Feature construction: Boosting, Kernels, and Random Features...

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## 1 Boosted Decision Trees

The input is a training set:

$$
\left\{\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)\right\}
$$

1. Initialize: set the residual $r_{i}=y_{i}$ for all $i$ and initialize our model so that $f(x)=0$ (where $x$ is the input vector).
2. ("weak learning") find some feature $\psi_{*}(x)$, where this feature mapping takes $x$ to a real number (e.g. a decision tree) which improves our residual error. Here the residual error of a feature $\psi$ is defined as:

$$
\hat{L}(\psi)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}\left(r_{i}-\psi\left(x_{i}\right)\right)^{2}
$$

3. update the model and the residual error

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & \leftarrow f(x)+\psi(x) \\
r_{i} & \leftarrow r_{i}-\psi\left(x_{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and return to step 2 (or terminate based on some stopping criterion).

## 2 Kernel methods: The basic idea

The basic idea is to make new predictions based on a similarity measure to points in our dataset. Suppose we have a training set:

$$
\left\{\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)\right\}
$$

Let $K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ be a a similarity measure between two points $x$ and $x^{\prime}$.
Given a new point $x$, we seek to make a prediction of $y$ in the following form:

$$
y=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} K\left(x_{i}, x\right)
$$

where $x_{i}$ are points in our training set and $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}\right)$ is our weight vector. Note that the dimension of our weight vector is now $n$. Also, here, $x$ need not be a vector (it could be some arbitrary object).

## 3 Kernels

Let us instead make a feature vector out of a point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ (where $\mathcal{X}$ is our input space) through a function $\phi$ which maps $x$ to some high dimensional space, where $\phi: \mathcal{X} \leftarrow \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime}}$ (often $d$ may be much greater than the sample size $n$ ).
A kernel is an inner product mapping where:

$$
K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right):=\phi(x)^{\top} \phi\left(x^{\prime}\right)
$$

In other words, the kernel just specifies the inner product under some feature mapping $\phi$.
Sometimes we specify the kernel without explicitly defining a function $\phi$. In particular Mercer's theorem, states conditions under which a function $K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ is a valid Kernel. In particular $K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ is a valid kernel (i.e. there exists a corresponding $\phi$ so that $\left.K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right):=\phi(x)^{\top} \phi\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)$ if and only if $K$ is positive semidefinite in the following sense: for all points $x_{1}, \ldots x_{l}$, the matrix $D$ whose $i, j$-th coordinate in $K\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$ is a positive semidefinite matrix.

### 3.1 Examples

Suppose $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ are $d$-dimensional vectors. Let us consider the following Kernel:

$$
K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left(x^{\top} x^{\prime}\right)^{2}
$$

Here, we have that:

$$
K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d} x_{j} x_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{2}=\sum_{j} x_{j}^{2}\left(x_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{2}+2 \sum_{j<k} x_{j} x_{k} x_{j}^{\prime} x_{k}^{\prime}
$$

Hence, we see that the feature map is just:

$$
\phi(x)=\left(x_{1}^{2}, x_{2}^{2}, \ldots x_{d}^{2}, \sqrt{2} x_{1} x_{2}, \sqrt{2} x_{1} x_{3}, \ldots \sqrt{2} x_{1} x_{d}, \sqrt{2} x_{2} x_{3}, \sqrt{2} x_{2} x_{4}, \ldots\right)
$$

This proves that $K$ is indeed a kernel. Also, we see that $K$ is a kernel corresponding to exactly a degree two polynomial.

A similar argument show that:

$$
K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left(x^{\top} x^{\prime}\right)^{k}
$$

is a kernel corresponding do exactly a degree $k$ polynomial. Also, one can see that:

$$
K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left(x^{\top} x^{\prime}+c\right)^{k}
$$

(where $c$ is a constant) is a kernel corresponding a polynomial containing terms of degree $k$ or less.
A kernel which often works well in practice is the radial basis kernel, which is defined as follows:

$$
K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(-\frac{\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)
$$

One can explicitly prove that this is a valid kernel (though the dimension of the corresponding feature map $\phi$ is note finite).

## 4 Kernel Regression

In the case of Kernel regression, let us suppose we want to fit the line:

$$
w^{\top} \phi(x)
$$

to our data. Here, $\phi$ is the feature mapping corresponding to the kernel $K$.
In particular, we could consider fitting the weights with ridge regression:

$$
\hat{w}=\arg \min _{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}\left(y_{i}-w^{\top} \phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right)^{2}+\lambda\|w\|^{2}
$$

One can show that this best fit line is:

$$
\hat{w}^{\top} \phi(x)=\sum_{i} \hat{\alpha}_{i} K\left(x_{i}, x\right)
$$

where:

$$
\hat{\alpha}=D\left(D+\lambda \mathrm{I}_{n}\right)^{-1} Y
$$

where $D$ is the $n \times n$ matrix in which:

$$
D_{j, k}=K\left(x_{j}, x_{k}\right)
$$

### 4.1 An Equivalent "dual" viewpoint

Equivalently, the following formulation will result in the same mapping. Note that $\left(\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} K\left(x_{j}, x_{i}\right)\right)$ is our prediction of the point $y_{i}$. We can find an estimate of $\alpha$ as follows:

$$
\hat{\alpha}=\arg \min _{\alpha} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}\left(y_{i}-\left(\sum_{j} \hat{\alpha}_{j} K\left(x_{j}, x_{i}\right)\right)\right)^{2}+\lambda \alpha^{\top} D \alpha
$$

where $\alpha^{\top} D \alpha$ is our regularizer. This choice of a regularizer is natural (as it will give rise to the same solution had we worked with $\phi$ ).

If we solve for the above (and rearrange the expression for the solution), we obtain that:

$$
\hat{\alpha}=D\left(D+\lambda \mathrm{I}_{n}\right)^{-1} Y
$$

which is precisely what we obtained in the "primal" problem.

## 5 Random Features

For the radial basis function, a natural way to approximate this function is as follows. First sample vectors: $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots v_{l}$ where each $v_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and sampled from a $N\left(0, \frac{1}{\sigma_{2}} \mathrm{I}_{d}\right)$. Then construct the feature vector:

$$
\phi(x)=\left(\cos \left(v_{1}^{\top} x\right), \sin \left(v_{1}^{\top} x\right), \cos \left(v_{2}^{\top} x\right), \sin \left(v_{2}^{\top} x\right), \ldots \cos \left(v_{l}^{\top} x\right), \sin \left(v_{l}^{\top} x\right)\right)
$$

For large enough $l$, one can show that this well approximates the radial basis function.

### 5.1 A little intuition for the construction

The intuition for this mapping is as follows: Let's look at the two vectors $\left(\cos v_{1}^{\top} x, \sin v_{1}^{\top} x\right)$ and $\left(\cos v_{1}^{\top} x^{\prime}, \sin v_{1}^{\top} x^{\prime}\right)$ (which is part of our random features). Using that $v_{1}$ is sampled from a normal distribution, we have that:

$$
E\left[\left(\cos v_{1}^{\top} x, \mathrm{i} \sin v_{1}^{\top} x\right)^{\top}\left(\cos v_{1}^{\top} x^{\prime}, \mathrm{i} \sin v_{1}^{\top} x^{\prime}\right)\right]=K\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)
$$

where the $K$ above is the radial basis function, the expectation with respect to $v_{1}$, and i is an imaginary number. So we see that, in expectation, the above feature mapping is correct. Furthermore, with an appropriate choice of $l$, it will be the case that our feature vectors approximates the correct inner products on all relevant points (through a law of large numbers argument).

