# Solving Kernel Ridge Regression with Gradient Descent for a Non-Constant Kernel (after an introduction to kernels)

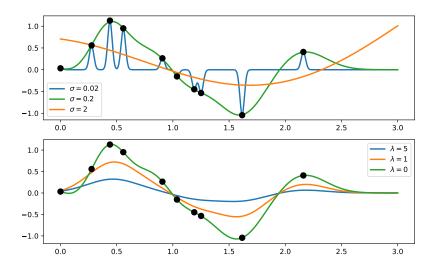
Oskar Allerbo

KTH Royal Institute of Technology

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www.github.com/allerbo/hemavan24/slides.pdf

#### Kernel Ridge Regression



## Kernel Ridge Regression

Kernel ridge regression (KRR) is a generalization of linear ridge regression that is

- non-linear in the data,
- but linear in the parameters.
- a convex problem, with a closed-form solution.

#### Outline

- Introduction to Kernels
- 2 Kernel Principal Component Analysis (KPCA)
- 3 Kernel Ridge Regression (KRR)
- 4 Kernel Gradient Descent for Non-constant Kernels (KGD)
- 5 Generalization to Neural Networks (NNs)
- **6** Conclusions

#### A kernel function:

- Takes two arguments and outputs a scalar:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .
- Is symmetric:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = k(\mathbf{x'}, \mathbf{x}).$
- Is positive semi-definite:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{i=j}^{n} c_i c_j k(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{x_j}) \geq 0. \text{ For all } \mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{x_j} \in \mathbb{R}^p, \ c_i, c_j \in \mathbb{R}.$
- Is the dot product of the feature expansions of x and x':  $k(x, x') = \varphi(x)^{\top} \varphi(x')$ .  $\varphi(x), \varphi(x') \in \mathbb{R}^q$ .  $q = \infty$  is a possibility!
- (Is associated to a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space, RKHS.)

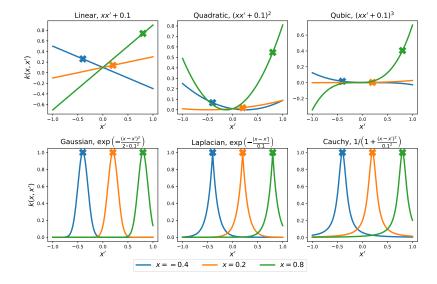
# Examples of Kernels

Kernels

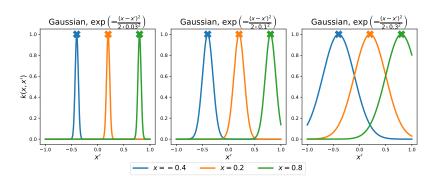
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- Linear:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{x'} + c, c \in \mathbb{R}$
- Polynomial:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = (\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{x'} + c)^q, c \in \mathbb{R}, q \in \mathbb{N}$
- Gaussian:  $k(x, x') = e^{-\frac{\|x x'\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ .  $\sigma > 0$
- Laplace:  $k(x, x') = e^{-\frac{\|x x'\|_2}{\sigma}}$ .  $\sigma > 0$
- Cauchy:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x'}\|_2^2}{2}}, \ \sigma > 0$
- Matérn:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = \frac{2^{1-\nu}}{\Gamma(\nu)} \cdot \left(\sqrt{2\nu} \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x'}\|_2}{\sigma}\right)^{\nu} \cdot K_{\nu} \left(\sqrt{2\nu} \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x'}\|_2}{\sigma}\right)$

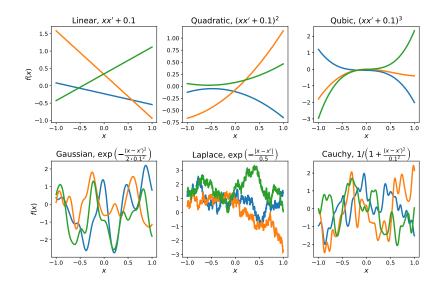
#### Examples of Kernels (1D Case)



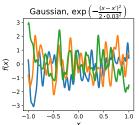
#### Examples of Kernels (1D Case)

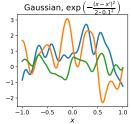


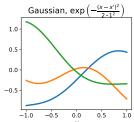
# Examples of Functions (1D Case)



## Examples of Functions (1D Case)







Kernels

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Conclusions

## Examples of Feature Expansions (1D Case)

- Linear,  $k(x, x') = x \cdot x' + c$   $\varphi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x & \sqrt{c} \end{bmatrix}^{\top}$  $\varphi(x)^{\top} \varphi(x') = x \cdot x' + \sqrt{c} \cdot \sqrt{c}$
- Quadratic,  $k(x, x') = (x \cdot x' + c)^2$   $\varphi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x^2 & \sqrt{2c}x & c \end{bmatrix}^\top$  $\varphi(x)^\top \varphi(x') = x^2 \cdot x'^2 + 2c \cdot x \cdot x' + c \cdot c$
- Gaussian,  $k(x, x') = e^{-\frac{(x-x')^2}{2\sigma^2}}$  $\varphi(x) = e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{x^1}{\sigma^1 \sqrt{1!}} & \dots & \frac{x^k}{\sigma^k \sqrt{k!}} & \dots \end{bmatrix}^\top$   $\varphi(x)^\top \varphi(x') = e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x^2 + x'^2)} \cdot \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x \cdot x'/\sigma^2)^k}{k!}}_{-e^{\frac{x^2 \cdot x'x'}{2\sigma^2}}}$

#### **Notation**

Kernels

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Training Data:  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

New Observations:  $\mathbf{X}^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n^* \times p}$ .

Predictions:  $\hat{\mathbf{f}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{f}}^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n^*}$ .

Feature Expansion Matrices:

$$\Phi = \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}, \ \Phi^* = \Phi^*(\mathbf{X}^*) \in \mathbb{R}^{n^* \times q}.$$

Kernel Matrices:

$$K = K(X) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, K^* = K(X^*, X) \in \mathbb{R}^{n^* \times n}.$$

$$oldsymbol{\mathcal{K}} = oldsymbol{\Phi} oldsymbol{\Phi}^{ op}$$
 ,  $oldsymbol{\mathcal{K}}^* = oldsymbol{\Phi}^* oldsymbol{\Phi}^{ op}$  .

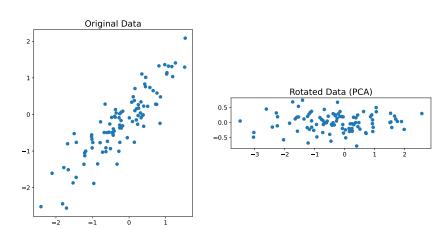
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}) = \varphi(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \varphi(\mathbf{x'}).$$

#### Notation

Kernels

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Principal Component Analysis (PCA):
Rotate data to find directions with maximum variance.



Conclusions

## Kernel Principal Component Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA):

Rotate data to find directions with maximum variance.

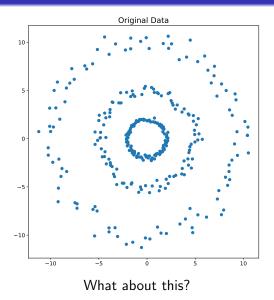
$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}}, \ \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{P}.$$

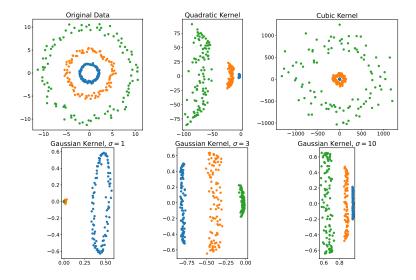
Equivalent, dual formulation:

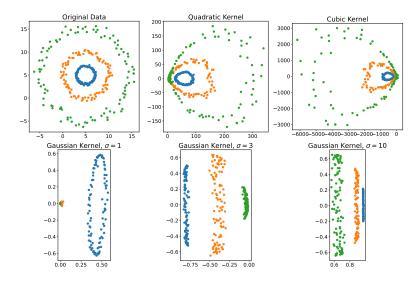
$$XX^{\top} = UDU^{\top}, Z = U\sqrt{D}.$$

Kernel PCA:

$$\Phi\Phi^{ op} = \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{K}}^{ op}, \ \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{K}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{K}}}.$$







#### Kernel Ridge Regression

- Linear Ridge Regression
- Dual Formulation of Linear Ridge Regression
- Ridge Regression in Feature Space
- Dual Formulation of Ridge Regression in Feature Space (=Kernel Ridge Regression)

Kernels

## Linear Ridge Regression

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} \|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \underbrace{\| \boldsymbol{\beta} \|_2^2}_{=\boldsymbol{\beta}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}}$$
$$= \left( \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{p} \times \boldsymbol{p}} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{y}$$

Predictions are given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\boldsymbol{f}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \\ \boldsymbol{X}^* \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X} \left( \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p \times p} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{y} \\ \boldsymbol{X}^* \left( \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p \times p} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{y} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Conclusions

#### Dual Formulation of Linear Ridge Regression

Dual formulation for  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ :

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \left\| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\alpha} \right\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{=\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|_{\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top}}^{2}}$$
$$= \left( \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{n} \times \boldsymbol{n}} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$$

Predictions are given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{f}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{f}}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{X}^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \\ \mathbf{X}^* \cdot \mathbf{X}^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{n \times n})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{X}^* \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{n \times n})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}.$$

#### Linear Ridge Regression

Predictions given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \\ \mathbf{X}^*\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{p \times p})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{X}^* (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{p \times p})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

and

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \\ \boldsymbol{X}^{*}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{n \times n})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} \\ \boldsymbol{X}^{*}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{n \times n})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} \end{bmatrix}.$$

However,

$$(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{p \times p})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top} = \mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{n \times n})^{-1}.$$

## Ridge Regression in Feature Space

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p \mapsto \varphi(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^q$$
.

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E.g. polynomial regression, 
$$x \mapsto [1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{q-1}]$$
.

$$\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p} \mapsto \mathbf{\Phi} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}, \ \mathbf{X}^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n^* \times p} \mapsto \mathbf{\Phi}^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n^* \times q}$$

$$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}} = \mathop{\mathsf{argmin}}_{oldsymbol{eta} \in \mathbb{R}^q} rac{1}{2} \left\| oldsymbol{y} - oldsymbol{\Phi} oldsymbol{eta} 
ight\|_2^2 + rac{\lambda}{2} \|oldsymbol{eta} 
ight\|_2^2$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \left\| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \boldsymbol{\alpha} \right\|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|_{\boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top}^2$$

Predictions are given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\boldsymbol{f}} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \left( \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p \times p} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \boldsymbol{y} \\ \boldsymbol{\Phi}^* \left( \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p \times p} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \boldsymbol{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \left( \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{n \times n} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} \\ \boldsymbol{\Phi}^* \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top \left( \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^\top + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{n \times n} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

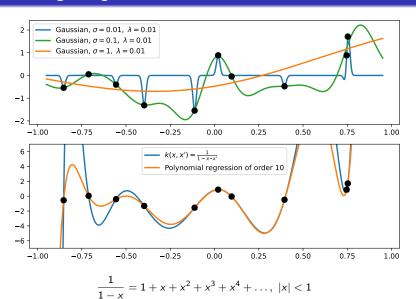
#### Kernel Ridge Regression

Kernels

For 
$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{\Phi}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$
,  $\mathbf{K}^* = \mathbf{\Phi}^*\mathbf{\Phi}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n^* \times n}$ , 
$$\hat{\alpha} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{K}\alpha\|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\alpha\|_K^2$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{f}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{f}}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K} \\ \mathbf{K}^* \end{bmatrix} \hat{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{n \times n})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{K}^* (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{n \times n})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $q=\infty$  is OK, since  $\Phi$  and  $\Phi^*$  are never explicitly calculated.

#### Kernel Ridge Regression



#### Kernel Gradient Descent for Non-Constant Kernels

Kernel gradient descent in function/prediction space: (with regularization through early stopping)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\pmb{f}}_{t+1} \\ \hat{\pmb{f}}_{t+1}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\pmb{f}}_t \\ \hat{\pmb{f}}_t^* \end{bmatrix} - \eta \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \pmb{K} \\ \pmb{K}^* \end{bmatrix} (\hat{\pmb{f}}_t - \pmb{y})$$

$$\left( \text{where } \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\pmb{f}} \\ \hat{\pmb{f}}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pmb{K} \\ \pmb{K}^* \end{bmatrix} \hat{\alpha} \right)$$

Time dependent kernels:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\pmb{f}}_{t+1} \\ \hat{\pmb{f}}_{t+1}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\pmb{f}}_t \\ \hat{\pmb{f}}_t^* \end{bmatrix} - \eta \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \pmb{K}_t \\ \pmb{K}_t^* \end{bmatrix} (\hat{\pmb{f}}_t - \pmb{y})$$

Conclusions

# Kernel Regression with Gradient Descent and Non-Constant Kernels

#### **Proposition**

For a translational invariant kernel with bandwidth  $\sigma$ ,  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'}, \sigma) = k\left(\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x'}\|_2}{\sigma}\right)$ , and for constant training time, t,

$$\left\| \nabla_{\mathbf{x}^*} \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}^*, t) \right\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma} \cdot t \cdot C(k(\cdot), \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$$

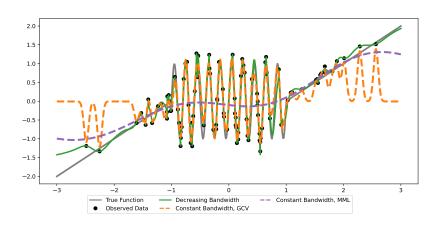
i.e. a larger bandwidth results in a simpler model, and a smaller bandwidth in a more complex model.

We use  $1/\sigma$  as a proxy for complexity.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{f}}_{t+1} \\ \hat{\mathbf{f}}_{t+1}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{f}}_{t} \\ \hat{\mathbf{f}}_{t}^* \end{bmatrix} - \eta \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}(\sigma_t) \\ \mathbf{K}^*(\sigma_t) \end{bmatrix} (\hat{\mathbf{f}}_{t} - \mathbf{y})$$

Idea: Start with a kernel with large bandwidth (a simple model). Gradually decrease the bandwidth towards zero during training.

# Kernel Regression with Gradient Descent and Non-Constant Kernels



# Kernel Regression with Gradient Descent and Non-Constant Kernels, Double Descent

Generalization as function of model complexity:

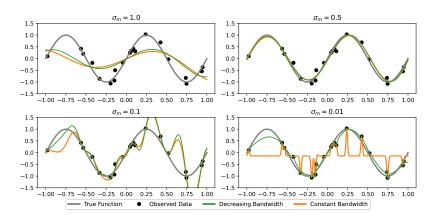
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A too simple model generalizes poorly.

A model of appropriate complexity generalizes well.

A too complex model generalizes poorly (overfitting).
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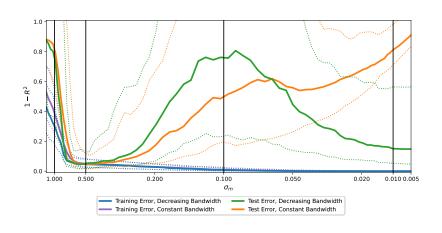
An extremely complex model generalizes well (double descent).

## Kernel Regression with Gradient Descent and Non-Constant Kernels, Double Descent



 $\sigma_m$ : Minimum allowed bandwidth when decreasing the bandwidth. Employed bandwidth when using a constant bandwidth.

## Kernel Regression with Gradient Descent and Non-Constant Kernels, Double Descent



Conclusions

## Kernel Regression with Gradient Descent and Non-Constant Kernels, Double Descent

#### Proposition (Simplified)

$$|\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^*,t,\sigma_m)| \leq \min\left(\overline{\sigma^{-1}}(\sigma_m),\ \overline{k_2^*}(\sigma_m)\right) \cdot t,$$

where  $\overline{\sigma^{-1}}(\sigma_m)$  increases with model complexity and  $\overline{k_2^*}(\sigma_m)$  decreases with model complexity.

Low complexity:  $\overline{\sigma^{-1}}(\sigma_m)$  is small  $|\hat{f}|$  is too small.

Moderate complexity:  $\overline{\sigma^{-1}}(\sigma_m)$  is moderate  $|\hat{f}|$  is appropriate.

High complexity:  $\overline{\sigma^{-1}}(\sigma_m)$  is large  $|\hat{f}|$  is too large.

Very high complexity:  $\overline{k_2^*}(\sigma_m)$  is moderate  $|\hat{f}|$  is appropriate.

Kernels

#### Neural Tangent Kernel Gradient Flow

$$\begin{bmatrix}
\hat{f}(t + \Delta t) \\
\hat{f}^*(t + \Delta t)
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\hat{f}(t) \\
\hat{f}^*(t)
\end{bmatrix} - \Delta t \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
K(t) \\
K^*(t)
\end{bmatrix} (\hat{f}(t) - y)$$

$$\iff \frac{\begin{bmatrix}
\hat{f}(t + \Delta t) \\
\hat{f}^*(t + \Delta t)
\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}
\hat{f}(t) \\
\hat{f}^*(t)
\end{bmatrix}}{\Delta t} = - \begin{bmatrix}
K(t) \\
K^*(t)
\end{bmatrix} (\hat{f}(t) - y)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{f}(t)}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial \hat{f}^{*}(t)}{\partial t} \end{bmatrix} \overset{\text{C.R.}}{=} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{f}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \\ \frac{\partial \hat{f}^{*}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)}{\partial t} \overset{\text{G.D.}}{=} - \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{f}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \\ \frac{\partial \hat{f}^{*}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{\partial L(\hat{f}(t))}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)}$$

$$\overset{\text{C.R.}}{=} - \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{f}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \\ \frac{\partial \hat{f}^{*}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{f}(t)}{\partial \hat{\theta}(t)} \end{pmatrix}^{\top} \cdot \frac{\partial L(\hat{f}(t))}{\partial \hat{f}(t)}$$

$$\overset{\text{def}}{=} - \begin{bmatrix} \Phi(t)\Phi(t)^{\top} \\ \Phi^{*}(t)\Phi(t)^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{\partial L(\hat{f}(t))}{\partial \hat{f}(t)} = - \begin{bmatrix} K(t) \\ K^{*}(t) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{\partial L(\hat{f}(t))}{\partial \hat{f}(t)}.$$

## Improved Generalization by Neural Tangent Control

- Kernel gradient descent performs best when the bandwidth decreases toward zero,
- that is, when  $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{K} \\ \mathbf{K}^* \end{vmatrix}$  goes to  $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{n \times n} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n^* \times n} \end{vmatrix}$ .
- Can this be behaviour be enforced for the neural tangent kernel?
- Work in progress, but it seems so...

#### Conclusions

#### Kernels models

- are non-linear in data.
- are linear in parameters (and thus convex with closed-form solutions).
- correspond to a (possibly infinite dimensional) feature expansion.

#### Examples:

- Kernel Principal Component Analysis.
- Kernel Ridge Regression.

Kernel regression with gradually increased model complexity

- reduces the need for hyper parameter selection.
- exhibits a double descent behavior.
- is generalizable to any parametric model trained with gradient descent.

#### The End

Thank you!