# Kernel-Based Learning & Multivariate Modeling

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## Kernel-Based Learning & Multivariate Modeling

### **Syllabus**

- Sep 10 Introduction to kernel-based learning
- **Sep 17** The SVM for classification, regression & novelty detection (I)
- Oct 01 The SVM for classification, regression & novelty detection (II)
- Oct 08 Kernel design (I): theoretical issues
- Oct 15 Kernel design (II): practical issues
- Oct 22 Kernelizing ML & stats algorithms
- Oct 29 Advanced topics

#### Introduction

Desiderata for satisfactory learning methods (my particular view):

Robustness to outliers, errors and/or wrong model assumptions

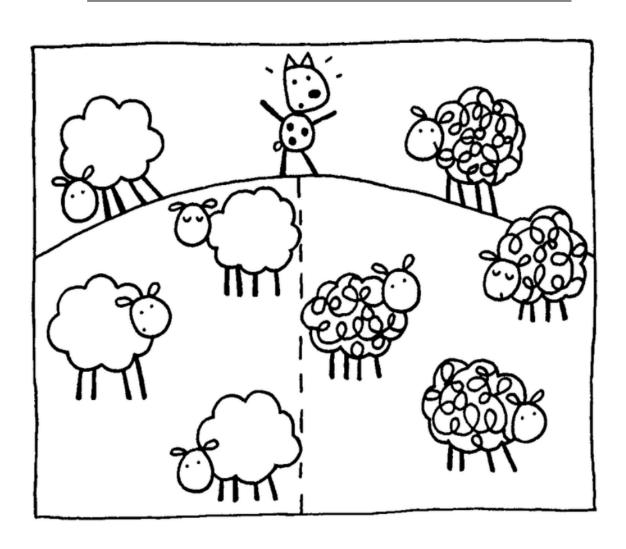
**Stability** against variations of the training data samples

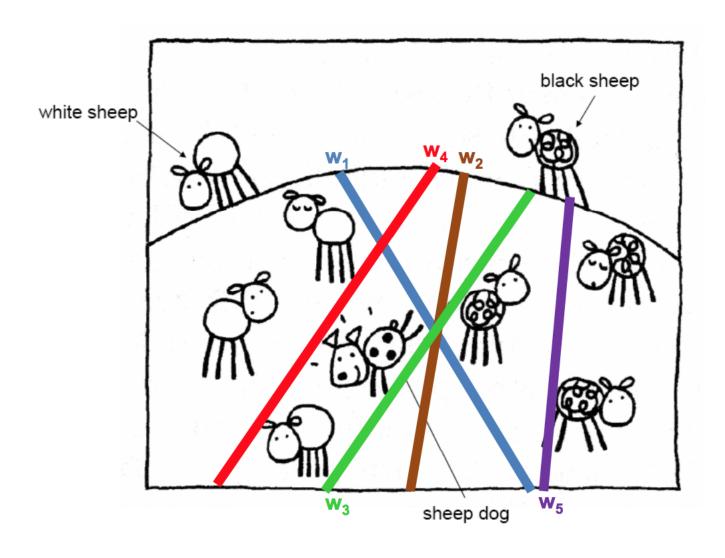
**Efficiency** in the computational sense (necessary to handle large datasets)

Flexibility to deliver complexity surplus and accept explicit complexity control

Versatility to accept different data types, perform different tasks and encode prior knowledge

⇒ Generalize well to unseen data (as well as possible)





#### Introduction

Kernel methods constitute a very powerful paradigm:

- provide a principled way to perform non linear, nonparametric learning;
- rely on solid functional analytic foundations and enjoy optimal statistical properties;
- they have been successfully applied to a wide range of data analysis problems;
- are specially well suited for high-dimensional data, noisy environments or heterogenous information (unlike other approaches like neural networks)

#### Introduction

- the number of hyper-parameters is usually very small compared to other approaches (again unlike neural networks);
- their main limitations are:
  - their difficult applicability in large data scenarios because of stringent computational requirements in terms of time and (especially) memory;
  - the unability to extract increasingly abstract features from the data ("single hidden layer", unlike, yes, neural networks!)
- → Kernel methods are a central tool in machine learning

### Key aspects of kernel methods

- 1. Input data is embedded (mapped) into a vector space
- 2. Linear relations are sought among the elements of this vector space
- 3. The coordinates of the images (mapped data) are *not* needed: only their **pairwise inner products**
- 4. Often these inner products can be computed (efficiently and implicitly) in the input space (via a **kernel function**)  $\rightarrow$  the PROMISE

#### Introduction

Kernel-based methods consist of two ingredients:

1. The (right) **kernel function** to convert input data into a similarity matrix

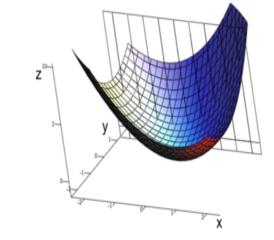
$$K = \begin{bmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & k(x_1, x_2) & \cdots & k(x_1, x_n) \\ k(x_2, x_1) & k(x_2, x_2) & \cdots & k(x_2, x_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_n, x_1) & k(x_n, x_2) & \cdots & k(x_n, x_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

2. The **learning algorithm** that uses the kernel matrix and the data to produce a model that performs a prescribed task

#### Introduction

A kernel function is:

- 1. a special case of similarity measure;
- 2. a positive semi-definite function;



3. a general inner product in a (special) Hilbert space

It must be psd so that optimization problems can be convex and, therefore, *uniquely* solvable by standard algorithms (moreover, there is a *global* optimum)

#### Introduction

- kernel functions can be used to analyze virtually any kind of data (and to express many forms of previous knowledge) without preprocessing the data
- kernel functions allow the obtention of more general (non-linear) versions of learning algorithms as long as they are base on inner products or Euclidean distances

#### Introduction

#### Examples of **kernel functions**:

- RBF kernels
- Polynomial kernels
- String kernels
- Anova kernels
- Fisher kernels

#### Examples of (kernel) **learning algorithms**:

- Support Vector Machine (SVM) and Relevance Vector Machine (RVM)
- kernel Fisher Discriminant Analysis (FDA)
- kernel Principal Components analysis (PCA)
- kernel Canonical Correspondence analysis (CCA)
- kernel (regularized) regression (logistic, linear)
- kernel k-means

#### Introduction

Designing/choosing an appropriate kernel function is not easy in general:

• Consider the **RBF** kernel:

$$k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x'}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x'}\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right), \ \sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

- ullet All information of a problem (besides the target values) is tunneled through the kernel matrix  ${f K}=(k_{ij})$ , where  $k_{ij}:=k(x_i,x_j)$
- ullet if  $\sigma^2$  is very small, then  $\mathbf{K} pprox \mathbf{I}$  (all data are dissimilar): over-fitting
- ullet if  $\sigma^2$  is very large, then  ${f K} pprox {f J}$  (all data are similar): under-fitting

#### **Notation**

We have a data sample  $D = \{(x_1, t_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n)\}$ 

- ullet  $(oldsymbol{x}_i,t_i)$  are drawn i.i.d. from some unknown (joint) prob. distribution
- $x_i \in \mathcal{X}, t_i \in \mathcal{T}$  (input space, output space)

### Linear regression

**Problem**: We wish to find a function  $f(x) = w^{\top}x$  which best models a data set D for the case  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $\mathcal{T} = \mathbb{R}$ 

- If  $f(x) = w^{\top}x + w_0$ , add one dimension  $x := (1, x^{\top})^{\top}$ ;  $w := (w_0, w^{\top})^{\top}$
- ullet Call  $\mathbf{X}_{n imes d}$  the matrix of the  $oldsymbol{x}_i^ op$  and  $oldsymbol{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_n)^ op$
- If D is generated as (x, f(x)) for some f, the  $x_i$  vectors are linearly independent and n = d, then there is a unique solution for  $\mathbf{X}w = t$  given by  $\hat{w} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}t$ ; in any other case, the problem is ill-posed

### Ill-posed & well-posedness

A problem is **ill-posed** if the solution may not always exist, is not uniquely determined or is unstable (small variations in the initial conditions of the problem cause the solution to change quite a lot).

• Learning problems are in general ill-posed.



Jacques Hadamard (1865-1963)

• The solution is to use an **inductive principle**; one of (1865-1963) the most popular is the **regularization** principle.

### Ridge regression

Under the standard assumptions  $t_i = f(x_i) + \varepsilon_i$  and  $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , a maximum likelihood argument leads to the minimization of the regularized empirical error (a.k.a penalized likelihood):

$$E_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{w}) := \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=0}^{d} w_j^2 = (\boldsymbol{t} - \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{t} - \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}$$

- 1. Note  $E_{\lambda}(w) = ||t Xw||^2 + \lambda ||w||^2$
- 2. The parameter  $\lambda > 0$  defines a trade-off between the fit to the data and the complexity of the model (length of w in this case)

### Ridge regression: primal representation

Setting  $\nabla w E_{\lambda} = 0$ , we obtain the (regularized) normal equations

$$-2\mathbf{X}^{\top}(t - \mathbf{X}w) + 2\lambda w = 0$$

with solution  $\hat{w} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I}_d)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}t$ 

and therefore  $f(x) = \hat{w}^{\top} x = t^{\top} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_d)^{-1} x$ .

- 1. Since X is  $n \times d$ , the matrix  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}$  is  $d \times d$
- 2.  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_d$  always has an inverse, for all  $\lambda > 0$
- 3. The "model size" does not grow with data size (a parametric model)

### **Dual representation**

It turns out that the regularized solution can also be written as:

$$\hat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i x_i$$

In consequence,

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i x_i^{\top} x$$

- 1. The vector of parameters  $\hat{\alpha} = (\hat{\alpha}_1, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_n)^{\top}$  is  $\hat{\alpha} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}t$
- 2. The **Gram matrix**  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top}$  ("matrix of inner products") is  $n \times n$

#### Primal and dual

So we have the **primal** and the **dual** forms for f(x):

$$f(x) = \widehat{w}^{ op} x = \sum_{j=0}^d \widehat{w}_j x_j$$
 and  $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{\alpha}_i x_i^{ op} x_i^{ op}$ 

The dual form is more convenient when d >> n:

- The primal requires the computation and inversion of  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_d$ , requiring  $O(nd^2+d^3)$  operations
- The dual requires the computation and inversion of  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_n$ , requiring  $O(dn^2 + n^3)$  operations

### How can we perform non-linear regression?

First create a *feature map*, a function  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^D$ , with  $D \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$ 

$$x \mapsto \phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \cdots, \phi_D(x))^{\top}$$

- ullet  $\phi(x)$  is called a *feature vector*
- ullet  $\{\phi(x):x\in\mathbb{R}^d\}$  is the *feature space* (possibly part of a larger vector space)
- ullet as a technicality, we could easily add  $\phi_0(x)=1$  as before, if desired

### Hilbert spaces

The right structure for this vector space  $\mathcal{H}$  is that of a **Hilbert space**:

• A vector space endowed with an **inner product**  $\langle , \rangle$  whose associated norm defines a complete metric



David Hilbert (1862-1943)

- $\bullet$  Completeness means that all Cauchy sequences defined Hilbert in  ${\cal H}$  converge to an element of  ${\cal H}$  (1862-
- $\bullet$  Example: the  $l_2$  space of square-summable sequences

(informally) Generalizes the notion of Euclidean space: an infinite-dimensional space with the structure of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  (distances, lenghts and angles are well-defined)

The regression function has now the primal representation:

$$f(x) = \langle w, \phi(x) \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{D} w_j \phi_j(x)$$

- ullet This feature space has the structure of  $\mathbb{R}^D$  (a vector space)
- In consequence, there is also the dual representation:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i \langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x) \rangle$$

(BTW, how general are all these results?)

### Feature maps and kernels (1)

Given a feature map  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathcal{H}$ , being  $\mathcal{H}$  a Hilbert space, we define its associated **kernel function**  $k: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  as:

$$k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x'}) = \langle \phi(\boldsymbol{x}), \phi(\boldsymbol{x'}) \rangle, \qquad \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x'} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

One key point is that, for some feature maps, computing k(x, x') is independent of D (the dimension of  $\mathcal{H}$ )

 $\rightarrow$  the PROMISE!!!

### Feature maps and kernels (2)

Our regression function has now the dual representation:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i \langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i k(x_i, x)$$

This dual representation:

- ... is a **non-linear model** (in the input space)
- ... is a **linear model** (in the feature space)

We then have a **non-parametric model** (complexity grows with data size)

### Back to ridge regression ...

The new vector of parameters  $\hat{\alpha}=(\hat{\alpha}_1,\ldots,\hat{\alpha}_n)^{\top}$  is now given by  $\hat{\alpha}=(\mathbf{K}+\lambda\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}t,$ 

where (as introduced earlier)  $\mathbf{K} = (k_{ij})$ , with  $k_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ .

So we can do ridge regression based only on  ${\mathbf K}$  (and throw away  ${\mathbf X}$ )

→ this is called **Kernel ridge regression** (KRR)

### Kernel ridge regression

What if we take the (simplest) choice  $\phi(x) = x$ ? In this case d = D and  $k(x, x') = \langle x, x' \rangle = x^{\top}x'$ . The regularized solution reads:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i x_i^{\top} x$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}t,$$

(so  $K = XX^{\top}$  in this particularly simple case)

This means we have generalized (the dual of) standard ridge regression via a kernel function (we have **kernelized** it!)

### Kernelizing ...

Many (classical and new) learning algorithms can be kernelized:

- 1. They require solving a problem where the data appear in the form of pairwise inner products (or pairwise Euclidean distances)
- 2. The solution is expressed as a linear combination of the kernel function centered at the data (ideally we only use *some* of the data: **sparsity**)
- 3. Examples include SVMs, ridge regression, perceptrons, FDA, PLS [supervised], as well as PCA, k-means, Parzen Windows [unsupervised]

### General feature maps

A feature map is of the general form  $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{H}$ 

The associated kernel function  $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$  is:

$$k(x, x') = \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle, \qquad x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$$

 ${\mathcal X}$  can be any space,  ${\mathcal H}$  is always a (special case of) Hilbert space

In our starting development,  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$ 

### Regularization-based learning algorithms

The key for this is the **regularization framework**; consider again the regularized empirical error for mapped data:

$$E_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \phi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \rangle)^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2, \qquad \lambda > 0$$

which we now generalize to arbitrary **loss** functions  $L: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ :

$$E_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(t_i, \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \phi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \rangle) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2, \qquad \lambda > 0$$

### Regularization-based learning algorithms

**Theorem (informal)**. If L is differentiable w.r.t. its second argument and  $\hat{w}$  is a minimizer of  $E_{\lambda}(w)$ , then we can represent:

$$\hat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i \phi(x_i)$$

and therefore

$$f(x) = \langle \hat{w}, \phi(x) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_i k(x_i, x)$$

This result is usually called the **Representer Theorem**. In the case of KRR,  $\hat{\alpha} = (K + \lambda I_n)^{-1}t$ .