Machine Learning Theory

The Kernel Trick

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- These Fourier series representations are great in theory.
- They make theoretical analysis easy. We'll start on that in a couple weeks.
- And they make regression look like regression in linear models.
- But using them for computation is hard.
 - Those linear models are infinite-dimensional.
 - We can use finite-dimensional approximations.
 - But sometimes that means allocating a 316 GB vector.

Context

$$\hat{\mu} = \underset{\text{increasing } m}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{ Y_i - m(X_i) \}^2$$

When we solved for our estimator in most of our 1D models, we optimized over *n* parameters. Not infinitely many.

You can parameterize in terms of the values of m at the sorted X_i .

$$m \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
 with $m_i = m(X_i)$

Or the jumps from one to the next.

 $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $b_1 = m(X_1)$ and $b_i = m(X_i) - m(X_{i-1})$ for i > 1.

This works for Lipschitz Regression, Bounded TV Regression, Monotone Regression, etc.

We'd like to do something similar for Sobolev Regression, and we will.

- We won't parameterize it the same way.
- But we'll get *n* parameters.

Notation

We'll reparameterize our models by scaling down our eigenvectors.

$$m = \sum_{k} m_{k} \phi_{k} = \sum_{k} \underbrace{m_{k} \sqrt{\lambda_{k}}}_{\tilde{m}_{k}} \underbrace{\phi_{k} / \sqrt{\lambda_{k}}}_{\tilde{\phi}_{k}}.$$

This makes our special inner product a little easier to express.

$$\langle T \ u, v \rangle = \sum_{k} \lambda_{k} u_{k} v_{k} = \sum_{k} \tilde{u}_{k} \tilde{v}_{k} = \langle \tilde{u}, \tilde{v} \rangle_{2} = \sum_{j} \tilde{u}_{j} \tilde{v}_{j}.$$

And makes our models look a little more like a typical ridge regression.

$$\mathcal{M} = \{m : \|m\|_T \le 1\} = \left\{ \sum_k \tilde{m}_k \tilde{\phi}_k : \|\tilde{m}\|_2 \le 1 \right\}.$$

With this rescaling, our coefficients \tilde{m} are in a sphere, not an ellipse.

$$\hat{\mu}(x) = \sum_{k} \hat{m}_{k} \tilde{\phi}_{k}(x) \quad \text{for} \quad \hat{m} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\tilde{m}: \|\tilde{m}\|_{2} \leq 1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ Y_{i} - \left\langle \tilde{m}, \; \tilde{\phi}(X_{i}) \right\rangle_{2} \right\}^{2}$$

Is this really an optimization over infinitely many parameters?

$$\hat{\mu}(x) = \sum_{k} \hat{m}_{k} \tilde{\phi}_{k}(x) \quad \text{for} \quad \hat{m} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\tilde{m}: \|\tilde{m}\|_{2} \leq 1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ Y_{i} - \left\langle \tilde{m}, \; \tilde{\phi}(X_{i}) \right\rangle_{2} \right\}^{2}$$

Is this really an optimization over infinitely many parameters? No. It's an optimization over *n* parameters.

 \cdot Mean squared error only depends on n inner products with our basis vectors,

$$\langle \tilde{m}, \tilde{\phi}(X_1) \rangle_2 \dots \langle \tilde{m}, \tilde{\phi}(X_n) \rangle_2.$$

 \cdot So there's a solution \hat{m} that's spanned by our basis vectors.

$$\hat{m} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_j \tilde{\phi}(X_j).$$

- If we varied \tilde{m} in a perpendicular direction:
 - We'll make the norm we're constraining bigger.
 - We won't improve squared error.

This lets us reparameterize our problem in terms of these n inner products. There's a solution that can be written like this.

$$m(x) = \sum_{k} \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \tilde{\phi}_{k}(X_{j})}_{\tilde{m}_{k}} \tilde{\phi}_{k}(x)$$

The reparameterized problem

To estimate $\mu(x)$, we take a weighted average of inner products between

- \cdot The basis vectors at the observed X_i
- The basis vector $\phi(x)$ at the point we're trying to predict.

All we've got to do is learn the n weights via least squares. That is, we predict

$$\hat{\mu}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_j \left\langle \tilde{\phi}(X_j), \; \tilde{\phi}(x) \right\rangle$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha} = \underset{\substack{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \left\|\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \tilde{\phi}(X_j)\right\|_2 \le 1}{\underset{\text{i.e. } \sum_j \tilde{m}_j^2 \le 1}{\operatorname{argmin}}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ Y_i - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \left\langle \tilde{\phi}(X_j), \ \tilde{\phi}(X_i) \right\rangle_2 \right\}^2.$$

- We've still got to compute inner products between infinite dimensional vectors.
- But that's all we have to do with them. The vectors only appear in inner products.
- Can we somehow do this without actually computing the vectors themselves?

Suppose we knew how to evaluate these inner products—we've coded up a function.

$$K(x,x') = \left\langle ilde{\phi}(x), \; ilde{\phi}(x')
ight
angle_2$$
 is called a Kernel.

Then we are set. All we've got to compute is a ridge regression with n parameters.

$$\hat{\mu}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \hat{\alpha}_j K(X_j, x)$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\substack{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \sum_{ij} \alpha_i \alpha_j K(X_j, X_k) \le 1}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ Y_i - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j K(X_j, X_i) \right\}^2$$

$$= \underset{\substack{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \alpha^T K \alpha \leq 1}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|Y - K\alpha\|_2^2 \quad \text{where} \quad K_{ij} = K(X_i, X_j).$$

The Kernel Trick in General

We've done nothing specific to least squares here. Here's what we've used.

- \cdot We've minimizing a cost that depends on only two aspects of the curve m
 - 1. Its values $m(X_1) \ldots m(X_n)$ at the observed covariates
 - 2. Its Sobolev norm $||m||_T = \langle Tm, m \rangle$
- · And that it prefers that norm to be small.

That means it's enough to optimize over coefficients \tilde{m}_k spanned by the observed basis vectors $\tilde{\phi}(X_i)$. Otherwise, we'd increase cost for no reason.

Conveniently

- The two aspects of *m* involved in our cost can be expressed in terms of inner products between these basis vectors.
- And therefore in terms of the kernel.

$$m_{\alpha}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \Big\langle \tilde{\phi}(X_{j}), \ \tilde{\phi}(x) \Big\rangle_{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \|m_{\alpha}\|_{T} = \sum_{ij} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \Big\langle \tilde{\phi}(X_{j}), \ \tilde{\phi}(X_{j}) \Big\rangle_{2}$$

Other Applications of the Kernel Trick

Support Vector Machine Classification

$$\hat{\mu} = \underset{\|m\|_T \leq 1}{\operatorname{argmin}} \quad -\sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, Y_i m(X_i)\} \text{ for labels } Y_i \in \{\pm 1\}.$$

It minimizes *hinge loss*, an approximation to classification error. We classify based on the sign of $\hat{\mu}(x)$. If we're using a Sobolev model, least squares is easy if we know the model's kernel.

$$K(x,x') = \left\langle \tilde{\phi}(x), \; \tilde{\phi}(x') \right\rangle_2 = \sum_k \lambda_k^{-1} \; \phi_k(x) \; \phi_k(x').$$

Same goes for SVM Classification. Or more or less anything else.

One option is to just make up a kernel and use that.

- The downside is that you're using whatever model it happens to be the kernel for.
- You may not know what this model is, and if you did, you might not like it.

People who take this approach often use the Gaussian Kernel.

$$K(x, x') = \exp\left(-\|x - x'\|_2^2\right)$$

This is the kernel for a model that includes only very smooth functions. The result is very fast convergence to a very smooth approximation to what they want. If we're using a Sobolev model, least squares is easy if we know the model's kernel.

$$K(x,x') = \left\langle \tilde{\phi}(x), \; \tilde{\phi}(x') \right\rangle_2 = \sum_k \lambda_k^{-1} \; \phi_k(x) \; \phi_k(x').$$

Same goes for SVM Classification. Or more or less anything else.

Another option is to choose a model and compute its kernel exactly.

- There are techniques for this, but often you wind up with another hard problem.
- To evaluate the kernel K(x, x'), you'd maybe have to solve a differential equation.
- Sometimes this is fast, sometimes it's not.

If we're using a Sobolev model, least squares is easy if we know the model's kernel.

$$K(x,x') = \left\langle \tilde{\phi}(x), \ \tilde{\phi}(x') \right\rangle_2 = \sum_k \lambda_k^{-1} \ \phi_k(x) \ \phi_k(x').$$

Same goes for SVM Classification. Or more or less anything else.

A third option is to choose a model, then compute its kernel approximately.

- When you do this, you're effectively using a different model.
- You're using the model that your approximation is actually the kernel for.
- But if your approximation is good, that'll be pretty similar to the model you chose.

If you're using a popular model, usually someone's done this already.

- \cdot This means you can look up the kernel just google your model.
- But be a little careful.
- Often people aren't all that clear about what model it's really the kernel for.

Computing Kernels

The Sobolev Model in 1D

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ m : \langle m', \ m' \rangle_{L_2} \leq 1 \right\} = \left\{ m : \langle -m'', \ m \rangle_{L_2} \leq 1 \right\}$$
$$K(x, x') = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\pi k)^{-2}}{\lambda_k^{-1}} \frac{\sqrt{2}\cos(\pi kx)}{\phi_k(x)} \frac{\sqrt{2}\cos(\pi kx')}{\phi_k(x')}$$

Ideas

The Sobolev Model in 1D

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ m : \langle m', \ m' \rangle_{L_2} \le 1 \right\} = \left\{ m : \langle -m'', \ m \rangle_{L_2} \le 1 \right\}$$
$$K(x, x') = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\pi k)^{-2} \sqrt{2} \cos(\pi kx) \sqrt{2} \cos(\pi kx')$$
$$\phi_k(x')$$

Ideas

• Cosine product formula.

$$\cos(a)\cos(b) = \{\cos(a+b) + \cos(a-b)\}/2$$

Integral approximation

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k) \approx \int_0^{\infty} f(k)$$

• Don't divide by zero—use a slightly different model.

$$\lambda_k = \epsilon^2 + (\pi k)^2$$
 is the *k*th eigenvalue of $T = \epsilon^2 - \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$

• Let a computer integrate for us. I use wolfram alpha most of the time.

 $\mathrm{integrate}\,\cos(\pi kz)/(\epsilon^2+\pi^2k^2) \ \mathrm{for} \ k \ \mathrm{from} \ 0 \ \mathrm{to} \ \infty \implies \epsilon e^{-|\epsilon z|} \ / \ 2\epsilon^2.$

Worksheet

$$K(x, x') = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\epsilon^2 + \pi^2 k^2)^{-1} \sqrt{2} \cos(\pi kx) \sqrt{2} \cos(\pi kx')$$

Formulas

$$\cos(a)\cos(b) = \{\cos(a+b) + \cos(a-b)\}/2$$
$$\int_0^\infty (\epsilon^2 + \pi^2 k^2)^{-1} \cos(\pi kz) = \epsilon e^{-|\epsilon z|} / 2\epsilon^2.$$

- Implement it.
- Compare to the approximation-based approximation error we've been using to check our approximation.
- Generalize to other models we might want to use.
 - e.g. the Gaussian Sobolev Model.
 - e.g. the Isotropic Multivariate Sobolev Model.