

## Lecture 16: Kernel Ridge Regression

- Previously, in our discussion on polynomial regression, we had shown how could map the input variables to a new feature space of polynomials

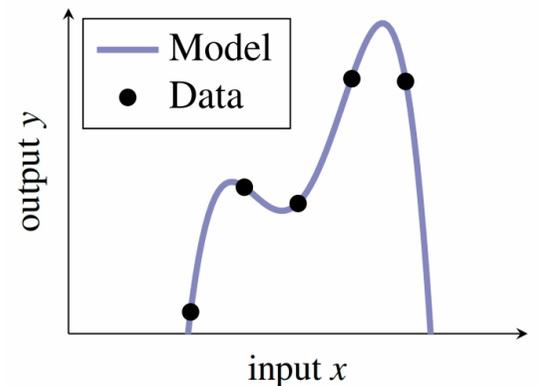
$$y = a_0 + a_1 x + \epsilon \quad \xRightarrow{\text{Mapping}} \quad y = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots + b_p x^p + \epsilon$$

Original input space  New input space

- While we created these non-linear transformations of the original input, we were still using linear regression, since the parameters  $b_0, b_1, \dots, b_p$  appear linearly with  $\underline{\phi}(x) = [1 \ x \ x^2 \ \dots \ x^p]^T$  as the new input

$$y = \underline{\theta}^T \underline{\phi}(x) + \epsilon$$

Linear regression  
with a 4th order  
polynomial



- For vector-valued input  $\underline{x}$ , the non-linear transformation could be expressed as

$$y = \underbrace{\underline{\phi}^T(\underline{x})}_{1 \times d} \underbrace{\underline{\theta}}_{d \times 1} + \underbrace{\epsilon}_{1 \times 1} \quad \begin{array}{l} \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p \\ \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ \underline{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^d \end{array}$$

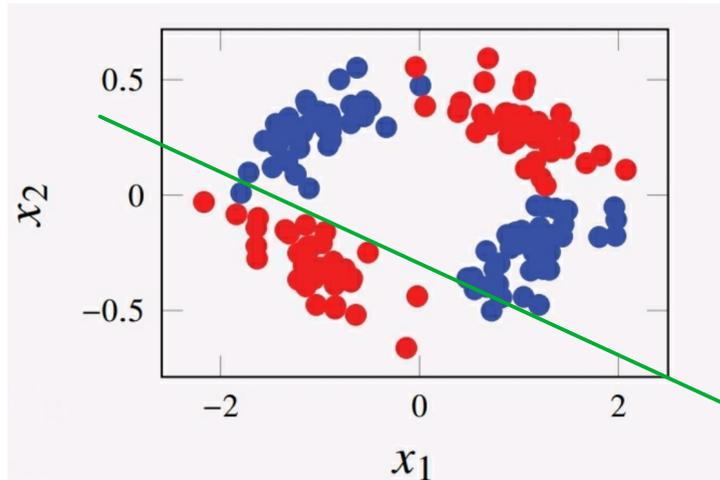
- Any choice of nonlinear transformation  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  can be used!
- Writing the vectorized linear regression for training data  $\{\underline{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$

$$\underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}_1^T \\ \underline{x}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{x}_N^T \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{\Phi}(\underline{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_1)^T \\ \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_N)^T \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$N \times p$                        $N \times d$                        $N \times 1$

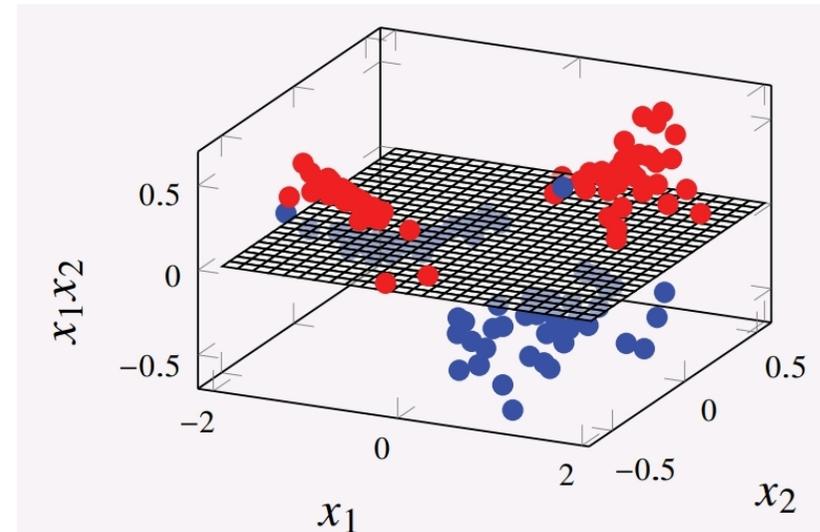
$$\underline{y} = \underline{\Phi}(\underline{X}) \underline{\theta} + \underline{\epsilon}$$

## Example of non-linear feature transformation for classification



A linear classifier would not work on the original input space

(there is no line that can separate the two classes)



With an introduction of an extra feature  $x_1x_2$  the problem becomes linearly separable

A carefully engineered transformation  $\phi(x)$  in linear regression or linear classification may perform very well for a specific ML problem

- We would like a  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  that would work for most problems
- Thus,  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  should contain a lot of transformations that could possibly be of interest to most problems
- Therefore, we should choose  $d$ , the dimension of  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$ , really large

$d > N$  and eventually let  $d \rightarrow \infty$   
 # of input features  $\rightarrow$   $d$   
 $\uparrow$   
 # of training data-points  $\rightarrow$   $N$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix}_{N \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}_{N \times d} \begin{bmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix}_{d \times 1}$$

- However, increasing the flexibility of a model also means it can overfit the training data
- We will have to use some kind of regularization to prevent overfitting

- Let us use an  $L_2$ -regularization
- Reformulating the linear regression with transformed features  $\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})$ , we get the estimate of parameters as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\underline{\Theta}} &= \underset{\underline{\Theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} J(\underline{\Theta}) \\ &= \underset{\underline{\Theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}_i)^T \underline{\Theta} \right)^2 + \lambda \|\underline{\Theta}\|_2^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

- Linear regression with  $L_2$ -regularization has closed-form solution

$$\hat{\underline{\Theta}} = \left( \underline{X}^T \underline{X} + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underline{X}^T \underline{y} \quad (\text{recall!})$$

$$\hat{\underline{\Theta}}_{d \times 1} = \left( \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X})^T}_{d \times N} \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X})}_{N \times d} + \underbrace{N\lambda \underline{I}}_{d \times d} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X})^T}_{d \times N} \underbrace{\underline{y}}_{N \times 1}$$

- Linear regression with  $L_2$ -regularization has closed-form solution

$$\hat{\underline{\theta}}_{d \times 1} = \left( \underbrace{\Phi(\underline{X})^T}_{d \times N} \underbrace{\Phi(\underline{X})}_{N \times d} + \underbrace{N\lambda \mathbf{I}}_{d \times d} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\Phi(\underline{X})^T}_{d \times N} \underbrace{\underline{y}}_{N \times 1}$$

- The downside of choosing a very large number of features,  $d$ , is that  $\text{size}(\hat{\underline{\theta}}) = d \rightarrow \infty$  and storing  $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$  digitally becomes a problem!

- During prediction, we need to use the  $d$ -dimensional parameter vector  $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underbrace{\phi(\underline{x}_*)^T}_{1 \times d} \underbrace{\hat{\underline{\theta}}}_{d \times 1}$$

- But if  $d \rightarrow \infty$ , how to scale computations or meet storage demands ??

- let's try to reformulate the prediction

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) &= \underbrace{\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)^T}_{1 \times d} \underbrace{\hat{\underline{\theta}}}_{d \times 1} = \hat{\underline{\theta}}^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*) \\
 &= \left[ \underbrace{\left( \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})}_{d \times d} + N \lambda \underline{\mathbb{I}} \right)^{-1}}_{d \times d} \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{y}}_{d \times N \quad N \times 1} \right]^T \underbrace{\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}^*)}_{d \times 1} \\
 &= \underbrace{\underline{y}^T}_{1 \times N} \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})}_{N \times d} \underbrace{\left( \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})}_{d \times d} + N \lambda \underline{\mathbb{I}} \right)^{-1}}_{d \times d} \underbrace{\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}^*)}_{d \times 1}
 \end{aligned}$$

This entire expression is independent of 'd' and if we could compute this  $N$ -dimensional vector directly, then it would be great

- However,  $\underbrace{\left( \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) + N \lambda \underline{\mathbb{I}} \right)^{-1}}_{d \times d}$  still requires inverting a  $d \times d$  matrix!!

$$\hat{\underline{y}}(\underline{x}_*) = \underline{y}^T \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) \left( \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})}_{d \times d} + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)$$

- To prevent inverting a  $d \times d$  matrix, where  $d$  is very large, let's use a matrix identity:  $\underline{A} (\underline{A}^T \underline{A} + \underline{I})^{-1} = (\underline{A} \underline{A}^T + \underline{I})^{-1} \underline{A}$

$$\hat{\underline{y}}(\underline{x}_*) = \underbrace{\underline{y}^T}_{1 \times N} \left( \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T}_{N \times N} + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})}_{N \times d} \underbrace{\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)}_{d \times 1}}_{N \times 1}$$

- We can now compute  $\hat{\underline{y}}(\underline{x}_*)$  without having to deal with any  $d$ -dimensional quantities, if we can compute  $\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T$  &  $\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)$  directly

$$\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_1)^T \\ \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_N)^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$N \times d$

$$\underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_1) & \dots & \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_N) \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$d \times N$

$$\hat{y}(x_*) = \underbrace{y^T}_{1 \times N} \left( \underbrace{\Phi(x) \Phi(x)^T}_{N \times N} + N\lambda \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\Phi(x) \phi(x_*)}_{N \times 1}$$

• let's look at the two matrix multiplications

$$\underbrace{\Phi(x) \Phi(x)^T}_{N \times N} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi(x_1)^T \phi(x_1) & \phi(x_1)^T \phi(x_2) & \dots & \phi(x_1)^T \phi(x_N) \\ \underbrace{\phi(x_2)^T}_{1 \times d} \underbrace{\phi(x_1)}_{d \times 1} & \phi(x_2)^T \phi(x_2) & \dots & \phi(x_2)^T \phi(x_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi(x_N)^T \phi(x_1) & \phi(x_N)^T \phi(x_2) & \dots & \phi(x_N)^T \phi(x_N) \end{bmatrix}_{N \times N}$$

$$\underbrace{\Phi(x) \phi(x_*)}_{N \times 1} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi(x_1)^T \phi(x_*) \\ \phi(x_2)^T \phi(x_*) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(x_N)^T \phi(x_*) \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\phi(x)^T \phi(x')$  is an inner product between two  $d$ -dimensional vectors  $\phi(x)$  &  $\phi(x')$
- $\phi(x)$  enters the prediction  $y(x_*)$  only as these inner products

lets take an **example** of polynomial transformation

$x \leftarrow$  scalar ( $p=1$ )  
 $1 \times 1$

$\underline{\phi}(x)$  is say a third-order **scaled** polynomial

of the form: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{3} x \\ \sqrt{3} x^2 \\ x^3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $4 \times 1$

$$\underline{\phi}(x)^T \underline{\phi}(x') = [1 \quad \sqrt{3}x \quad \sqrt{3}x^2 \quad x^3] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{3}x' \\ \sqrt{3}x'^2 \\ x'^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 1 + 3xx' + 3x^2x'^2 + x^3x'^3 = (1 + xx')^3$$

In general, if  $\underline{\phi}(x)$  is a suitably scaled polynomial of order ' $d$ ', then

$$\underline{\phi}(x)^T \underline{\phi}(x') = (1 + xx')^d$$

inner product

- Usually to compute  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^\top \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$ 
  - One has to first compute  $d$ -dimensional vectors  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  and  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$ , and
  - then compute their inner product  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^\top \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$
- However, for the previous example, we found that we could have just evaluated the expression  $(1 + \underline{x} \underline{x}')^d$  directly
- **Important point:** If we make the choice of  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  s.t. the inner product  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^\top \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$  can be computed without first calculating  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$ , we can let  $d \rightarrow$  very large
- Infact, if you don't really care about  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  explicitly sometimes, then the need of deriving  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^\top \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$  can be bypassed by using the concept of **kernels**

## Introducing the idea of kernels

- In simple terms, a kernel  $\overset{\text{Kappa}}{\mathcal{K}}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  is any function that takes two arguments  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{x}'$  from the same space  $\mathbb{R}^P$  and returns a scalar
- We will mostly limit ourselves to kernels that are real-valued and symmetric  
i.e.  $\mathcal{K}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}', \underline{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$  for all  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{x}'$

For example,  $\mathcal{K}(x, x') = (1 + xx')^d$  is such a kernel

- In fact, the inner product of two non-linear input transformation is also an example of a kernel:

$$\mathcal{K}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$$

- So instead of choosing  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  and deriving its inner product  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$  sometimes one can choose a kernel  $\mathcal{K}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  directly ← KERNEL TRICK

If  $\underline{x}$  enters the model as  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}')$  only, we can choose a kernel  $\mathcal{K}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  directly, instead of choosing  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  KERNEL TRICK

- Mathematically, we can rewrite

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underbrace{\underline{y}^T}_{1 \times N} \left( \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X}) \underline{\Phi}(\underline{X})^T}_{N \times N} + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X}) \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)}_{N \times 1}$$

as

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underline{y}^T \left( \underbrace{\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X})}_{N \times N} + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underbrace{\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)}_{N \times 1}$$

where

$$\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_1) & \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2) & \dots & \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_N) \\ \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_1) & \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_2) & \dots & \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_N, \underline{x}_1) & \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_N, \underline{x}_2) & \dots & \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_N, \underline{x}_N) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_*) \\ \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_*) \\ \vdots \\ \mathcal{K}(\underline{x}_N, \underline{x}_*) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Recall, linear regression with  $L_2$ -regularization was called as **ridge regression**

- $$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underline{y}^T \left( \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)$$

→ This equation describes linear regression with  $L_2$ -regularization using a kernel, hence is called **kernel ridge regression**

$\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) \leftarrow$  Gram matrix (or Gramian matrix)

- The design choice is now to select a kernel  $K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  instead of  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$
- In practice, choosing  $K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  is much easier than choosing an appropriate  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  especially when the number of transformed features (i.e.  $d$ ) is very large

- From computation point of view, we can choose  $\mathcal{K}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  arbitrarily, as long as we can compute

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underline{y}^T \left( \underbrace{\underline{\mathcal{K}}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I}}_{\text{this must be invertible}} \right)^{-1} \underline{\mathcal{K}}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)$$

Gram matrix

- For the inverse  $\left( \underline{\mathcal{K}}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1}$  to exist, we will restrict ourselves to kernels for which the Gram matrix  $\underline{\mathcal{K}}(\underline{X}, \underline{X})$  is always PSD

positive  
semi-definite

[

A matrix  $\underline{M}$  is said to be PSD if

- $\underline{v}^T \underline{M} \underline{v} \geq 0$  for all  $\underline{v}$
- equivalently, all eigenvalues of  $\underline{M} \geq 0$

]

- Kernels  $\mathcal{K}(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$  that leads to a PSD  $\underline{\mathcal{K}}(\underline{X}, \underline{X})$  are called PSD kernels

## Examples of positive semi-definite kernels

- Squared exponential kernel (also known as radial basis function, RBF exponentiated quadratic, Gaussian kernel)

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'\|_2^2}{2l^2}\right)$$

where  $l > 0$  is a hyperparameter to be chosen by the user (by cross-validation)

- Polynomial kernel

$$K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = (c + \underline{x}^T \underline{x}')^{d-1}$$

order of polynomial

- You will see more examples of symmetric PSD kernels later

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underline{y}^T \left( \underbrace{\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I}}_{N \times N \text{ matrix}} \right)^{-1} \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)$$

- Inversion of a high-dimensional matrix is a very heavy operation
- Do we need to invert the matrix  $\left( \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)$  every time we predict for a new test input  $\underline{x}_*$ ?

– Not necessary

- We can introduce an  $N$ -dimensional vector  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}} \leftarrow (\text{Dual parameter})$

$$\underbrace{\hat{\underline{\alpha}}^T}_{1 \times N} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\alpha}_1 \\ \hat{\alpha}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\alpha}_N \end{bmatrix}}_{1 \times N} \stackrel{\textcircled{T}}{=} \underbrace{\underline{y}^T}_{1 \times N} \left( \underbrace{\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I}}_{N \times N} \right)^{-1} \Rightarrow \boxed{\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \hat{\underline{\alpha}}^T \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)}$$

Test prediction

So now, we only need to compute and store  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}}$  and  $\underline{X}$

# Summary of Kernel Ridge Regression (KRR)

## Training

Input: Training data  $\mathcal{T} = \{ \underline{x}_i, y_i \}_{i=1}^N$ , a kernel  $K$ , regularization parameter  $\lambda$

Output: Dual parameter  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}}$

- Assemble  $\underline{X}$  and compute  $\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X})$

- Compute  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}}$  as

$$\hat{\underline{\alpha}}^T = \underline{y}^T \left( \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1}$$

## Prediction with kernel ridge regression

Input: Learned dual parameter  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}}$  and test input  $\underline{x}_*$

Output: Prediction  $\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \hat{\underline{\alpha}}^T \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)$

## Primal vs Dual formulation

$$\hat{\underline{\theta}} = \left( \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1} \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{y}$$

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)^T \hat{\underline{\theta}}$$

Primal formulation  
of linear regression

-  $\hat{\underline{\theta}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d \rightarrow \infty$

$$\hat{\underline{\alpha}} = \underline{y}^T \left( \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{X}) + N\lambda \underline{I} \right)^{-1}$$

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \hat{\underline{\alpha}}^T \underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)$$

Dual formulation  
of linear regression

-  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $N \rightarrow \#$  of data pts  
(finite)

- By comparing the two formulations, we can find a relation between  $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$  and  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}}$

$$\hat{y}(\underline{x}_*) = \hat{\underline{\theta}}^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*) = \hat{\underline{\alpha}}^T \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X}) \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_*)}_{\underline{K}(\underline{X}, \underline{x}_*)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\underline{\theta}}_{d \times 1} = \underbrace{\underline{\Phi}(\underline{X})^T}_{d \times N} \hat{\underline{\alpha}}_{N \times 1}$$

← this is a general result of  
Representer theorem

## Simplified version of Representer's Theorem

Theorem: Let  $\hat{y}(\underline{x}) = \underline{\Theta}^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  with a fixed nonlinear transform  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$ , with  $\underline{\Theta}$  learned from training data  $\{\underline{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$

(The dimensionality of  $\underline{\Theta}$  and  $\underline{\phi}(\underline{x})$  need not be finite)

Furthermore, let  $L(y, \hat{y})$  be any arbitrary loss function &

$h: [0, \infty] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a strictly monotonically increasing function

Then, the estimate  $\hat{\underline{\Theta}}$  which is the argmin of the cost function  $J(\underline{\Theta})$ , i.e.

$$\hat{\underline{\Theta}} = \underset{\underline{\Theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, \underbrace{\underline{\Theta}^T \underline{\phi}(\underline{x}_i)}_{\hat{y}(\underline{x}_i)}) + h(\|\underline{\Theta}\|_2^2)$$

can be written as

$$\hat{\underline{\Theta}} = \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x})^T \underline{\alpha}, \quad \text{with some } N\text{-dimensional vector } \underline{\alpha}$$

• What does the representer theorem mean?

– It suggests that if  $\hat{y}(\underline{x}) = \underline{\Theta}^T \phi(\underline{x})$ , and  $\underline{\Theta}$  is to be learned using any loss function and  $L_2$ -regularization, then  $\hat{\underline{\Theta}}$  can be learned also from its dual parameter  $\hat{\underline{\alpha}}$ , using:  $\hat{\underline{\Theta}} = \underline{\Phi}(\underline{x}) \hat{\underline{\alpha}}$

– An important implication of the representer theorem is that  $L_2$ -regularization is crucial in order to obtain the dual formalism, and we could not have obtained KRR with say  $L_1$ -regularization

– Representer theorem is very important for most kernel methods.

It tells us that we can express some models in terms of dual parameters  $\underline{\alpha}$  which are of finite length  $N$ , and a kernel  $K(\underline{x}, \underline{x}')$ , instead of the primal parameters  $\underline{\Theta}$  (maybe of infinite length  $d$ ) and a  $\phi(\underline{x})$