## Chapter 2 :: Kernels

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## Reference:

$\star$ Bernhard Schölkopf and Alex Smola, Learning with Kernels - Support Vector Machines, Regularization, Optimization and Beyond, MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 2002, pp 25-60

* Steve R. Gunn, Support Vector Machines for Classification and Regression, Technical Report, Faculty of Engg. and App. Sc., Dept. of ECE.
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//www.isis.ecs.soton.ac.uk/isystems/kernel/


## Outline

$\star$ Introduction
$\star$ Polynomial Kernels
$\star$ Kernels to Feature Spaces
$\star$ Reproducing Kernel Hillbert Spaces \& Mercer Kernels
$\star$ Empirical Kernel Map
$\star$ Examples and Properties of Kernels
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## Introduction

$$
X\left(\omega_{k}\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j 2 \pi n k / N}, \quad k=0,1, \ldots, N-1
$$

$\star$ Is a DFT of $x(n)$
$\star$ The function $e^{-j 2 \pi n k / N}$ gives raise to the Fourier operator

* This function can be regarded as Kernel of the Fourier Transform.
$\star$ So, what are kernels?

Terminology: A function $k$ which gives rise to an operator $T_{k}$ via

$$
\left(T_{k} f\right)(x)=\int_{\mathcal{X}} k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) f\left(x^{\prime}\right) d x^{\prime}
$$

is called the kernel of $T_{k}$
History: The term kernel was first used in the field of integral operators as studied by Hilbert and others.
Specific Names: ${ }^{1}$ Reproducing Kernel, admissible kernel, Mercer Kernel, Support Vector Kernel, nonnegative definite kernel, covariance kernel.

[^0]
## Kernels of Interest

$\star$ Here, we are interested in kernels $k$ of the type

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi: & \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\
& x \rightarrow \mathrm{x}:=\Phi(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\star$ i.e Kernels that correspond to dot products in feature spaces $\mathcal{H}$ via a map $\Phi$

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left\langle\Phi(x), \phi\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle
$$

$\star$ What kind of functions $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ admit such representations?

## Polynomial Kernels

$\star$ Given 2D patterns $\mathcal{X}=\mathbb{R}^{2}$, consider the nonlinear map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi: \mathbb{R}^{2} & \rightarrow \mathcal{H}=\mathbb{R}^{3} \\
\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) & \rightarrow\left(x_{1}^{1}, x_{2}^{2}, x_{1} x_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\star$ This is a collection of product features of degree 2
$\star$ Such polynomial classification works for small examples, fails when $N$ is large
$\star$ Example: $16 \times 16$ images with a monomial degree $d=5$ yields a dimension of $10^{10}$ Impractical !!!

* Kernels provide methods to compute dot products in higher dimensional spaces without explicitly mapping into these spaces
$\star$ Consider the map:

$$
\Phi:\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \quad \rightarrow \quad\left(x_{1}^{1}, x_{2}^{2}, x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{1}\right)
$$

$\star$ Dot products in the feature space $\mathcal{H}$ are the form

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

$\star$ The kernel is the square of the dot product in the input space
$\star$ So, in general kernels for polynomials the kernel is computed as

$$
k(x, y)=\left\langle\Phi_{d}(x), \Phi_{d}(y)\right\rangle=\langle x, y\rangle^{d}
$$

$\star$ Ordered and unordered polynomial products lead to different maps.

* Multiple occurrences of unordered polynomials are compensated by scaling them with $\sqrt{(d-n+1)!}$, $n$ the number of such occurrences as

$$
\Phi_{2}(x)=\left(x_{1}^{2}, x_{2}^{2}, \sqrt{2} x_{1} x_{2}\right)
$$

$\star$ Although ordered $\left(C_{d}\right)$ and unordered ( $\Phi_{d}$ ) map into different feature spaces, they are valid instantiations of feature maps for

$$
k(x, y)=\langle x, y\rangle^{d}
$$



True boundary:: Ellipse in the input space


Boundary:: Hyperplane in the feature space

Figure 1: Binary Classification mapped into feature space

## Definitions of Kernelogy

Gram Matrix: A function $k: \mathcal{X}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ and patterns $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \in \mathcal{X}$, the $m \times m$ matrix

$$
K_{i j}=k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)
$$

is the Gram matrix or Kernel Matrix of $k$
PD Matrix: A complex $m \times m$ matrix $K$ satisfying

$$
\sum_{i, j} c_{i} \bar{c}_{j} K_{i j} \geq 0
$$

for all $c_{i} \in \mathbb{C}$ is positive definite.

PD Kernel: A function $k$ on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$ that gives rise to a positive definite Gram matrix is a pd kernel.

## Additional Points

$\star$ Kernels can be considered as generalized dot products.
$\star$ Linearity of dot products does not carry over to kernels
$\star$ Cauchy-Schwarz inequality can be extended to kernels as

$$
|k(x, y)|^{2} \leq k(x, x) k(y, y)
$$

## Reproducing Kernel Map

$\star k$ a real valued, pd kernel, $\mathcal{X}$ a nonempty set.
$\star$ Define a map from $\mathcal{X}$ into a space of functions mapping $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathbb{R}$, denoted as $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}:=\{f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi: & \mathcal{X} \\
& x \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}} \\
& \rightarrow k(., x)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Phi(x)$ denotes the function that assign the value $k\left(x^{\prime}, x\right)$ to $x^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}$ i.e., $\Phi(x)()=.k(., x)$


* Each pattern has been turned into a function on domain $\mathcal{X}$
$\star$ Now the pattern is represented by the similarity to all other points in the input domain.
* To construct a feature space associated with $\Phi$ :
- Create a vector space out of the image $\Phi$
- Define a dot product in this space has a strictly pd bilinear form
- See to that it satisfies $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left\langle\Phi(x), \Phi\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$
$\star$ Then this kernel is called Reproducing Kernel and the map is Reproducing Kernel Map
$\star$ It is also possible to define a mapping $\Phi$ from $\mathcal{X}$ into a dot product space and obtain a pd kernel.
$\star$ Defines the equivalence of kernels.


## Kernel Trick

Given an algorithm, formulated in terms of a pd kernel $k$, an alternative algorithm can be constructed by replacing $k$ by another pd kernel $\tilde{k}$
$\star$ After replacement the dot product operates on $\tilde{\Phi}\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \tilde{\Phi}\left(x_{1}\right)$ instead of $\Phi\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \Phi\left(x_{1}\right)$

- Example: $k$ is a dot product in the input domain
- However, $k$ and $\tilde{k}$ can be nonlinear algorithms
- Caution: Certain algorithm work only subject to additional input conditions on the data
- Hence, not every conceivable pd kernel will make sense.


## Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

$$
\Phi: \mathbb{R}^{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}, \quad \mathbf{x} \rightarrow k(\mathbf{x}, .)
$$

$\star$ These functions were defined in dot product spaces
$\star$ Endowing a norm $\|x\|:=\sqrt{\langle x, x\rangle}$, then $\mathcal{H}$ is a RKHS if

- $k$ has the reproducing property

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle\Phi, k(x, .)\rangle & =\Phi(x), \quad \forall \Phi \in \mathcal{H} \\
\langle k(x, .), k(y, .)\rangle & =k(x, y)
\end{aligned}
$$

- $k$ spans $\mathcal{H}$

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i} a_{i} k\left(x, x_{i}\right)
$$

## Mercer Kernel

* Let $k$ be a symmetric real valued kernel such that

$$
k(x, y)=\sum_{j}^{N_{\mathcal{H}}} \lambda_{j} \psi_{j}(x) \psi_{j}(y)
$$

holds for almost all $(x, y)$
$\star$ where $\lambda_{j}>0$ the eigen values, $\psi_{j}$ normalized orthogonal eigen functions i.e $\psi_{i} \psi_{j}=\delta_{i j}$
$\star k$ is a Mercer Kernel Map

## Empirical Kernel Map

$\star$ For a given set $\left\{z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right\} \subset \mathcal{X}, n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi_{n}: \mathbb{R}^{N} & \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} \\
\left.x \rightarrow k(., x)\right|_{\left\{z_{1}, \ldots z_{n}\right\}} & =\left(k\left(z_{1}, x\right), \ldots k\left(z_{n}, x\right)\right)^{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

is the empirical kernel map wrt $\left\{z_{1}, \ldots z_{n}\right\}$.
$\star$ Evaluation of the kernel map on the training patterns
$\star$ Direct extension of this concept is Kernel PCA map

## Examples of kernels

$\star$ Polynomial Kernel

$$
k(x, y)=\langle x, y\rangle^{d}
$$

$\star$ Gaussian RBF kernels

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

$\star$ Sigmoid

$$
k(x, y)=\tanh (\kappa\langle x, y\rangle+\vartheta)
$$

^ Inhomogeneous polynomials

$$
k(x, y)=(\langle x, y\rangle+c)^{d}
$$

## Properties

* The above kernels are unitary invariant

$$
k(x, y)=k(\mathcal{U} x, \mathcal{U} y), \text { if } \mathcal{U}^{T}=\mathcal{U}^{-1}
$$

where $\mathcal{U}$ is for instance a rotation
$\star$ RBF kernels are translation invariant

$$
k(x, y)=k\left(x+x_{o}, y+y_{o}\right) \forall x_{o} \in \mathcal{X}
$$

$\star$ Polynomial kernels are invariant under orthogonal transformations of $\mathbb{R}^{N}$ up to a scaling factor

* Gram Matrix of a Gaussian RBF kernel is full rank
- Implies $\Phi\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \Phi\left(x_{m}\right)$ are linearly independent
- They span the $m$ dimensional subspace of $\mathcal{H}$
- RBKs defined on domains of infinite cardinality, with no a priori restriction of training examples, produces an infinite dimension feature space.
- The data is mapped in a way that smooth and simple estimates are possible.


## Kernel Selection

* With so many different mappings to choose from, which is the best for a particular application?
$\star$ SVMs can be seen as one framework for comparison of these mappings
* The upper-bound is provided by SLT, which provides an avenue to compare these kernels
$\star$ The question has remained for a long time and cross-validation remains the preferred method for kernel selection


## Conclusions

$\star$ Kernels - from the cornerstone of SVM and other Kernel methods
$\star$ Permit the computation of dot products in high-dimensional spaces, using functions defined on pairs of input patterns.
$\star$ Kernel trick allows formation of nonlinear variants of any algorithm cast in terms of dot products.
$\star$ Though, any dot product based algorithm can be kernelized care must be taken to choose the kernel, which until now is only through cross validation.

## Problems

$\star$ (2.1 Monomial Features in $\mathbb{R}^{2} \bullet$ ) Verify (2.9) on page 27
Ł (2.33 Translation of a Dot Product •) Prove (2.79) on page 48
$\star$ (2.35 Polarization Identity $\bullet$ ) For any symmetric bilinear form $\langle.,\rangle:. \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we have,
$\forall x, y \in \mathcal{X}$

$$
\langle x, y\rangle=\frac{1}{4}(\langle x+y, x+y\rangle-\langle x-y, x-y\rangle)
$$

Now consider the spl. case where $\langle.$, . $\rangle$ is an

Euclidean dot product and $\langle x-y, x-y\rangle$ is the squared Euclidean distance between $x$ and $y$. Discuss why the polarization identity does not imply that the value of the dot product can be recovered from the distances alone. What else does one need?


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Only applicable to PD kernels

