Recitation 5 Kernels

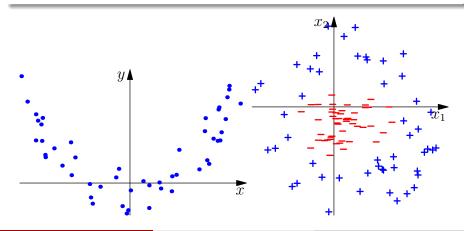
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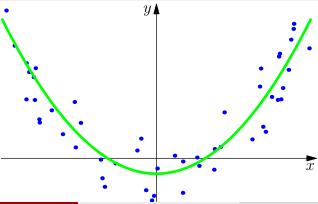
Question

Consider applying linear regression to the data set on the left, and an SVM to the data set on the right. What is the issue?



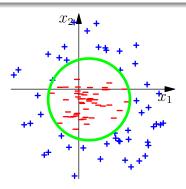
Regression Solution

Using features $(1, x, x^2)$ and w = (-.1, 0, 1) gives us $f_w(x) = -.1 + 0x + 1x^2 = x^2 - .1$. Our prediction function is quadratic but we obtained it through standard linear methods.



SVM Solution

For the SVM we expand our feature vector from $(1, x_1, x_2)$ to $(1, x_1, x_2, x_1x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2)$. Using w = (-1.875, 2.5, -2.5, 0, 1, 1) gives $-1.875 + 2.5x_1 - 2.5x_2 + x_1^2 + x_2^2 = (x_1 + 1.25)^2 + (x_2 - 1.25)^2 - 5 = 0$ as our decision boundary.



- Linear model is clearly insufficient to represent these problems.
- The most intuitive solution is to expand the input space
 - Adding features
- We can define a **feature map function** $\varphi(x): \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{H}$
 - $dim(\mathcal{H}) > dim(\mathcal{X})$
 - For ridge regression, $\varphi(1,x) = [1,x,x^2]$.
 - For SVM, $\varphi(1, x_1, x_2) = [1, x_1, x_2, x_1x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2].$
- ullet We then find a linear separator on the feature space ${\cal H}.$

Adding Features

approximate any function.

From undergrad Calc (Taylor's Thm), we learned polynomials can

- We can linearly model any problem perfectly if we add enough terms.
- But adding features obviously comes with a cost.
- The cost grows exponentially as we increase the degree.

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Adding Features

Question

Suppose we begin with *d*-dimensional inputs $x = (x_1, ..., x_d)$. We add all features up to degree M. More precisely, all terms of the form

$$x_1^{p_1}\cdots x_d^{p_d}$$
 $p_i\geq 0$ and $p_1+\cdots+p_d\leq M$

How many features will we have in total?

- There will be $\binom{M+d}{M}$ terms total. If M is fixed and we let d grow, this behaves like $\frac{d^M}{M!}$
- Both *M* and *d* impacts the cost of adding features.
- If we stick with polynomial features up to order M, it's takes exponential time $O(d^M)$ to compute all features.
- What if we don't want to reduce the model complexity? How do we make the computation feasible?

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Representer Theorem (Baby Version)

Theorem ((Baby) Representer Theorem)

Suppose you have a loss function of the form

$$J(w) = L(w^T \varphi(x_1), \dots, w^T \varphi(x_n)) + R(\|w\|_2)$$

where

- $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $w \in \mathbb{R}^{d'}$, $\varphi(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{d'}$.
- $L: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is an arbitrary function (loss term).
- $R: \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}$ is increasing (regularization term).

Assume J has at least one minimizer. Then J has a minimizer w^* of the form $w^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \varphi(x_i)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If R is strictly increasing, then all minimizers have this form.

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Representer Theorem

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 Recitation 5
 Feb 23
 9/32

Representer Theorem: Proof

Proof.

- Let $w^* \in \mathbb{R}^{d'}$ and let $S = \operatorname{Span}(\varphi(x_1), \dots, \varphi(x_n))$.
- Suppose w^* is the optimal parameter, and it **does not lie in** S.
- Then we can write $w^* = u + v$ where $u \in S$ and $v \in S^{\perp}$. (Here u is the orthogonal projection of w^* onto S, and S^{\perp} is the subspace of all vectors orthogonal to S.)
- Then $(w^*)^T \varphi(x_i) = (u+v)^T \varphi(x_i) = u^T \varphi(x_i) + v^T \varphi(x_i) = u^T \varphi(x_i)$. So the prediction only depends on $u^T \varphi(x_i)$.
- But $||w^*||_2^2 = ||u+v||_2^2 = ||u||_2^2 + ||v||_2^2 + 2u^Tv = ||u||_2^2 + ||v||_2^2 \ge ||u||_2^2$.
- Thus $R(\|w^*\|_2) \ge R(\|u\|_2)$ showing $J(w^*) \ge J(u)$.



Recitation 5 Feb 23 10 / 32

Representer Theorem

• If your loss function only depends on w via its inner products with the inputs, and the regularization is an increasing function of the ℓ_2 norm, then we can write w^* as a linear combination of the training data.

The Kernel Function

Definition (Kernel)

Given a feature map $\varphi(x): \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Z}$, the **kernel function** corresponding to $\varphi(x)$ is

$$k(x, x') = \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(x') \rangle$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is an inner product operator.

- So a kernel function computes the inner product of applying the feature map $\varphi(x)$ for two inputs $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$.
- We only need to know the output of the kernel to find the parameters.
- Predictor function is:

$$f(x^*) = \sum_i \alpha_i k(x_i, x^*)$$

12/32

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Efficiency of Kernel

Consider the polynomial kernel $k(x,y) = \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle = (1 + x^T y)^M$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$. For example, if M = 2 we have

$$(1+x^{T}y)^{2} = 1+2x^{T}y+x^{T}yx^{T}y$$

= 1+2\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_{i}y_{i} + \sum_{i,j=1}^{d} x_{i}y_{i}x_{j}y_{j}.

Option 1: First explicitly evaluate $\varphi(x)$ and $\varphi(y)$, and then compute $\langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle$.

- $\varphi(x) = (1, \sqrt{2}x_1, \dots, \sqrt{2}x_d, x_1^2, \dots, x_d^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_3, \dots, \sqrt{2}x_{d-1}x_d)$
- Takes $O(d^M)$ times to evaluate $\varphi(x)$ and $\varphi(y)$.
- Takes another $O(d^M)$ times to compute the inner product.
- Time complexity is $O(d^M)$.

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13 / 32

Efficiency of Kernel

Consider the polynomial kernel $k(x,y) = \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle = (1+x^Ty)^M$ where $x,y \in \mathbb{R}^d$. This computes the inner product of all monomials up to degree M in time O(d). For example, if M=2 we have

$$(1+x^{T}y)^{2} = 1+2x^{T}y+x^{T}yx^{T}y$$

= 1+2\sum_{i=1}^{d}x_{i}y_{i}+\sum_{i,j=1}^{d}x_{i}y_{i}x_{j}y_{j}.

Option 2: First calculate $1 + x^T y$, then calculate $(1 + x^T y)^M$.

- Takes O(d) time to evaluate $1 + x^T y$.
 - Takes O(1) time to calculate $(1 + x^T y)^M$
 - Time complexity is O(d)

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14 / 32

Recap on what we achieved

- Start with a low dimensional model
 - Due to limited input data size
 - Number of parameters is d
- Want to increase the model capacity by adding features $x_i \to \varphi(x_i)$
 - The cost is too high as we increase degrees
 - Number of parameters is d', d' >> d
- Realize the optimal parameter is a linear combination of $\varphi(x_i)$
 - Representer Theorem
 - Number of parameters becomes N, d' >> N > d
- Realize we only need the inner produce of two $\varphi(x_i)$, $k(\cdot, \cdot)$
 - We don't need to compute $\varphi(\cdot)$
 - Greatly reduces computation cost
- The rephrased problem becomes a linear problem
 - But the solution still has high dimensional expressive power!

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Mercer's Theorem

- Not all function f(x, y) are valid kernels. Why?
- $k(x, y) = \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle$
- How can we know if k(x, y) is a valid kernel or not?

Theorem (Mercer's Theorem)

Fix a kernel $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$. There is a Hilbert space H and a feature map $\varphi: \mathcal{X} \to H$ such that $k(x,y) = \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle_H$ if and only if for any $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$ the associated matrix K is positive semi-definite:

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

Such a kernel k is called **positive semi-definite**.

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Positive Semi-Definite

Definition (Positive Semi-Definite)

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is **positive semi-definite** if it is symmetric and

$$x^T A x \ge 0$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

 Equivalent to saying the matrix is symmetric with non-negative eigenvalues.

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 Recitation 5
 Feb 23
 17/32

Valid Kernels

A function k(x, y) is a valid kernel iff it satisfies all the properties of inner product:

- Symmetricity
 - k(x,y) = k(y,x).
- Non-negativity
 - $k(x,x) \ge 0$, equality holds when x = 0
- Linearity
 - k(ax, by) = abk(x, y)
- OR The Gram Matrix K is positive semi-definitive.

Kernel Examples

- Dot Product
 - $k(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$
- Mth Polynomial Kernels

•
$$k(x_i, x_j) = (1 + x_i^T x_j)^M$$

- RBF Kernels
 - $k(x_i, x_j) = exp(-\frac{||x_i x_j||^2}{2\sigma^2})$
- Sigmoid kernel
 - $k(x_i, x_j) = tanh(\alpha x_i^T x_j + c)$

Going to infinite dimension

- What is the polynomial expression of $\varphi(\cdot)$ for RBF and Sigmoid Kernel?
 - There are no finite expression, they are sum of infinite polynomials

•
$$\varphi(x) = e^{-x^2/2\sigma^2} \left[1, \sqrt{\frac{1}{1!\sigma^2}} x, \sqrt{\frac{1}{2!\sigma^4}} x^2, \sqrt{\frac{1}{3!\sigma^6}} x^3, \ldots \right]$$

- This implies we have essentially modeled the problem using a infinite degree polynomial!
- At this point, the factor limiting our model capacity is the amount of training data.

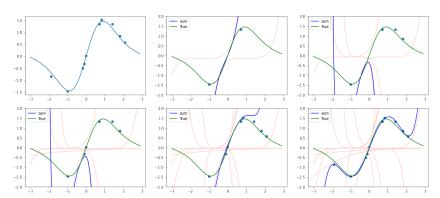
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 Recitation 5
 Feb 23
 20 / 32

What are Kernels doing

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 Recitation 5
 Feb 23
 21 / 32

What are Kernels doing

$$f(x) = \sin(x)e^{\cos(x)}$$



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 Feb 23
 22 / 32

Representer Theorem: Ridge Regression

By adding features to ridge regression we had

$$J(\tilde{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\tilde{w}^{T} \varphi(x_{i}) - y_{i})^{2} + \lambda ||\tilde{w}||_{2}^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} ||\Phi \tilde{w} - y||_{2}^{2} + \lambda \tilde{w}^{T} \tilde{w},$$

where $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d'}$ is the matrix with $\varphi(x_i)^T$ as its *i*th row.

- Representer Theorem applies giving $\tilde{w} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \varphi(x_j) = \Phi^T \alpha$.
- Plugging in gives

$$J(\alpha) = \frac{1}{n} \left\| \Phi \Phi^{T} \alpha - y \right\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \alpha^{T} \Phi \Phi^{T} \alpha.$$

• Define $K = \Phi \Phi^T$

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Representer Theorem: Primal SVM

For a general linear model, the same derivation above shows

$$J(w) = L(\Phi w) + R(\|w\|_2)$$

becomes

$$J(\alpha) = L(K\alpha) + R(\sqrt{\alpha^T K\alpha}).$$

Here $\varphi(x_i)^T w$ became $(K\alpha)_i$.

• The primal SVM has loss function

$$J(w) = \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - y_i(\varphi(x_i)^T w))_+ + ||w||_2^2.$$

This is kernelized to

$$J(\alpha) = \frac{c}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - y_i(K\alpha)_i)_+ + \alpha^T K\alpha.$$

• Positive decision made if $(w^*)^T \varphi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(x_i, x) > 0$.

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 Recitation 5
 Feb 23
 24 / 32

Dual SVM

The dual SVM problem (with features) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{i=1}{\text{maximize}}_{\alpha} & & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \varphi(x_{i})^{T} \varphi(x_{j}) \\ & \text{subject to} & & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0 \\ & & \alpha_{i} \in \left[0, \frac{c}{n}\right] \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

- We can immediately kernelize (no representer theorem needed) by replacing $\varphi(x_i)^T \varphi(x_i) = k(x_i, x_i)$.
- Recall that we were able to derive the conclusion of the representer theorem using strong duality for SVMs.

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Remarks

- It's much easier to compute the kernel k(x, y) instead of the inner product.
- The kernel k(x, y), to some extent, represents a similarity score between two data points.
- The predictor function is basically assigning a value to the new value base on the values near it.
- We are almost guaranteed to overfit on training data (we have N data points and N parameters), regularization is very important.

Some Math that was skipped

- Pre-Hilbert Space
- Hilbert Space
- Orthogonality

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 Recitation 5
 Feb 23
 27 / 32

Inner Product Space (or "Pre-Hilbert" Spaces)

An inner product space (over reals) is a vector space $\mathcal V$ with an inner product, which is a mapping

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \to \mathbb{R}$$

that has the following properties: $\forall x, y, z \in \mathcal{V}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$:

- Symmetry: $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- Linearity: $\langle ax + by, z \rangle = a \langle x, z \rangle + b \langle y, z \rangle$
- Positive-definiteness: $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$ and $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$.

To show a function $\langle\cdot,\cdot\rangle$ is an inner product, we need to check the above conditions.

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28 / 32

Hilbert Space

- A pre-Hilbert space is a vector space equipped with an inner product.
- We need an additional technical condition for Hilbert space: completeness.
- A space is complete if all Cauchy sequences in the space converge to a point in the space.

Definition

A **Hilbert space** is a complete inner product space.

Example

Any finite dimensional inner produce space is a Hilbert space.

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Orthogonality (Definitions)

Definition

Two vectors are **orthogonal** if $\langle x, x' \rangle = 0$. We denote this by $x \perp x'$.

Definition

x is orthogonal to a set S, i.e. $x \perp S$, if $x \perp s$ for all $x \in S$.

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30 / 32

Pythagorean Theorem

Theorem (Pythagorean Theorem)

If
$$x \perp x'$$
, then $||x + x'||^2 = ||x||^2 + ||x'||^2$.

Proof.

We have

$$||x + x'||^{2} = \langle x + x', x + x' \rangle$$

$$= \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, x' \rangle + \langle x', x \rangle + \langle x', x' \rangle$$

$$= ||x||^{2} + ||x'||^{2}.$$



References

• DS-GA 1003 Machine Learning Spring 2021

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