# Kernel Methods Greg Mori - CMPT 419/726

Bishop PRML Ch. 6

## Non-linear Mappings

- In the lectures on linear models for regression and classification, we looked at models with  $\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})$
- The feature space  $\phi(x)$  could be high-dimensional
- This was good because if data aren't separable in original input space (x), they may be in feature space  $\phi(x)$
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  - e.g. graphs, sets, strings

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- In previous lectures on linear models, we would explicitly compute  $\phi(x_i)$  for each datapoint
  - Run algorithm in feature space
- For some feature spaces, can compute dot product  $\phi(x_i)^T\phi(x_i)$  efficiently
- Efficient method is computation of a kernel function  $k(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$
- The kernel trick is to rewrite an algorithm to only have x enter in the form of dot products
- The menu:
  - Kernel trick examples
  - Kernel functions



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- Let's look at the nearest-neighbour classification algorithm
- For input point  $x_i$ , find point  $x_i$  with smallest distance:

$$||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j||^2 = (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)$$
$$= \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i - 2\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j + \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

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=  $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i) - 2k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) + k(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_j)$ 

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- Consider the kernel function  $k(x,z) = (1 + x^T z)^2$
- With  $x, z \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ,

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = (1 + x_1 z_1 + x_2 z_2)^2$$

$$= 1 + 2x_1 z_1 + 2x_2 z_2 + x_1^2 z_1^2 + 2x_1 z_1 x_2 z_2 + x_2^2 z_2^2$$

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

- So this particular kernel function does correspond to a dot product in a feature space (is valid)
- Computing k(x,z) is faster than explicitly computing  $\phi(x)^T\phi(z)$ 
  - In higher dimensions, larger exponent, much faster





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### Why Kernels?

- Why bother with kernels?
  - Often easier to specify how similar two things are (dot product) than to construct explicit feature space  $\phi$ .
  - There are high-dimensional (even infinite) spaces that have efficient-to-compute kernels
    - Separability
- So you want to use kernels
  - Need to know when kernel function is valid, so we can apply the kernel trick

#### Valid Kernels

- Given some arbitrary function  $k(x_i, x_j)$ , how do we know if it corresponds to a dot product in some space?
- Valid kernels: if  $k(\cdot, \cdot)$  satisfies:
  - Symmetric;  $k(x_i, x_j) = k(x_j, x_i)$
  - Positive definite; for any  $x_1, \ldots, x_N$ , the Gram matrix K must be positive semi-definite:

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_1) & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_1) & k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_2) & \dots & k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

- Positive semi-definite means  $x^T K x \ge 0$  for all x then  $k(\cdot,\cdot)$  corresponds to a dot product in some space  $\phi$ 
  - a.k.a. Mercer kernel, admissible kernel, reproducing kernel



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### **Examples of Kernels**

- Some kernels:
  - Linear kernel  $k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x}_2$

$$\bullet$$
  $\phi(x) = x$ 

- Polynomial kernel  $k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = (1 + \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x}_2)^d$ 
  - Contains all polynomial terms up to degree d
- Gaussian kernel  $k(x_1, x_2) = \exp(-||x_1 x_2||^2/2\sigma^2)$ 
  - Infinite dimension feature space

### **Constructing Kernels**

- Can build new valid kernels from existing valid ones:
  - $k(x_1, x_2) = ck_1(x_1, x_2), c > 0$
  - $k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = k_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) + k_2(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$
  - $k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = k_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) k_2(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$
  - $k(x_1, x_2) = \exp(k_1(x_1, x_2))$
- Table on p. 296 gives many such rules

#### More Kernels

- Stationary kernels are only a function of the difference between arguments:  $k(x_1, x_2) = k(x_1 x_2)$ 
  - Translation invariant in input space:  $k(x_1, x_2) = k(x_1 + c, x_2 + c)$
- Homogeneous kernels, a. k. a. radial basis functions only a function of magnitude of difference:  $k(x_1, x_2) = k(||x_1 x_2||)$
- Set subsets  $k(A_1, A_2) = 2^{|A_1 \cap A_2|}$ , where |A| denotes number of elements in A
- Domain-specific: think hard about your problem, figure out what it means to be similar, define as  $k(\cdot,\cdot)$ , prove positive definite (Feynman algorithm)

# Perceptron Classifier - Kernelized

- Recall the perceptron  $y(x) = f(w^T \phi(x))$
- The update rule for the perceptron is

$$\mathbf{w}^{(\tau+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(\tau)} + \underbrace{\eta \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) t_n}_{if \ incorrect}$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{w}^{(\tau+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(0)} + \alpha_1 \phi(\mathbf{x}_1) + \alpha_2 \phi(\mathbf{x}_2) + \dots + \alpha_N \phi(\mathbf{x}_N)$$

The classifier is then

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- Kernelized! (init  $w^{(0)} = \mathbf{0}$ )
- Similar trick can be done for the update rule



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### Regression - Kernelized

- Regularized least squares regression can also be kernelized
- Kernelized solution is

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{t}$$
 vs.  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) (\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_M)^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{t}$ 

for original version

- N is number of datapoints (size of Gram matrix K)
- *M* is number of basis functions (size of matrix  $\Phi^T \Phi$ )
- Bad if N > M, but good otherwise

### Conclusion

- Readings: Ch. 6.1-6.2 (pp. 291-297)
- Many algorithms can be re-written with only dot products of features
  - We've seen NN, perceptron, regression; also PCA, SVMs (later)
- Non-linear features, or domain-specific similarity measurements are useful
- Dot products of non-linear features, or similarity measurements, can be written as kernel functions
  - Validity by positive semi-definiteness of kernel function
- Can have algorithm work in non-linear feature space without actually mapping inputs to feature space
  - Advantageous when feature space is high-dimensional

