Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction for Faster Kernel Methods in Machine Learning

Christopher Musco, Massachusetts Institute of Technology February 27, 2018

ICML 2017:

"Random Fourier Features for Kernel Ridge Regression: Approximation Bounds and Statistical Guarantees"

Joint work with:

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Study Fourier kernel approximation methods from a matrix sampling point of view.

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Lots of open questions and directions for future work. Opportunities to combine techniques from randomized linear algebra and Fourier methods.

QUICK REFRESHER ON KERNEL METHODS

Adapt standard linear learning methods (least squares regression, support vector machines, PCA, k-means clustering) to learn nonlinear relationships.

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(theoretically well-understood, multipurpose, widely used)

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$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} \implies \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \\ x_1 x_1 \\ x_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d x_d \end{bmatrix}$$

KERNEL METHODS IN MACHINE LEARNING



 $x_1 + 2x_2 \ge 6$

Kernel Classifier



 $x_1^2 + x_2^2 \ge 10$

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 $x_1^2 + x_2^2 \ge 10$ $\phi(\mathbf{x})_3 + \phi(\mathbf{x})_4 \ge 10$

Main computational issue: Forming $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ is intractable even for moderately complex kernels.

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$$k(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle.$$

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$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle.$$

Can often be computed much more quickly that $\phi(x_i)$, $\phi(x_j)$.

Input: Data $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]^T$, responses $\mathbf{b} = [b_1, \dots, b_n]^T$.

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Predict:



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$$\mathbf{y}^* = \underset{\mathbf{y}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{y}\|_2^2$$

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If we replace each \mathbf{x}_i with $\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ for nonlinear learning, we just need to alternatively compute:

$$\mathbf{K}_{i,j} = \left\langle \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i), \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_j) \right\rangle = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j).$$

Kernel dot product can often be computed implicitly without forming $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ and $\phi(\mathbf{y})$. For example:

$$(1 + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle)^{2} = (1 + x_{1}y_{1} + \ldots + x_{d}y_{d})^{2}$$

= $(1 + x_{1}y_{1} + x_{1}^{2}y_{1}^{2} + 2x_{1}y_{1}x_{2}y_{2} + \ldots)$
= $\langle [1, x_{1}, x_{1}^{2}, \sqrt{2}x_{1}x_{2}, \ldots], [1, y_{1}, y_{1}^{2}, \sqrt{2}y_{1}y_{2}, \ldots] \rangle$
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The kernel function $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (1 + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y})^2$ provides an alternative similarity metric to the standard dot product.

Kernel learning pipeline for data points $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots \mathbf{x}_n$:

1. Choose kernel function $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$:

$$(1 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j)^q, \ e^{-\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2}, \ e^{-\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_1}, \ \text{etc.}$$

2. Form $n \times n$ kernel matrix K with:

$$\mathbf{K}_{i,j} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

3. Compute model using K: compute $(K + \lambda I)^{-1}b$ for kernel regression, eigendecomposition of K for kernel PCA, etc.





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- Just writing down **K** requires $\Omega(n^2)$ time.
- Other operations require even more. A single iteration for a linear system solver takes $\Omega(n^2)$ time.

New algorithmic ideas are needed to scale kernel methods. Even for moderately large datasets.

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Find approximation $\tilde{K} = ZZ^T$ for K (which is symmetric and positive semidefinite):



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We can typically set $s \ll n$.

- Z takes O(ns) space to store.
- Orthogonalization, eigendecomposition, and inversion of ZZ^{T} all take just $O(ns^{2})$ time.
- $ZZ^T x$ can be computed in O(ns) time.

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Example: Nyström approximation.



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Can match optimal *k*-rank approximation to $(1 + \epsilon)$ factor with $O(nk/\epsilon)$ total samples [Musco, Musco, NIPS 2017].

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Write $k(\Delta)$ using its inverse Fourier transform,

$$p(\eta) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}k(\mathbf{\Delta})$$
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Approximate with finite sum for any Δ :

$$k(\mathbf{\Delta}) \approx \frac{1}{s} \sum_{j=1}^{s} c_{j} e^{-i\pi \boldsymbol{\eta}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{\Delta}}$$

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$$Z(\mathbf{x})Z(\mathbf{y})^* = \sum_j \frac{C_j}{S} e^{-i\pi\eta_j^T(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y})}$$
$$\approx k(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y})$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{K} \longrightarrow \overbrace{Z}^{*} \\ \mathsf{Z} \end{array}$$

How do we choose the frequencies in the finite sum?

$$\int_{\boldsymbol{\eta}\in\mathbb{R}^d}p(\boldsymbol{\eta})e^{-i\pi\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Delta}}d\boldsymbol{\eta} \quad \approx \quad \frac{1}{s}\sum_{j=1}^{s}c_je^{-i\pi\boldsymbol{\eta}_j^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Delta}}$$

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Example (Gaussian kernel):





Sample frequencies from distribution $p(\eta)$.

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- Final sum ¹/_s Σ^s_{j=1} e^{-iπη^T_jΔ} ≈ k(Δ) only has terms with magnitude |e^{-iπη^T_jΔ}| = 1. Real part ≤ 1. Imaginary part ≤ 1.
- By Chernoff bound, if we take $O\left(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ samples, we approximate every entry in K to error $\pm \epsilon$ w.h.p.

Super simple algorithm. For Gaussian kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = e^{-\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|_2^2}$:

$$Z = \exp\left(-i\pi X\right)^{\eta_i - \eta_j} random gaussians$$
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G = randn(d, s); Z = exp(-sqrt(-1)*pi*X*G)/sqrt(s);

This is a so-called <u>oblivious</u> sketch.

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- Does not give bounds on ||ZZ* K|| unless we take Ω(n²) samples.
- No clear implications for downstream learning tasks. E.g., does $(ZZ^* + \lambda I)^{-1}$ approximate $(K + \lambda I)^{-1}$?
- Faster but less accurate than a Nyström approximation with the same number of samples in practice.

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Key Idea: Analyze the random Fourier features algorithm as a **matrix sampling process.**

HIGH LEVEL APPROACH

$$k(\mathbf{x}_{u} - \mathbf{x}_{v}) = \int_{\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}} p(\boldsymbol{\eta}) e^{-i\pi\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x}_{u} - \mathbf{x}_{v})} d\boldsymbol{\eta}$$

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Kernel Fourier Transform

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Kernel Fourier Transform




Standard RFF selects column $ar{f \Phi}(\eta)$ with probability $\propto p(\eta)$.



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Simple matrix Chernoff already gives better bounds: $\|\mathbf{K} - \mathbf{ZZ}^*\|_2 \le \epsilon$ with $\tilde{O}(n/\epsilon^2)$ samples. For matrix approximation, norm based sampling probabilities are known to be suboptimal!

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(see work on effective resistances for spectral graph sparsification, randomized linear algebra, etc.)

$$(1 - \epsilon)(\mathsf{ZZ}^* + \lambda \mathsf{I}) \preceq \mathsf{K} + \lambda \mathsf{I} \preceq (1 + \epsilon)(\mathsf{ZZ}^* + \lambda \mathsf{I}).$$

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Need $\tilde{O}(s_{\lambda}/\epsilon^2)$ samples where s_{λ} is the statistical dimension:

$$s_{\lambda} = tr(K(K + \lambda I)^{-1})$$

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Roughly the number of singular values $\geq \lambda$ plus a term depending on the tail singular values.

COMPUTING RIDGE LEVERAGE SCORES

What are the ridge leverage scores?



 $au_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta})^* (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}).$

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Expensive to invert $\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I}$. Even if you could, not at all clear how to efficiently sample from the leverage score distribution.



Goal: Upper bound Fourier ridge leverage scores for common kernels with simple distributions.

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More closely match leverage score sampling to improve random Fourier features.

First observation: Scaled by $\frac{n}{\lambda}$, the standard Rahimi Recht distribution upper bounds the λ -ridge leverage scores.



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Basic Result: Sampling $O(\frac{n}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon^2})$ frequencies with RFF gives spectral guarantees.

Ridge leverage score $\mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta})^*(\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ solves:

$$\tau_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \min_{\mathbf{y}} \left[\frac{1}{\lambda} \| \bar{\boldsymbol{\Phi}} \mathbf{y} - \bar{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \|_{2}^{2} + \| \mathbf{y} \|_{2}^{2} \right]$$

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Intuition: y reconstructs frequency η from other frequencies. If η is "easy" to reconstruct, it is less important to sample. Approach: Obtain closed form upper bound on leverage scores by exhibiting simple candidate vector \tilde{y} and noting that:

$$au_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) \leq rac{1}{\lambda} \|oldsymbol{ar{\Phi}} \widetilde{oldsymbol{y}} - oldsymbol{ar{\Phi}}(oldsymbol{\eta})\|_2^2 + \|oldsymbol{ ilde{y}}\|_2^2$$



$\boldsymbol{\bar{\Phi}} y$ is just the Fourier transform of $\sqrt{P} y$ evaluated at $x_1,\ldots,x_n!$



$\mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}\mathbf{y}$ is just the Fourier transform of $\sqrt{P}\mathbf{y}$ evaluated at $\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n!$



For remainder of talk: Assume Gaussian kernel, *n* points in 1-dimension, bounded between $[-\delta, \delta]$.



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We want a function whose Fourier transform matches frequency η on these data points.

Need to bound: $\frac{1}{\lambda} \| \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\tilde{y}} - \mathbf{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \|_2^2 + \| \mathbf{\tilde{y}} \|_2^2$.

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 $\|\tilde{\mathbf{y}}\|_2^2$ is much larger!



Solution: Dampen sinc with a narrow Gaussian.


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 $\frac{1}{\lambda} \| \bar{\mathbf{\Phi}} \tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{\mathbf{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \|_2^2$ remains very small, $\| \mathbf{y} \|_2^2 \approx O(\delta)$.

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 $\frac{1}{\lambda} \|\bar{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \bar{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta})\|_{2}^{2} \text{ remains very small, } \|\mathbf{y}\|_{2}^{2} \approx O(\delta).$ (as long as $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is not too large)

FINAL TEST FUNCTION

Easy to sample from approximate leverage distribution for the Gaussian kernel with $x_1, ..., x_n \in [-\delta, \delta]^d$:

$$ar{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = egin{cases} ilde{O}(\delta) ext{ when } oldsymbol{\eta} \leq \sqrt{\log n/\lambda} \ p(oldsymbol{\eta}) = e^{-\|oldsymbol{\eta}\|_2^2/2} ext{ otherwise.} \ & oldsymbol{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = egin{cases} au_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = rac{ au_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta})}{ au_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta})} \ & oldsymbol{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = egin{cases} au_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = e^{-\|oldsymbol{\eta}\|_2^2/2} \ & oldsymbol{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = e^{-\|oldsymbol{\eta}\|_2^2/2} \ & oldsymbol{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{ au}) = e^{-\|oldsymbol{\eta}\|_2^2/2} \ & oldsymbol{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{ au}) = e^{-\|oldsymbol{ au}\|_2^2/2} \ & oldsymbol{ au}_{\lambda}(oldsymbol{ au}) = e^{-\|oldsymbol{ au}\|_2^2/$$

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Requires $O(\delta \sqrt{\log(n/\lambda)}) \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon^2}$ samples for spectral guarantee.

(vs. $O(n/\lambda) \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon^2}$ for standard random Fourier features.)



Gaussian kernel for two clusters:



INTUITION

Gaussian kernel for two clusters:



Standard RFF element error.

Modified RFF element error.

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 $(1 - \epsilon)(\mathsf{ZZ}^* + \lambda \mathsf{I}) \preceq \mathsf{K} + \lambda \mathsf{I} \preceq (1 + \epsilon)(\mathsf{ZZ}^* + \lambda \mathsf{I}).$

Sampling low frequencies relatively less biases error to align with large eigenvectors.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Example of approximate kernel ridge regression to interpolate a synthetic function:



CRF = classic random Fourier features 'column norm' sampling, MRF = our modified sampling distribution.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In higher dimensions:





0.5



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SUMMARY

1. Viewed random Fourier features methods as a matrix sampling problem.

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- 2. Used optimization perspective on leverage scores to certify upper bounds on these scores. Reduced score computation to Fourier approximation problem.

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- 2. Used optimization perspective on leverage scores to certify upper bounds on these scores. Reduced score computation to Fourier approximation problem.
- 3. New sampling distribution under-samples lower frequencies to obtain better kernel approximations.

Major open question: Can we achieve our spectral guarantee with $O(s_{\lambda})$ samples in high dimensions for any data set.

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Conjecture: Yes, although maybe with polynomial loss (i.e. $poly(s_{\lambda})$ samples).

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I.e. can we match data-adaptive methods like Nyström obliviously?

OPEN QUESTIONS

Duel view of leverage scores:

$$\tau_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \max_{\mathbf{a}} \frac{\left(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \overline{\mathbf{\Phi}}(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right)^{2}}{\|\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \overline{\mathbf{\Phi}}\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|\mathbf{a}\|_{2}^{2}}.$$

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$$\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{T} \qquad \underset{\mathbf{x}_{2}}{\overset{:}{\underset{\mathbf{x}_{n}}}}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\bar{\Phi}}$$

 $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}$ is an *n* sparse Fourier function weighted by a Gaussian.

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$$\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{T} \qquad \mathbf{x}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$\mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}$$

 $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{\bar{\Phi}}$ is an *n* sparse Fourier function weighted by a Gaussian.

Immediately get leverage score bounds from bounds on smoothness of sparse Fourier functions, e.g. [Chen, Kane, Price, Song FOCS 2016].

Vague open question: Why does this all <u>actually matter</u> for function fitting?

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We were surprised to beat random Fourier features on a kernel regression task.

THANK YOU!