

# Statistical Data Mining and Machine Learning

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Slides and other materials available at:  
<http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~sejdinov/sdmml>

# Kernel Methods

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# Kernel trick in general

- In a learning algorithm, if only inner products  $x_i^\top x_j$  are explicitly used, rather than data items  $x_i, x_j$  directly, we can replace them with a kernel function  $k(x_i, x_j) = \langle \varphi(x_i), \varphi(x_j) \rangle$ , where  $\varphi(x)$  could be **nonlinear, high- and potentially infinite-dimensional** features of the original data.
  - Kernel ridge regression
  - Kernel logistic regression
  - Kernel PCA, CCA, ICA
  - Kernel K-means

# Gram matrix

- The **Gram matrix** is the matrix of dot-products,  $\mathbf{K}_{ij} = \varphi(x_i)^\top \varphi(x_j)$ .

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} - & \varphi(x_1)^\top & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & \varphi(x_i)^\top & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & \varphi(x_n)^\top & - \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} | & & | & & | \\ \varphi(x_1) & \cdots & \varphi(x_j) & \cdots & \varphi(x_n) \\ | & & | & & | \end{pmatrix}$$

- Since  $\mathbf{K} = \Phi\Phi^\top$ , it is symmetric and positive semidefinite.
- Recall: Gram matrix closely related to the distance matrix (MDS)
- Assuming features are centred, the sample covariance of features is  $\Phi^\top \Phi$ .
- Many kernel methods, e.g. kernel PCA, make use of the duality between the Gram and the sample covariance matrix.

# Kernel: an inner product between feature maps

## Definition (kernel)

Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a non-empty set. A function  $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a **kernel** if there exists a **Hilbert space**<sup>a</sup> and a map  $\varphi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  such that  $\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$k(x, x') := \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(x') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}.$$

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<sup>a</sup>a vector space equipped with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  which is also a complete metric space; can have infinitely many dimensions, e.g. the space  $\ell^2$  of all square-summable sequences or the space  $L^2$  of all square-integrable functions

- Almost no conditions on  $\mathcal{X}$  (eg,  $\mathcal{X}$  itself need not have an inner product, e.g., documents).
- Think of kernel as a **similarity measure between features**

**What are some simple kernels?** E.g., for text documents? For images?

- A single kernel can correspond to multiple sets of underlying features.

$$\varphi_1(x) = x \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_2(x) = \left( x/\sqrt{2} \quad x/\sqrt{2} \right)^{\top}$$

# Positive semidefinite functions

If we are given a “measure of similarity” with two arguments,  $k(x, x')$ , how can we determine if it is a valid kernel?

- 1 Find a feature map?
  - Sometimes not obvious (especially if the feature vector is infinite dimensional)
- 2 A simpler direct property of the function: **positive semidefiniteness**.

# Positive semidefinite functions

## Definition (Positive semidefinite functions)

A symmetric function  $\kappa : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **positive semidefinite** if  $\forall n \geq 1, \forall (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}^n,$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \kappa(x_i, x_j) \geq 0.$$

- Kernel  $k(x, y) := \langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$  for a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is positive semidefinite.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j k(x_i, x_j) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle a_i \varphi(x_i), a_j \varphi(x_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \\ &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \varphi(x_i) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

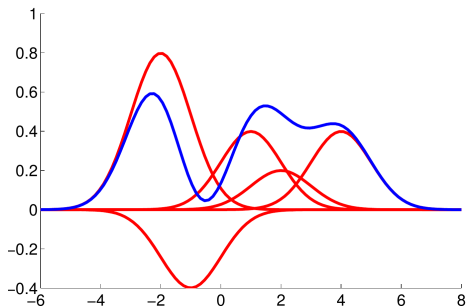
# Positive semidefinite functions are kernels

## Moore-Aronszajn Theorem

Every positive semidefinite function is a kernel for some Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ .

- $\mathcal{H}$  is usually thought of as a space of functions  
(**Reproducing kernel Hilbert space - RKHS**)

Gaussian RBF kernel  $k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \|x - x'\|^2\right)$  has an infinite-dimensional  $\mathcal{H}$  with elements  $h(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i k(x_i, x)$  (recall that  $w^\top \varphi(x)$  in SVM has exactly this form!).





# Reproducing kernel

## Definition (Reproducing kernel)

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space of functions  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined on a non-empty set  $\mathcal{X}$ . A function  $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a **reproducing kernel** of  $\mathcal{H}$  if it satisfies

- $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}, k_x = k(\cdot, x) \in \mathcal{H}$ ,
- $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall f \in \mathcal{H}, \langle f, k(\cdot, x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = f(x)$  (the reproducing property).

In particular, for any  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ ,  $k(x, y) = \langle k(\cdot, y), k(\cdot, x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle k(\cdot, x), k(\cdot, y) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ .

Can forget all about  $\varphi(x)$  and just treat  $k(\cdot, x)$  as a feature of  $x$  (it is a perfectly valid Hilbert-space valued feature)!

# RKHS

## Definition (Reproducing kernel Hilbert space)

A Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  of functions  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined on a non-empty set  $\mathcal{X}$  is said to be a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) if evaluation functionals  $\delta_x : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\delta_x f = f(x)$  are continuous  $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}$ .

## Theorem (Norm convergence implies pointwise convergence)

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f\|_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}$ .

- If two functions  $f, g \in \mathcal{H}$  are close in the norm of  $\mathcal{H}$ , then  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are close for all  $x \in \mathcal{X}$
- This is a property of particularly “nice” functional spaces. For example, does not hold on spaces endowed with  $L_2$  norm:  $x^n$  on  $[0, 1]$  converges to 0 in  $L_2$  but not pointwise.

# Back to SVMs

**Maximum margin classifier in RKHS:** Looking for a decision function of form  $\text{sign}(w(x))$  where  $w \in \mathcal{H}_k$ . Because we are in an RKHS,  $w(x) = \langle w, k(\cdot, x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_k}$ .

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{H}_k} \left( \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_{\mathcal{H}_k}^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n h(y_i \langle w, k(\cdot, x_i) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_k}) \right)$$

for the RKHS  $\mathcal{H}$  with kernel  $k(x, x')$ . Maximizing the margin equivalent to minimizing  $\|w\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ : for many RKHSs a **smoothness constraint on function  $w$** . Why can we solve this infinite-dimensional optimization problem? Because we know that  $w \in \text{span} \{k(\cdot, x_i) : i = 1, \dots, n\}$  – **Representer Theorem**.

# Representer theorem

Standard supervised learning setup: we are given a set of paired observations  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ .

Goal: find the function  $f^*$  in the RKHS  $\mathcal{H}$  which solves the regularized empirical risk minimization problem.

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(f) + \Omega \left( \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \right),$$

where empirical risk is

$$\hat{R}(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f(x_i), x_i),$$

and  $\Omega$  is a non-decreasing function.

- Classification:  $L$  could be a hinge loss  $L(y, f(x), x) = (1 - yf(x))_+$  or a logistic loss  $L(y, f(x), x) = \log(1 + \exp(-yf(x)))$ .
- Regression:  $L(y, f(x), x) = (y - f(x))^2$ .

# Representer theorem

## Theorem (Representer Theorem)

*There is a solution to*

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(f) + \Omega \left( \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \right)$$

*that takes the form*

$$f^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(\cdot, x_i).$$

*If  $\Omega$  is strictly increasing, all solutions have this form.*

# Representer theorem: proof

**Proof:** Denote  $f_s$  projection of  $f$  onto the subspace

$$\text{span} \{k(\cdot, x_i) : i = 1, \dots, n\}$$

such that

$$f = f_s + f_{\perp},$$

where  $f_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(\cdot, x_i)$  and  $f_{\perp}$  is orthogonal to  $\text{span} \{k(\cdot, x_i) : i = 1, \dots, n\}$ .

**Regularizer:**

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 = \|f_s\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 + \|f_{\perp}\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \geq \|f_s\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2,$$

then

$$\Omega \left( \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \right) \geq \Omega \left( \|f_s\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \right).$$

# Representer theorem: proof

**Proof (cont.):** Individual terms  $f(x_i)$  in the loss:

$$f(x_i) = \langle f, k(\cdot, x_i) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle f_s + f_{\perp}, k(\cdot, x_i) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle f_s, k(\cdot, x_i) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}},$$

so

$$L(y_i, f(x_i), x_i) = L(y_i, f_s(x_i), x_i) \forall i \implies \hat{R}(f) = \hat{R}(f_s).$$

Hence

- The empirical risk only depends on the components of  $f$  lying in the subspace spanned by canonical features.
- Regularizer  $\Omega(\dots)$  is minimized when  $f = f_s$ .
- If  $\Omega$  is strictly non-decreasing, then  $\|f_{\perp}\|_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$  is required at the minimum.

# Kernel Methods – Discussion

- The framework of kernel methods allows building flexible machine learning models.
- **Nonparametric** method: parameter space (e.g., normal vector  $w$  in SVM) can be infinite-dimensional
- Kernels can be defined over more complex structures than vectors, e.g. graphs, strings, images, bags of instances, probability distributions.
- In naïve implementation, computational cost is at least quadratic in the number of observations, often  $O(n^3)$  computation and  $O(n^2)$  memory, but there are various approximations with good scaling up properties.
- Further reading:
  - Bishop, Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, Chapter 6.
  - Schölkopf and Smola, Learning with Kernels, 2001.
  - Rasmussen and Williams, Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning, 2006.



# Smoothing and Nearest Neighbours

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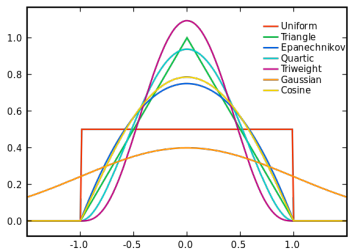
# Nonlinear Methods

- Nonlinearity by data transformation:  $x \mapsto \varphi(x)$  (explicit or implicit).
- A **global** approach. Decision function and optimal parameters can depend on training examples in the whole domain  $\mathcal{X}$ .
- Alternative approach: decision function  $f(x)$  depends only on instances in the **local neighbourhood** of  $x$ .

# Smoothing kernels

- Recall the plug-in generative classifier  $f(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_{l \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \hat{\pi}_l \hat{g}_l(x)$
- What if we do not want to assume that the true class- $l$  conditional density  $g_l(x)$  takes any particular form (i.e., multivariate normal)?
- Use a **kernel density estimate**

$$\hat{g}_l(x) = \frac{1}{n_l} \sum_{i: y_i=l} \kappa(x - x_i)$$



smoothing (Parzen) kernel  $\neq$  positive-semidefinite (Mercer) kernel

local similarity

inner product between features

# Smoothing kernels

- **Kernel density estimate**

$$\hat{g}_l(x) = \frac{1}{n_l} \sum_{i: y_i=l} \kappa(x - x_i)$$

- since  $\hat{\pi}_l = \frac{n_l}{n}$ , discrimination based on total similarity of  $x$  to instances in each of the classes:

$$f(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_{l \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \sum_{i: y_i=l} \kappa(x - x_i)$$

- **Posterior class probabilities**

$$\hat{\mathbb{P}}(Y = l | X = x) = \frac{\hat{\pi}_l \hat{g}_l(x)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \hat{\pi}_j \hat{g}_j(x)} = \frac{\sum_{i: y_i=l} \kappa(x - x_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n \kappa(x - x_j)}$$

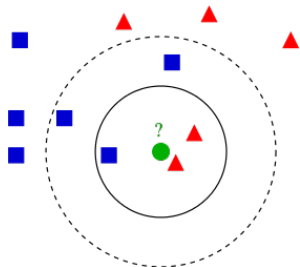
# k-Nearest Neighbours

- Prediction at a data vector  $x$  is determined by the set  $ne_k(x)$  of  $k$  nearest neighbours of  $x$  among the training set.
- Classification: **majority vote** of the neighbours:

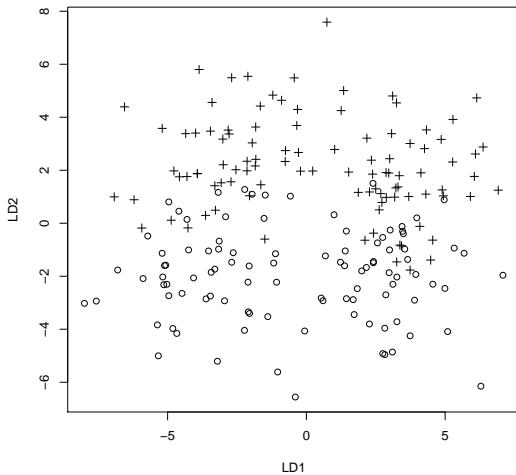
$$f_{kNN}(x) = \underset{l}{\operatorname{argmax}} |\{j \in ne_k(x) : y_j = l\}|.$$

- Regression: average among the neighbours:

$$f_{kNN}(x) = \frac{\sum_{j \in ne_k(x)} y_j}{k}.$$

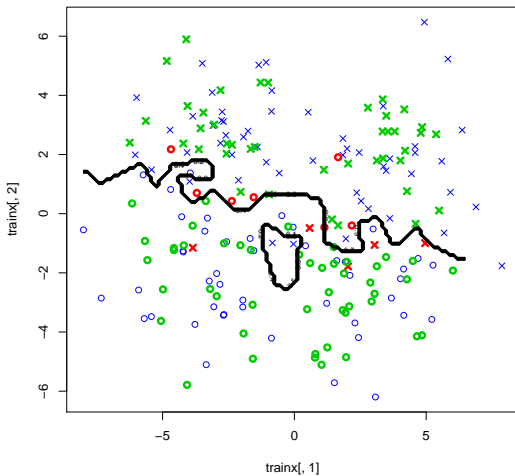


# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



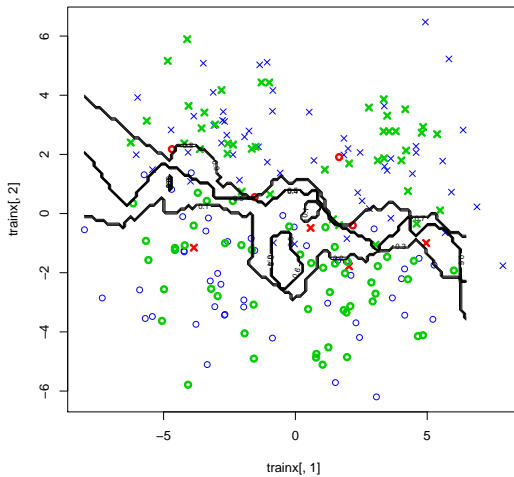
Data

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



Result of 1NN

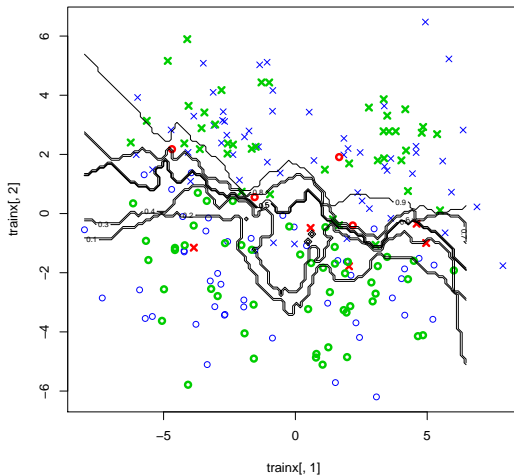
# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



Result of 3NN

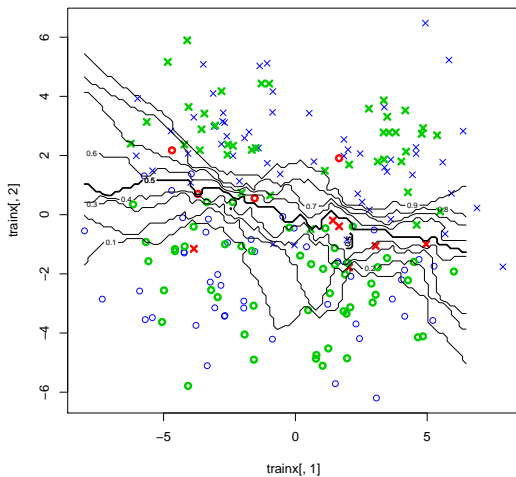


# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



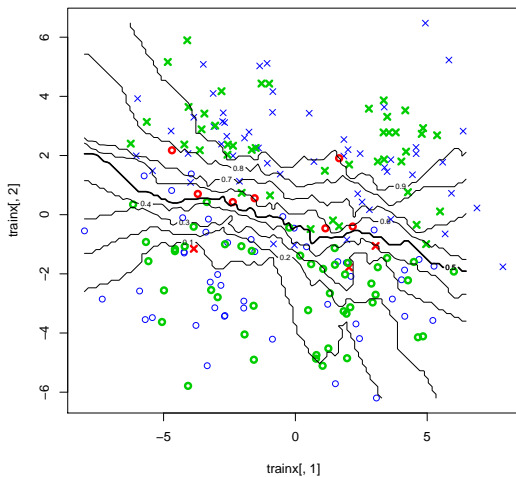
Result of 5NN

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



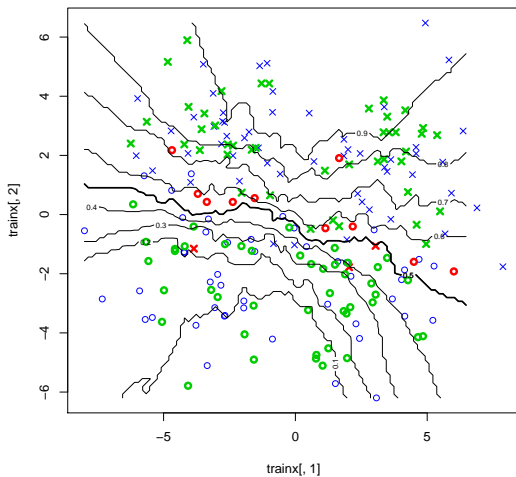
Result of 11NN

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



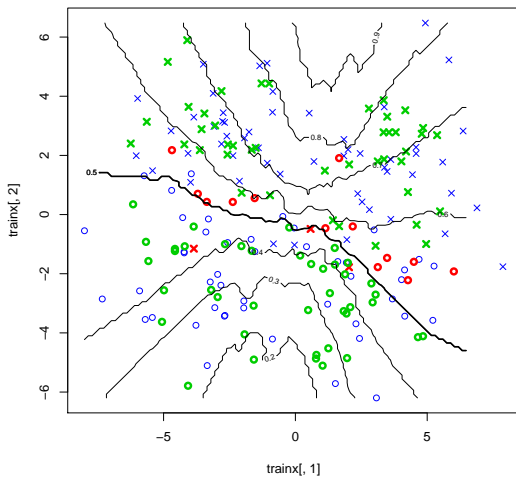
Result of 21NN

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



Result of 31NN

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo



Result of 51NN

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo – R Code I

```
library(MASS)
## load crabs data
data(crabs)
ct <- as.numeric(crabs[,1])-1+2*(as.numeric(crabs[,2])-1)
## project to first two LD
cb.lda <- lda(log(crabs[,4:8]),ct)
cb.ldp <- predict(cb.lda)
x <- as.matrix(cb.ldp$x[,1:2])
y <- as.numeric(crabs[,2])-1
x <- x + rnorm(dim(x)[1]*dim(x)[2])*1.5
eqsplot(x,pch=2*y+1,col=1)
n <- length(y)

#get training indices
i <- sample(rep(c(TRUE,FALSE),each=n/2),n,replace=FALSE)

kNN <- function(k,x,y,i,gridsize=100) {
  p <- dim(x)[2]

  train <- (1:n)[i]
  test <- (1:n)[!i]
  trainx <- x[train,]
  trainy <- y[train]
  testx <- x[test,]
  testy <- y[test]

  trainn <- dim(trainx)[1]
  testn <- dim(testx)[1]

  gridx1 <- seq(min(x[,1]),max(x[,2]),length=gridsize)
  gridx2 <- seq(min(x[,2]),max(x[,2]),length=gridsize)
  gridx <- as.matrix(expand.grid(gridx1,gridx2))
  gridn <- dim(gridx)[1]
```

# k-Nearest Neighbour Demo – R Code II

```

# calculate distances
trainxx <- t((trainx*trainx) %*% matrix(1,p,1))
testxx <- (testx*testx) %*% matrix(1,p,1)
gridxx <- (gridx*gridx) %*% matrix(1,p,1)
testtraindist <- matrix(1,testn,1) %*% trainxx +
  testxx %*% matrix(1,1,trainn) -
  2*(testx %*% t(trainx))
gridtraindist <- matrix(1,gridn,1) %*% trainxx +
  gridxx %*% matrix(1,1,trainn) -
  2*(gridx %*% t(trainx))

# predict
testp <- numeric(testn)
gridp <- numeric(gridn)
for (j in 1:testn) {
  nearestneighbors <- order(testtraindist[,j])[1:k]
  testp[j] <- mean(trainy[nearestneighbors])
}
for (j in 1:gridn) {
  nearestneighbors <- order(gridtraindist[,j])[1:k]
  gridp[j] <- mean(trainy[nearestneighbors])
}
predy <- as.numeric(testp>.5)

plot(trainx[,1],trainx[,2],pch=trainy*3+1,col=4,lwd=.5)
points(testx[,1],testx[,2],pch=testy*3+1,col=2+(predy==testy),lwd=3)
contour(gridx1,gridx2,matrix(gridp,gridsize,gridsize),
  levels=seq(.1,.9,.1),lwd=.5,add=TRUE)
contour(gridx1,gridx2,matrix(gridp,gridsize,gridsize),
  levels=c(.5),lwd=2,add=TRUE)
}

```

# Asymptotic Performance of 1NN

- Let  $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$  be training data where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $y_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$ .
- We define

$$f_{\text{Bayes}}(x) := \arg \max_{l \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \pi_l g_l(x),$$

$$f_{1\text{NN}}^{(n)}(x) := y_j, \text{ s.t. } x_j \text{ is the nearest neighbour of } x.$$

- The (optimal) Bayes risk and 1NN risk are:

$$R_{\text{Bayes}} = \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{1}(Y \neq f_{\text{Bayes}}(X))]$$

$$R_{1\text{NN}}^{(n)} = \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{1}(Y \neq f_{1\text{NN}}^{(n)}(X))]$$

- As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $R_{1\text{NN}}^{(n)} \rightarrow R_{1\text{NN}}$ , where

$$R_{\text{Bayes}} \leq R_{1\text{NN}} \leq 2R_{\text{Bayes}} - \frac{K}{K-1} R_{\text{Bayes}}^2.$$



## k-Nearest Neighbours – Discussion

- Simple and essentially model-free, i.e., weaker assumptions than LDA, Naïve Bayes and logistic regression.
- Not useful for understanding relationships between attributes and class predictions.
- Sensitive to the choice of distance and to the choice of the number of neighbours  $k$
- High computational cost:
  - Need to store **all** training data.
  - Need to compare each test data vector to **all** training data.
  - Need **a lot of data** in high dimensions.
- Mitigation: compute approximate nearest neighbours, using **kd-trees**, **cover trees**, **random forests**.