CSE 6363 - Machine Learning

Kernel Functions

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- 1. Definition
- 2. Dual Representation
- 3. Common kernel functions

Parametric models use training data to estimate a set of parameters that can then be used to perform inference on new data.

An alternative approach uses nonparametric methods: the function is estimated directly from the data.

One possible downside to such an approach is that it becomes less efficient as the amount of training data increases.

Explicitly transforming into a feature space such that the data becomes linearly separable may be intractable.

Consider sequential data such as text or audio.

If each sample has a variable number of features, how do we account for this using standard linear models with a fixed number of parameters?

These situations can be overcome through the use of the **kernel trick**.

Computing a measure of similarity between samples in the feature space obviates the need to directly transform each individual sample to that space.

A kernel function is defined as

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

where ϕ is some function which transforms the input to a feature space.

Methods that require part or all of the training data to make prediction will benefit from using kernel representations, especially when using high dimensional data.

Instead of transforming the data into a high dimensional space which may be computationally intractable, a measure of similarity via the inner product is used. The inner product is not the projection into some space.

It represents the outcome of that projection.

To gain a visual understanding of the usefulness of kernel functions, let's look at a simple example using a polynomial kernel.

$$
k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x'} + c)^d.
$$

This is a common choice for solving problems akin to polynomial regression.

We can use this kernel to present a visual explanation of kernel functions.

Consider the following dataset.

Polynomial Kernels

Figure 1: Binary classification dataset that is not linearly separable.

It is easy enough to see that this dataset could not be separated using a hyperplane in 2D.

We could separate the two using some nonlinear decision boundary like a circle.

Can we change perspective such that we see a linear decision boundary?

If we could transform this into 3D space, we could come up with some features such that it is linearly separable in 3D.

For example, let $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, x_2^2,$ √ $2x_1x_2$).

Polynomial Kernels

Figure 2: Dataset transformed into a 3D feature space.

From this perspective, we can clearly see that the data is linearly separable.

The question remains: if we only have the original 2D features, how do we compare points in this 3D features space without explicitly transforming each point?

The kernel function corresponding to the feature transform above is

$$
k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}')^2
$$

= $(x_1x'_1 + x_2x'_2)^2$
= $2x_1x'_1x_2x'_2 + (x_1x'_1)^2 + (x_2x'_2)^2$
= $\phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$

where

$$
\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}.
$$

How do we utilize the kernel trick for our problem?

The key to taking advantage of the kernel trick relies on reformulating our linear model into a dual representation.

Consider the least squares loss with L2 regularization.

$$
J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}
$$

 ϕ is a basis function that transforms the input.

This could also be a simple identity function in which $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$.

To solve for **w**, we take the gradient of $J(\mathbf{w})$ with respect to **w** and set it to 0.

Dual Representation

$$
\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i}) - y_{i}) \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}
$$

$$
\implies \mathbf{w} = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i}) - y_{i}) \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})
$$

We can formulate this as a matrix-vector product by letting

$$
\Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } a_i = -\frac{1}{\lambda} (\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i).
$$

$$
\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a}, \text{ where } \mathbf{a} = [a_1, \ldots, a_n]^T.
$$

The dual representation is derived by reformulating $J(w)$ in terms of a.

$$
J(a) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}^T \Phi \Phi^T \Phi \Phi^T \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a}^T \Phi \Phi^T \mathbf{y} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{a}^T \Phi \Phi^T \mathbf{a},
$$

where $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, \dots, y_n].$

Dual Representation

$$
J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i}) - y_{i})^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{w}
$$

$$
J(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}^{T} \Phi \Phi^{T} \Phi \Phi^{T} \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a}^{T} \Phi \Phi^{T} \mathbf{y} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{y} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{a}^{T} \Phi \Phi^{T} \mathbf{a}
$$

$$
\Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \end{bmatrix}, a_i = -\frac{1}{\lambda} (\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i),
$$

 $\mathsf{w} = \Phi^\mathcal{T}\mathsf{a}$, and $\mathsf{a} = [a_1, \ldots, a_n]^\mathcal{T}$.

$\Phi\Phi^{\mathcal T}$ relate to our original kernel form: $\phi(\mathsf{x}_i)^{\mathcal T}\phi(\mathsf{x}_j).$

This product defines a \bf{Gram} matrix $\bf{K}=\Phi\Phi^{\mathcal T}$ whose elements are $k(\mathsf{x}_i,\mathsf{x}_j).$

Thus, we can rewrite $J(a)$ as

$$
J(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{K}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{K}\mathbf{y} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{y} + \frac{\lambda}{2}\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{K}\mathbf{a}.
$$

Solving for a can be done by computing the gradient of $J(a)$ with respect to a and setting the result to 0.

$$
\nabla_{\mathbf{a}}J(\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{K} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{K} \mathbf{y} + \lambda \mathbf{K} \mathbf{a} = 0
$$

$$
\mathbf{K} \mathbf{a} + \lambda I \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{y} = 0
$$

$$
(\mathbf{K} + \lambda I) \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{y}
$$

$$
\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}.
$$

With a solved, we can complete the dual representation of our original linear regression model.

Dual Representation

Recall that

$$
h(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}).
$$

If we substitute $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{a}$, we get

$$
f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{a}^T \Phi \phi(\mathbf{x})
$$

=
$$
\left[(\mathbf{K} + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right]^T \Phi \phi(\mathbf{x}).
$$

The kernel form is apparent in the product $\Phi\phi(\mathbf{x})$.

If we let $k_i(\mathbf{x}) = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})$ and

$$
\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} k_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ k_n(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix},
$$

we can write the dual representation of our linear regression model as

$$
f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}.
$$

In this dual formulation, the solution for a can be expressed as a linear combination of elements $\phi(\mathbf{x})$.

Back to the Original Formulation

We start with

$$
a_i = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \big(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i \big).
$$

Expanding this into individual coefficients yields

$$
a_i = -\frac{1}{\lambda} (w_1 \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i) + \cdots + w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i)
$$

=
$$
-\frac{w_1}{\lambda} \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i) - \cdots - \frac{w_m}{\lambda} \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i) + \frac{y_i}{\lambda}.
$$

We still need to do something about the term $\frac{y_i}{\lambda}$.

For this, we can multiply both sides of our equation by a convenient 1.

That convenient 1 is

$$
\frac{\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i)+\cdots+\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i)}{\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i)+\cdots+\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i)}.
$$

By doing this and grouping the ϕ_i terms, we get

$$
\left(\frac{y_i}{\lambda}\cdot \frac{1}{\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i)+\cdots+\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i)}-\frac{w_1}{\lambda}\right)\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i)+\cdots + \left(\frac{y_i}{\lambda}\cdot \frac{1}{\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i)+\cdots+\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i)}-\frac{w_m}{\lambda}\right)\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i).
$$

We can simplify this by introducing a term

$$
c_i = \frac{y_i}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i) + \cdots + \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i)}.
$$

The solution can be rewritten as

$$
\left(c_i-\frac{w_1}{\lambda}\right)\phi_1(\mathbf{x}_i)+\cdots+\left(c_i-\frac{w_m}{\lambda}\right)\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i).
$$

We can step backwards using intermediate results in the previous section to get back to the original formulation of our linear regression model.

In the next lecture we will learn about Support Vector Machines, which use the kernel trick to produce linear decision boundaries in higher dimensional spaces.

A valid kernel function must satisfy the following conditions:

- Symmetry: $k(x, x') = k(x', x)$
- Positive semi-definite Gram Matrix: $K \geq 0$

If the feature space can be represented as a dot product, then it will satisfy the first condition by definition.

The second condition can be shown by constructing a Gram matrix \boldsymbol{K} and showing that it is positive semi-definite.

A matrix **K** is positive semi-definite if and only if $\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{\mathcal{T}Kv}} \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

In this approach, we define a feature space $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ and then compute the kernel function as

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

This is the approach used in the example from above.

In that example, we used the kernel function $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = (\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}')^2$.

For our 2D input, the feature space is $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, x_2^2,$ √ $2x_1x_2$). As a more convenient approach, it is possible to construct complex kernels from known kernels.

Given valid kernels $k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ and $k_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$, we can construct a new kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ using operations on the next slide.

$$
\bullet \ \ k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')=ck_1(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') \text{ for } c>0
$$

•
$$
k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = f(\mathbf{x})k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')f(\mathbf{x}')
$$
 for $f(\mathbf{x})$

$$
\bullet \ \ k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = k_1(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') + k_2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')
$$

- $k(x, x') = k_1(x, x')k_2(x, x')$
- $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$
- $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \tanh(k_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$

[RBF maps to](#page-48-0) [infinite-dimensional space](#page-48-0)

It can be shown that the RBF kernel maps the input to an infinite-dimensional space.

This is a result of the Taylor series expansion of the exponential function.

The RBF kernel is defined as

$$
k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\Big(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\Big).
$$

The Taylor series expansion of the exponential function is

$$
\exp(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{x^n}{n!}.
$$

Substituting the RBF kernel into the Taylor series expansion yields

$$
\exp\Big(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\Big)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{\Big(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\Big)^n}{n!}.
$$

The benefit of this result is that it allows us to work in a high-dimensional space without explicitly transforming the input.

This is especially useful when the input space is infinite-dimensional, such as with text data.

It is also used to compare the similarity of documents without explicitly transforming the input into a high-dimensional space.