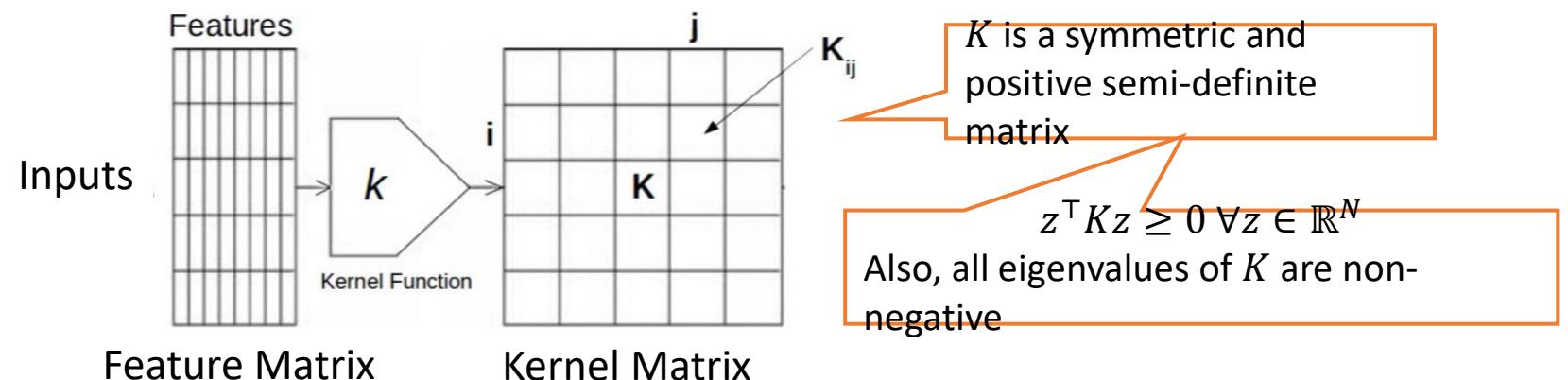
Kernel Matrix

- Kernel based ML algos work with **kernel matrices** rather than feature vectors
- Given N inputs, the kernel function k can be used to construct a Kernel Matrix \mathbf{K}
- The kernel matrix \mathbf{K} is of size $N \times N$ with each entry defined as

$$K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

Note again that we don't need to compute ϕ and this dot product explicitly

- K_{ij} : Similarity between the i^{th} and j^{th} inputs in the kernel induced feature space ϕ



References

CS771: Intro to Machine Learning (Fall 2021), Nisheeth Srivastava, IIT Kanpur