

# Chapter 2: Kernel Methods

## Kernel Regression and Support Vector Machines

Machine Learning – Foundations and Algorithms  
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# Change in plans - Lecture Content

## Chapter 1: Classical Supervised Learning

- Lecture 1: Linear Regression, Ridge Regression
- Lecture 2: Linear Classification
- Lecture 3: Model Selection
- Lecture 4: k-Nearest Neighbors, Trees and Forests

## Chapter 2: Classical Unsupervised Learning

- Lecture 5: Dimensionality Reduction and Clustering
- Lecture 6: Density Estimation and Mixture Models

## Chapter 3: Kernel Methods

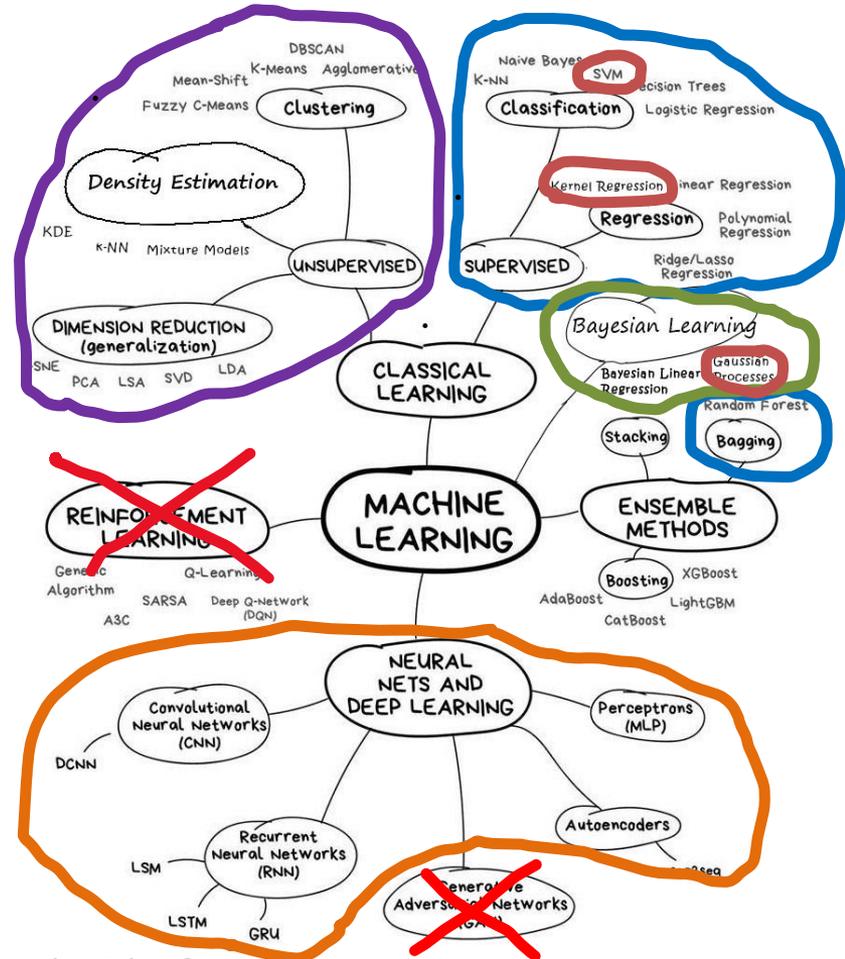
- Lecture 7: Kernel-Regression
- Lecture 8: Support Vector Machines

## Chapter 4: Bayesian Learning

- Lecture 9: Bayesian Linear Regression and Gaussian Processes

## Chapter 5: Neural Networks

- Lecture 10: Neural Networks and Backpropagation
- Lecture 11: CNNs and LSTMs
- Lecture 12: Variational Auto-Encoders (?)



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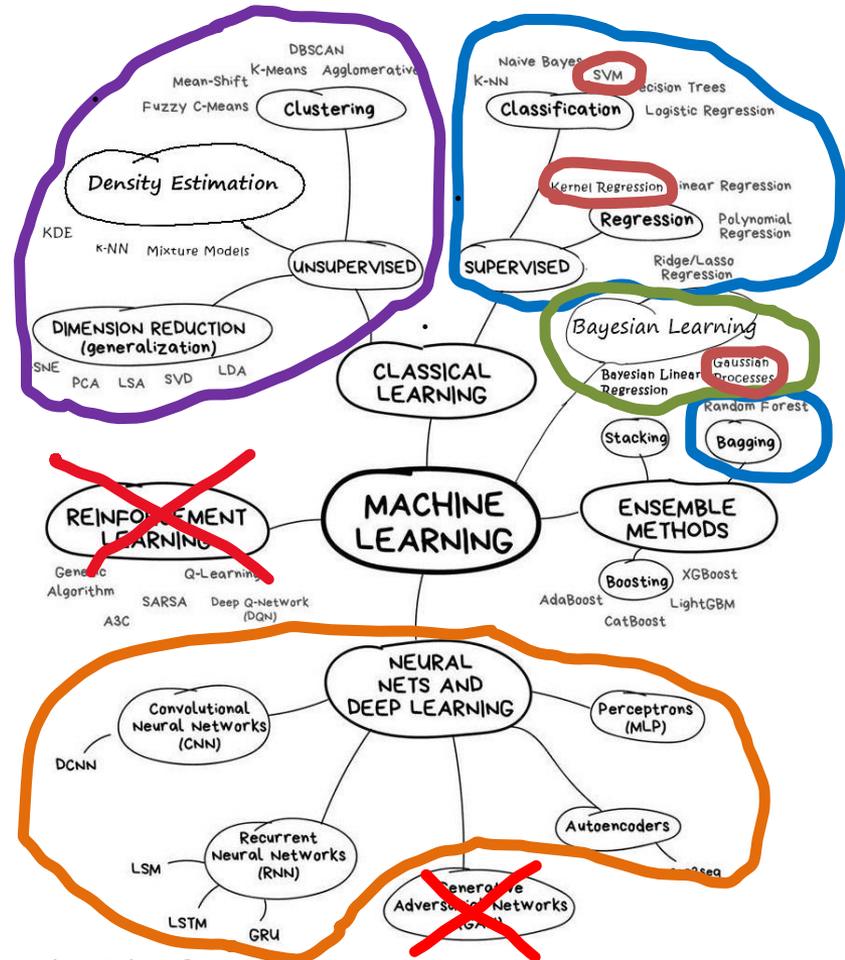
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# Learning Outcomes

- What are kernels and how are they useful?
- What do we mean by the “Kernel trick”?
- How to use kernels in regression (using Kernel Regression)?
- How to use kernels in classification (using SVMs)?
- Understand how to obtain dual optimization problems from the primal
- ... and its relation to kernel methods

# Today's Agenda!

## **Kernels:**

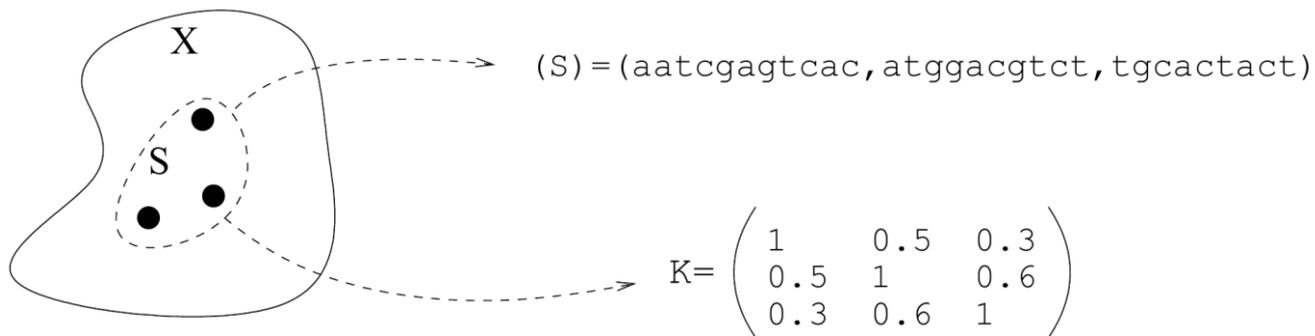
- Definition and properties
- Kernel trick

## **Kernel Regression:**

- Kernel trick for Ridge Regression
- Analytical Solution

# What is a kernel?

## Representation by point-wise comparisons



- Define a “comparison function”  $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- Represent a set of points  $\mathcal{S} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$  by **the n x n matrix**  $[K]_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$

# Kernel Matrix

## Properties:

- $\mathbf{K}$  is always an  $n \times n$  matrix, whatever the nature of data: the same algorithm will work for any type of data (vectors, strings, ...).
- Total modularity between the choice of function  $k$  and the choice of the algorithm.
- Poor scalability with respect to the dataset size ( $n^2$  to compute and store  $\mathbf{K}$ )...
- We will restrict ourselves to a particular class of pairwise comparison functions.

# Positive definite kernels

A **positive definite kernel function**  $k$  is a function  $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that is:

(i) **Symmetric:**  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' : k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x})$

(ii) **Similarity matrix is always positive definite**

$$\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{K} \mathbf{a} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \geq 0, \quad \forall \mathbf{a}, \forall S = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$$

Kernel methods are algorithms that take such matrices as input.

# Example: Linear kernel

The **linear kernel** is the simplest kernel for vectors

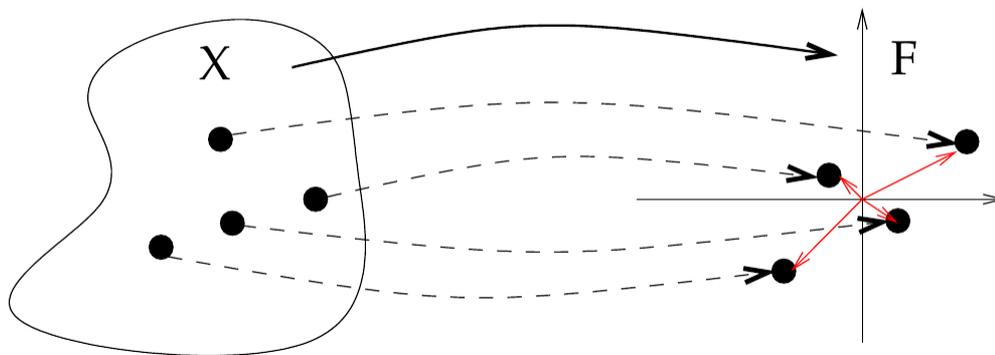
- Its defined by the scalar product:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle, \quad \text{where } \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \text{ denotes the inner product}$$

- It is **always positive definite**:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle = \left\| \sum_i a_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|^2 \geq 0$$

# Kernels in Feature Spaces



Let  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  be an arbitrary **feature function**, then  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle$  defines a **positive definite kernel**.

**Proof:** 
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle = \left\| \sum_i a_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \right\|^2 \geq 0$$

# Kernels as inner products

## Theorem (Aransjan 1950):

$k$  is a **positive definite kernel** on the set  $\mathcal{X}$  if and only if there exists a **feature space**  $\mathcal{H}$  and a **feature mapping**

$$\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$$

such that for any  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in \mathcal{X}$  :

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

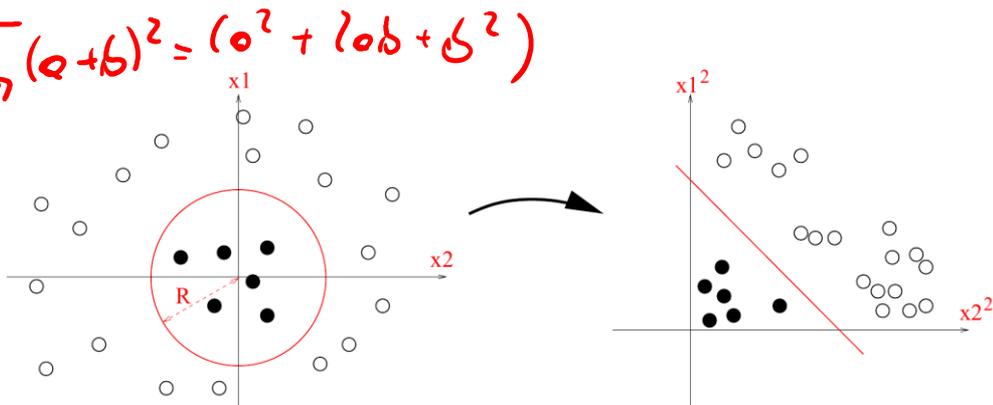
➤ **Every p.d. kernel comes with an associated feature space!**

# Example: polynomial kernel

For  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$ , let  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2]$

The kernel is defined by:

$$\begin{aligned}k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') &= x_1^2x_1'^2 + 2x_1x_2x_1'x_2' + x_2^2x_2'^2 \\ &= (x_1x_1' + x_2x_2')^2 \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle^2\end{aligned}$$



Kernel for polynomials of degree  $d$ :

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle^d$$

# Example: Gaussian Kernel

**The Gaussian kernel is defined by:**

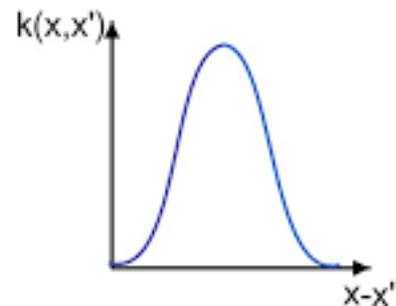
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- where  $\sigma$  is the bandwidth parameter

**Often also called:**

- Radial basis function kernel (RBF)
- Squared exponential kernel

**It is the **most used kernel** for kernel methods**



# Is the Gaussian kernel a valid p.d. kernel?

**Remember:** If we can show that the kernel is a valid product of feature vectors, then it is p.d.

- Consider the following feature function:

$$\phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{x}) = 1/Z \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right), \quad \forall \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

- I.e. we have an **infinite amount** of features (for every possible center  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  )
- $Z$  is a normalization constant (which we will ignore)

**Inner product:**

- **Inner product becomes an integral** due to infinite amount of dimensions

$$\langle \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{x}), \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{y}) \rangle = \int \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{x}) \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\mu}$$

# Is the Gaussian kernel a valid p.d. kernel?

Inner product:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{x}), \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{y}) \rangle &= \int \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{x}) \phi_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\mu} \\ &\propto \int \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right) d\boldsymbol{\mu} \dots \text{ignore normalization constants} \\ &\propto \int \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\mathbf{x}, \sigma^2/2\mathbf{I}) \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\mathbf{y}, \sigma^2/2\mathbf{I}) d\boldsymbol{\mu} \dots \text{product of 2 Gaussians (see matrix cookbook)} \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}) \underbrace{\int \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\dots, \dots) d\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{=1} \\ &\propto \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\end{aligned}$$

**Product of 2 Gaussians stays a Gaussian**

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{B}) \\ = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{BFa} + \mathbf{AFb}, \mathbf{AFB})\end{aligned}$$

with  $\mathbf{F} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^{-1}$

I.e. the Gaussian kernel is the **inner product of 2 infinite dimensional feature vectors!**

# Kernel Trick

## So why do we do this?

- Kernels can be used for all feature based algorithms that can be rewritten such that they contain inner products of feature vectors
  - This is true for almost all feature based algorithms (Linear regression, Support Vector Machines, ...)
  - This is called the **Kernel Trick**
- Kernels can be used to map the data  $x$  in an **infinite dimensional feature** space (i.e., a function space)
  - The feature vector **never** has to be represented **explicitly**
  - As long as we can **evaluate the inner product** of two feature vectors
- Hence, we obtain a **more powerful representation** than standard linear feature models

## A few kernel identities

Let  $\Phi_X = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_N)^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$  then the following identities hold:

- **Kernel matrix:**  $\mathbf{K} = \Phi_X \Phi_X^T$

- Check:  $[\mathbf{K}]_{ij} = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$

- **Kernel vector:**  $\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \begin{bmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}^*) \\ \vdots \\ k(\mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{x}^*) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}^*) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_N)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}^*) \end{bmatrix} = \Phi_X \phi(\mathbf{x}^*)$

# Today's Agenda!

## ML Algorithms

### Kernels:

- Definition and properties
- Kernel trick

### Kernel Regression:

- Kernel trick for Ridge Regression
- Analytical Solution

# Kernel ridge Regression

## Recap: Ridge Regression

- Squared error function + L2 regularization
- Linear feature space
- Not directly applicable in infinite dimensional feature spaces

## Objective:

$$L_{\text{ridge}} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{y} - \Phi\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \Phi\mathbf{w})}_{\text{sum of squared errors}} + \lambda \underbrace{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}_{L_2 \text{ regularization}}$$

## Solution:

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ridge}}^* = \underbrace{(\Phi^T \Phi + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}}_{d \times d \text{ matrix inversion}} \Phi^T \mathbf{y} \quad \text{Matrix inversion infeasible in infinite dimensions}$$

# Kernel Ridge regression

## We can apply the “kernel trick”:

- Rewrite solution as inner products of the feature space!
- We can do this by using the following matrix identity

$$(I + AB)^{-1}A = A(I + BA)^{-1}$$

*(Handwritten red annotations: a red arrow points from  $\Phi$  to  $A$ , and another red arrow points from  $A^T$  to  $B$ .)*

- “Searle set of identities”, The Matrix Cookbook

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underbrace{(\Phi^T \Phi + \lambda I)^{-1}}_{d \times d \text{ matrix inversion}} \Phi^T \mathbf{y} = \Phi^T \underbrace{(\Phi \Phi^T + \lambda I)^{-1}}_{N \times N \text{ matrix inversion}} \mathbf{y}$$

- With  $A = \Phi^T$  and  $B = \Phi$

# Kernel ridge regression

The “kernelized” solution is given by:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \Phi^T \underbrace{(\Phi\Phi^T + \lambda I)^{-1}}_{N \times N \text{ matrix inversion}} \mathbf{y} = \Phi^T \underbrace{(K + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}}_{\alpha} = \Phi^T \alpha$$

*(Handwritten red annotations: a box around  $(K + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$  with  $\alpha$  below it, and a circle around  $\Phi^T \alpha$  with  $N \times 1$  next to it.)*

- Instead of inverting a  $d \times d$  matrix, we can now invert an  $N \times N$  matrix
- Is beneficial for  $d \gg N$  (e.g., infinite)
- Still,  $\mathbf{w}^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is potentially infinite dimensional and can not be represented

Yet, we can evaluate the function  $f$  that is specified by  $\mathbf{w}^*$  :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \underbrace{\phi(\mathbf{x})^T}_{\text{red underline}} \underbrace{\mathbf{w}^*}_{\text{red box}} = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \Phi^T \alpha = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x})^T \alpha = \sum_i \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x})$$

# Examples and comparison to RBF regression

For a Gaussian kernel, the prediction corresponds to

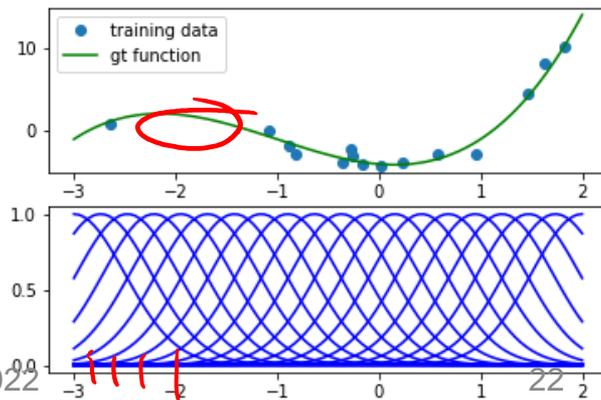
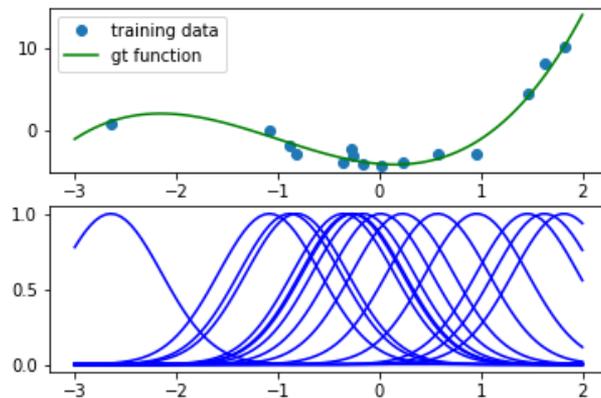
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \alpha_i \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- The kernel allows setting the **centres adaptively to the available data!**
- One centre per data-point

**Comparison:** Linear regression with radial basis function (RBF) features

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i w_i \phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i w_i \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$\boldsymbol{\mu}_i \dots i^{\text{th}}$  center location (fixed)



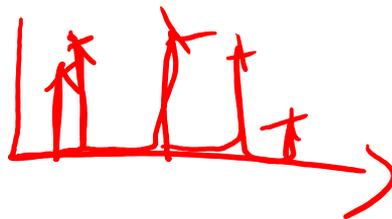
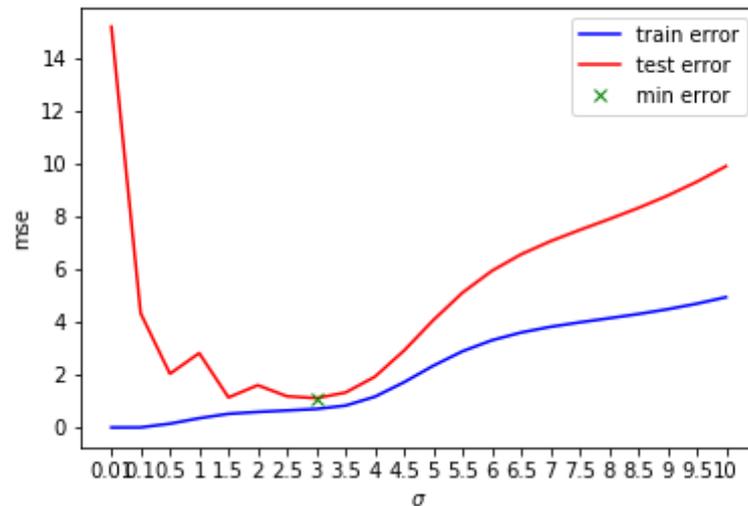
# Selecting the hyper-parameters

- The parameters of the kernel, e.g., sigma in

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

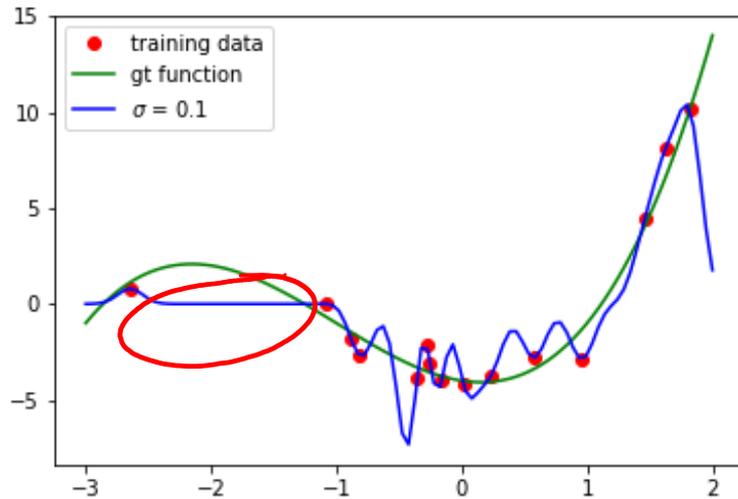
are called **hyper-parameters**.

- Choosing them is again a model-selection problem that can be solved via cross-validation.

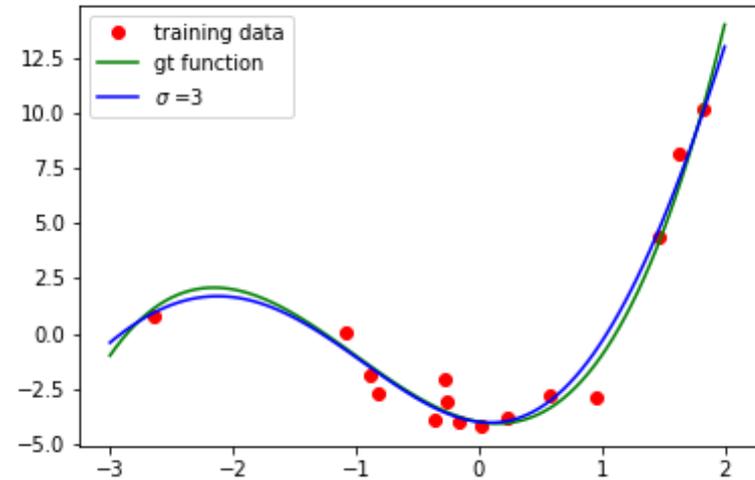


# Different bandwidth factors

Overfitting



Good fit



# Summary: Kernel ridge regression

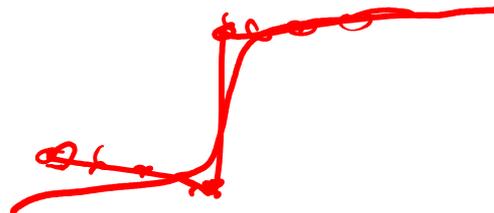
The solution for kernel ridge regression is given by

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

- No evaluations of the feature vectors needed
- Only pair-wise scalar products (evaluated by the kernel)
- Need to invert a  $N \times N$  matrix (can be costly)

**Note:**

- We have to **store all samples** in kernel-based methods (they also belong to the **instance-based** or **non-parametric** methods)
  - **Computationally expensive** (matrix inverse is  $O(n^{2.376})$ ) !
- Hyper-parameters of the method are given by the kernel-parameters
  - Can be optimized on validation-set
- Very **flexible function representation**, only few hyper-parameters



# Takeaway messages

## What have we learned today?

- Kernels estimate the similarity between samples
- They represent an **inner product** in a feature space
  - Allows to use potentially infinite dimensional
  - That's ok due to the kernel trick and regularization
- Many standard ML algorithms can be **“kernelized”**
  - I.e. rewritten in terms of inner products
  - **Regression:** Kernel Ridge regression, Gaussian Processes (to be covered), Support Vector Regression (not covered)
  - **Classification:** SVMs, Kernel Logistic Regression (not covered)
- ✓ **Very flexible representation that adapts to the complexity of the data**
- ✓ **Works well with small data sets**
- ✗ **Hard to scale to more complex problems**



# Self-test questions

## **You should know now:**

- What is the definition of a kernel and its relation to an underlying feature space?
- Why are kernels more powerful than traditional feature-based methods?
- What do we mean by the kernel trick?
- How do we apply the kernel trick to ridge regression?
- How do we compute with infinite dimensional vectors?
- What are hyper-parameters of a kernel and how can we optimize them?