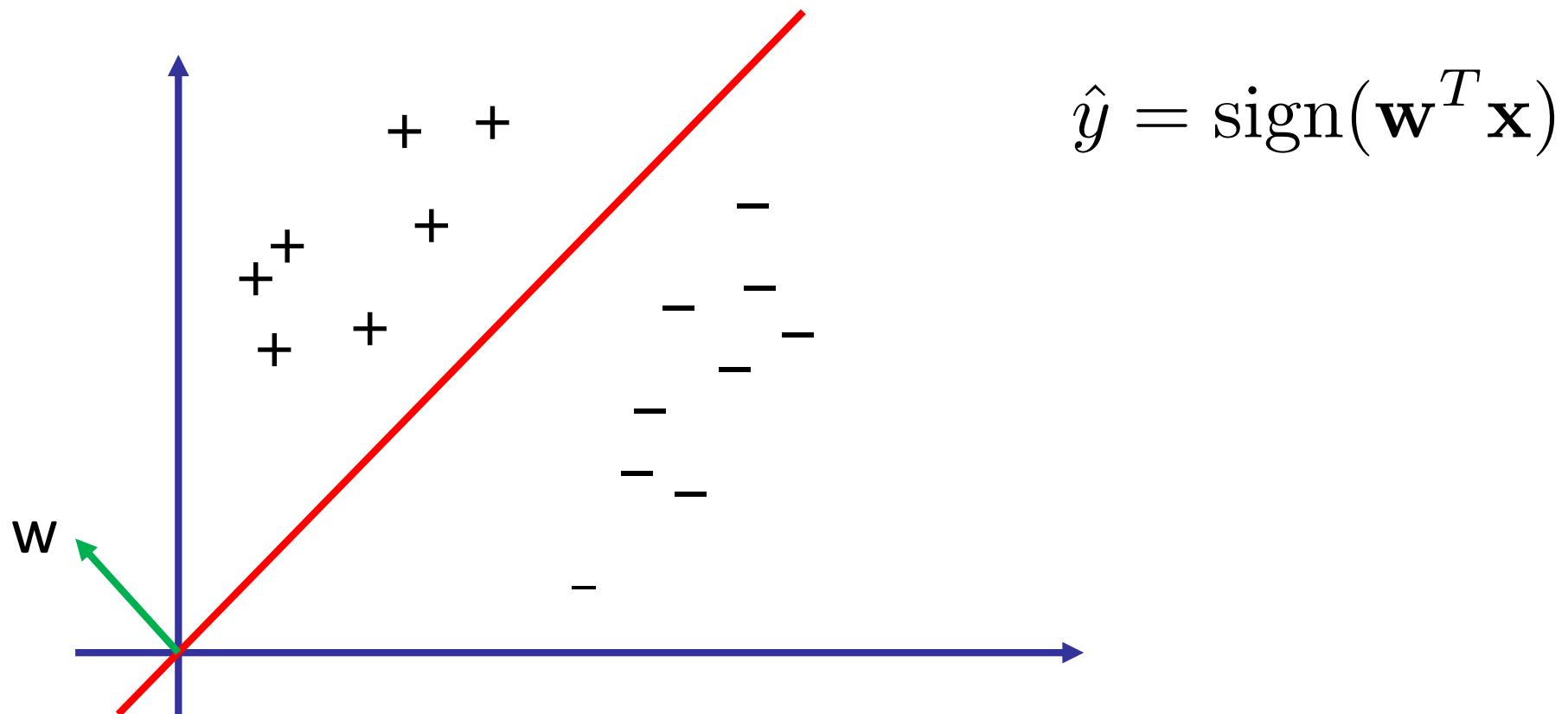


Introduction to Machine Learning

Non-linear prediction with kernels

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Recall: Linear classifiers



Recall: The Perceptron problem

- Solve

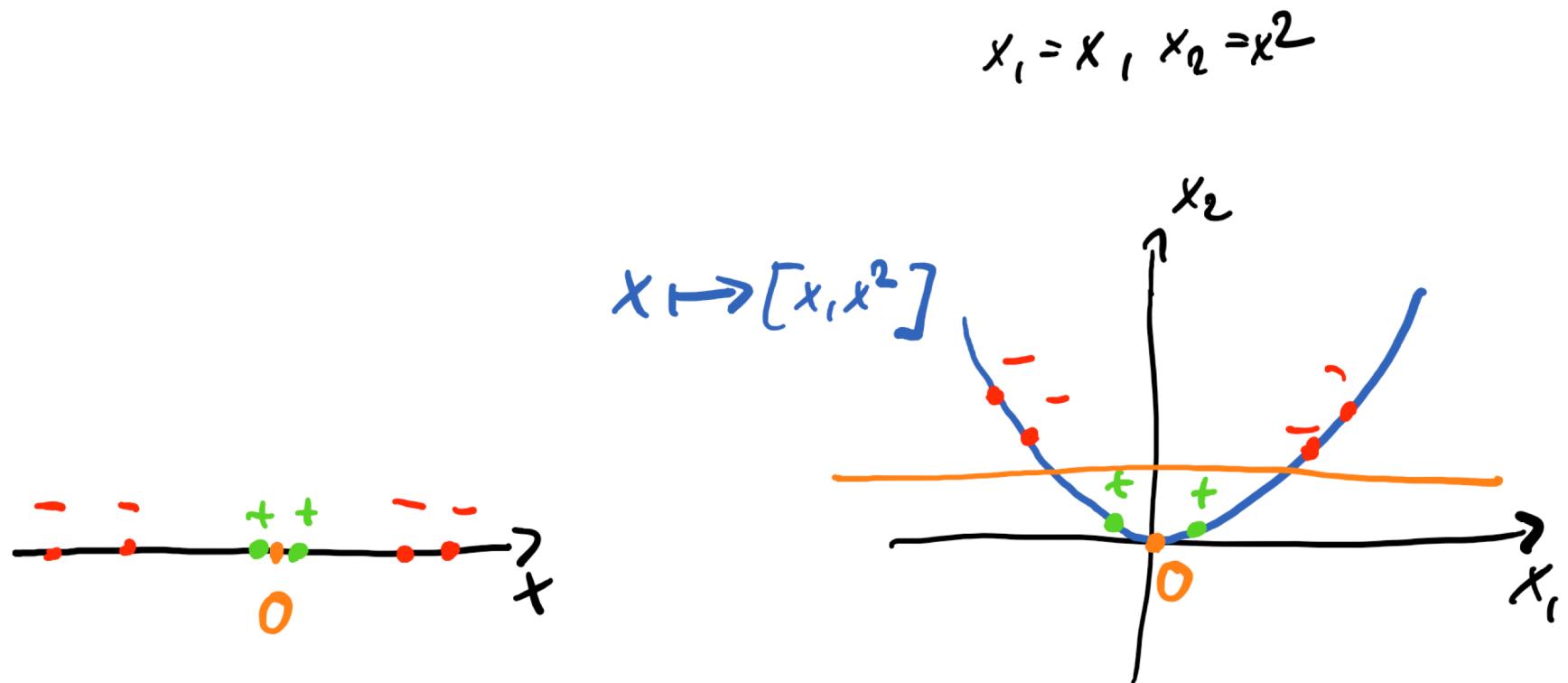
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell_P(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$$

where $\ell_P(\mathbf{w}; y_i, \mathbf{x}_i) = \max(0, -y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$

- Optimize via Stochastic Gradient Descent

Solving non-linear classification tasks

- How can we find nonlinear classification boundaries?
- Similar as in regression, can use **non-linear transformations** of the feature vectors, followed by linear classification



Recall: linear regression for polynomials

- We can fit non-linear functions via linear regression, using nonlinear features of our data (basis functions)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i \phi_i(\mathbf{x})$$

- For example: polynomials (in 1-D)

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m w_i x^i$$

Polynomials in higher dimensions

- Suppose we wish to use polynomial features, but our input is higher-dimensional
- Can still use monomial features
- **Example:** Monomials in 2 variables, degree = 2

$$x = [x_1, x_2] \quad \mapsto \phi(x) = [x_1^2, x_2^2, x_1 \cdot x_2]$$

Avoiding the feature explosion

- Need $O(d^k)$ dimensions to represent (multivariate) polynomials of degree k on d features
- **Example:** $d=10000, k=2 \rightarrow$ Need $\sim 100M$ dimensions
- In the following, we can see how we can efficiently **implicitly** operate in such high-dimensional feature spaces (i.e., without ever explicitly computing the transformation)

Revisiting the Perceptron/SVM

- **Fundamental insight:** Optimal hyperplane lies in the span of the data

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

for some $\alpha_{1:n} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- **(Handwavy) proof:** (Stochastic) gradient descent starting from 0 constructs such a representation

Perceptron: $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \eta_t y_t \mathbf{x}_t$ [$y_t \mathbf{w}_t^T \mathbf{x}_t < 0$]

SVM: $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t(1 - 2\lambda\eta_t) + \eta_t y_t \mathbf{x}_t$ [$y_t \mathbf{w}_t^T \mathbf{x}_t < 1$]

- **More abstract proof:** Follows from the „representer theorem“ (not discussed here)

Reformulating the Perceptron

$$(*) \quad \hat{w} \in \underset{w \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\operatorname{argmin}}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, -y_i w^\top x_i)$$

(t)

$$\text{Ansatz: } \hat{w} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_j x_j$$

$$(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\left(0, -y_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_j x_j\right)^\top x_i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \max\left(0, -y_i \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_j (x_j^\top x_i)\right)$$

$$(*) = \hat{w} \in \underset{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \max\left(0, -y_i \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_j (x_j^\top x_i)\right)$$

Advantage of reformulation

$$\hat{\alpha} = \arg \min_{\alpha_{1:n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max \left\{ 0, - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_i y_j \underbrace{\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j}_{k(x_i, x_j)} \right\}$$

- **Key observation:** Objective only depends on **inner products** of pairs of data points
- Thus, we can **implicitly** work in high-dimensional spaces, as long as we can do inner products efficiently

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \phi(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' &\mapsto \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}') =: k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')\end{aligned}$$

„Kernels = efficient inner products“

- Often, $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ can be computed much more efficiently than $\phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$
- Simple example: Polynomial kernel in degree 2

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{x} \mapsto \phi(\mathbf{x}) := [x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2] \\ \in \mathbb{R}^3 \end{array} \quad (2+10) \gg (1+3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}') &= x_1^2 \cdot x_1'^2 + x_2^2 \cdot x_2'^2 + 2 x_1 x_2 x_1' x_2' \\ &= (x_1 \cdot x_1' + x_2 \cdot x_2')^2 \\ &= (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2 = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \end{aligned}$$

Naire:
 $\phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$
+: 2
.: 3 + 3 + 4 = 10
using kernel:
+: 1
.: 3

Polynomial kernels (degree 2)

- Suppose $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_d]^T$ and $\mathbf{x}' = [x'_1, \dots, x'_d]^T$

- Then $(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d x_i x'_i \right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^d x_i^2 x'_i^2 + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq d} x_i x'_i x_j x'_j$

$$= \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

for $\phi(\mathbf{x}) := [x_1^2 \dots x_d^2, \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2, \sqrt{2} x_1 x_3 \dots \sqrt{2} x_{d-1} x_d]$

$$\Theta(d^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Theta(d^2) \rightarrow \Theta(d)$$

Polynomial kernels: Fixed degree

- The kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^m$ implicitly represents all monomials of degree m

$$x_1^m, x_2^m, \dots, x_d^m, x_1^{m-1} x_2 \dots x_d, x_1^{m-1} x_d \dots x_d, \dots, (x_1 \dots x_{d-m+1})^m, \dots, x_d^m$$

Monomials of degree m in d variables

$$\binom{d+m-1}{m} = O(d^m)$$

- How can we get monomials up to order m ?

Polynomial kernels

$$\frac{([l; x]^T [l; x])^m}{\sqrt{l}}$$

- The polynomial kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^m$ implicitly represents all monomials of up to degree m

$$1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d, x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots, x_d^2, x_1 x_2, \dots, x_{d-1} x_d, \dots, \dots$$

Monomials of degree up to m in d variables?

$$\rightarrow \binom{d+m}{m}$$

- Representing the monomials (and computing inner product explicitly) is *exponential* in m !!

The „Kernel Trick“

- Express problem s.t. it only depends on inner products
- Replace inner products by kernels

$$\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j \quad \Rightarrow \quad k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

- This „trick“ is very widely applicable!

The „Kernel Trick“

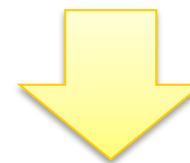
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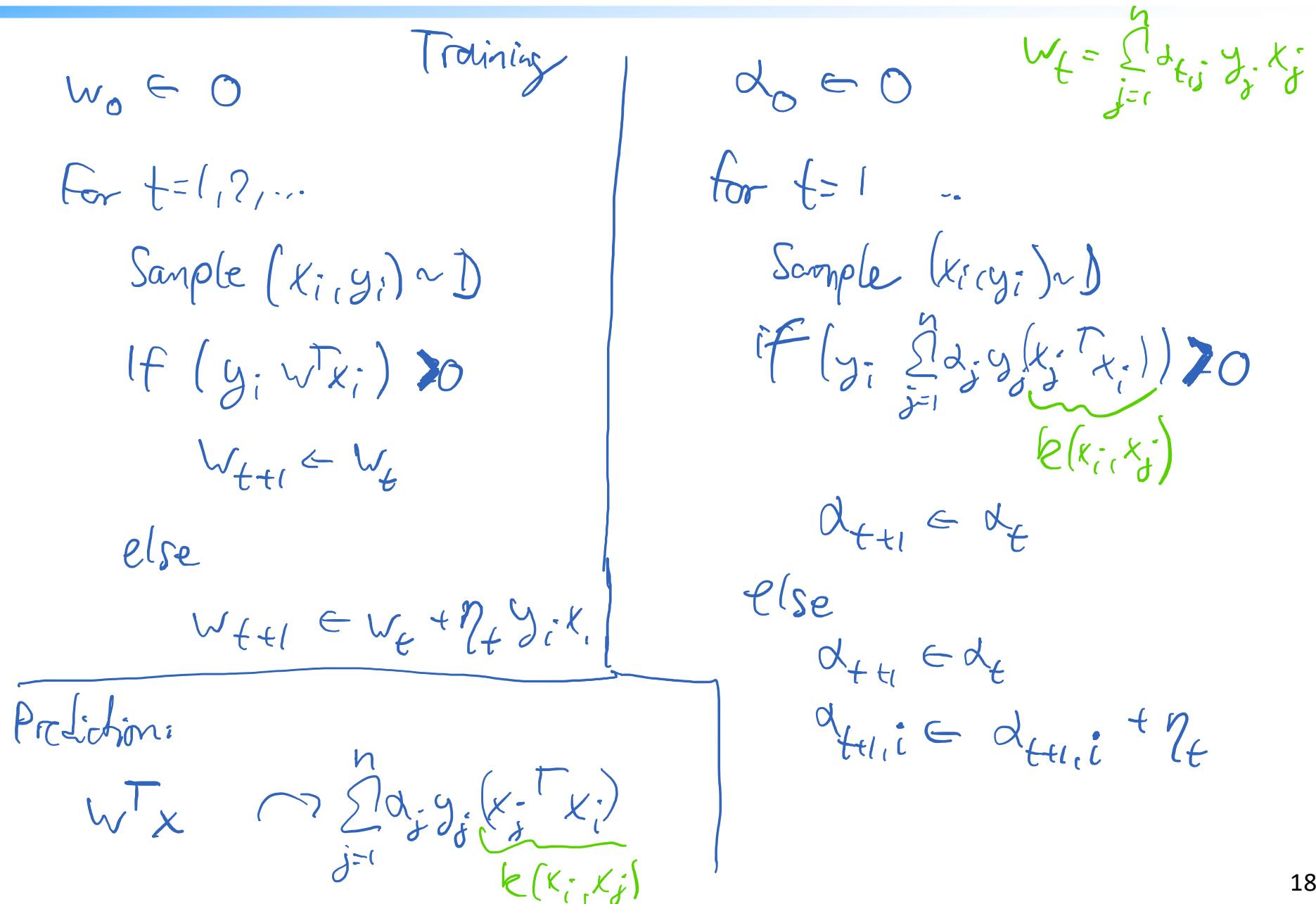
$$\hat{\alpha} = \arg \min_{\alpha_{1:n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max \left\{ 0, - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_i y_j (\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j) \right\}$$



$$\hat{\alpha} = \arg \min_{\alpha_{1:n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max \left\{ 0, - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_i y_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \right\}$$

- Will see further examples later

Derivation: Kernelized Perceptron



Kernelized Perceptron

Training

- Initialize $\alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$
- For $t=1,2,\dots$
 - Pick data point (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) uniformly at random
 - Predict $\hat{y} = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_j k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i)\right)$
 - If $\hat{y} \neq y_i$ set $\alpha_i \leftarrow \alpha_i + \eta_t$

Prediction

- For new point \mathbf{x} , predict

$$\hat{y} = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j y_j k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x})\right)$$

Demo: Kernelized Perceptron

Questions

- What are valid kernels?
- How can we select a good kernel for our problem?
- Can we use kernels beyond the perceptron?
- Kernels work in very high-dimensional spaces.
Doesn't this lead to overfitting?

Properties of kernel functions

- Data space X
 - A kernel is a function $k : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 - Can we use any function?
-
- k must be an **inner product** in a suitable space
→ k must be **symmetric**!

$$\forall x, x' \in X: k(x, x') = \phi(x)^T \phi(x') = \phi(x')^T \phi(x) = k(x', x)$$

→ Are there other properties that it must satisfy?

Positive semi-definite matrices

Symmetric matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive semidefinite iff

- (i) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x^T M x \geq 0$
≡ (ii) All eigenvalues of $M \geq 0$

(i) \Rightarrow (ii) : M is symmetric $\Rightarrow M = U D U^T$ for $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots \\ 0 & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$
 $U = (u_1 | \dots | u_n)$ s.t. $M u_i = \lambda_i u_i$ and $U^T U = I = U U^T$

WAP: $\lambda_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$

$$u_i^T M u_i = u_i^T (\lambda_i u_i) = \lambda_i u_i^T u_i = \lambda_i \stackrel{(i)}{\geq} 0$$

□

Kernels → semi-definite matrices

- Data space X (possibly infinite)
- Kernel function $k : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- Take any finite subset of data $S = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \subseteq X$
- Then the **kernel (gram) matrix**

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_n) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_n) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

is **positive semidefinite**

$$k = \phi^T \phi \quad \text{where } \phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Sps: $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$: $x^T K x = (x^T \phi^T)(\phi x) = v^T v \geq 0$

□

Semi-definite matrices → kernels

- Suppose the data space $X = \{1, \dots, n\}$ is finite, and we are given a positive semidefinite matrix $\mathbf{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
- Then we can always construct a feature map

$$\phi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

such that $\mathbf{K}_{i,j} = \phi(i)^T \phi(j)$

K is s.p.d. $\Rightarrow K = UDU^T$ where $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$

and $\lambda_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$

$D = D^{\frac{1}{2}} D^{\frac{1}{2}T}$, where $D^{\frac{1}{2}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \sqrt{\lambda_n} \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi &: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ \phi &: i \mapsto \phi_i\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow K = \underbrace{U D^{\frac{1}{2}}}_{\Phi^T} \underbrace{D^{\frac{1}{2}} U^T}_{\Phi} = \Phi^T \Phi, \text{ where } \Phi = [\phi_1 \dots \phi_n]$$

Now it holds that $b[i:j] = K_{i:j} = \Phi_i^T \Phi_j$

Outlook: Mercer's Theorem

Let X be a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^n and $k : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a **kernel function**

Then one can expand k in a uniformly convergent series of bounded functions ϕ_i s.t.

$$k(x, x') = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i \phi_i(x) \phi_i(x')$$

Can be generalized even further

Definition: kernel functions

- Data space X
- A **kernel** is a function $k : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying
- 1) **Symmetry**: For any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in X$ it must hold that

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

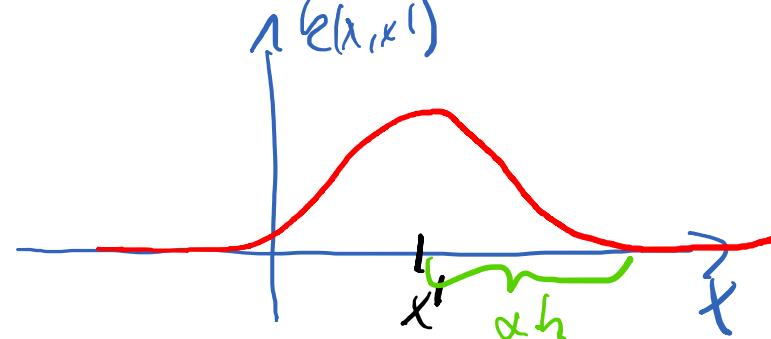
- 2) **Positive semi-definiteness**: For any n , any set $S = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \subseteq X$, the kernel (Gram) matrix

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_n) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

must be positive semi-definite

Examples of kernels on \mathbb{R}^d

- Linear kernel: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'$
- Polynomial kernel: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}' + 1)^d$
- Gaussian (RBF, squared exp. kernel): $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2/h^2)$



"Bandwidth" /
Length scale parameter

- Laplacian kernel: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_1/h)$

