

Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces:

We will consider real Hilbert spaces ~~as~~ vector spaces over \mathbb{R} .

Def A Hilbert^H space is a vector space (over \mathbb{R}) together with a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: H^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

- (i) $\forall x, y \in H \quad \langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- (ii) $\forall x \in H \quad \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ and $= 0$ iff $x = 0$
- (iii) $\forall r \in \mathbb{R}, x, y \in H \quad \langle rx, y \rangle = r \langle x, y \rangle$
- (iv) $\forall x \in H$, define $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$; then $\|\cdot\|$ satisfies all the axioms for a norm; in particular $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$.
- (v) $\forall x, y \in H$ define $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$; then d is a metric on H . The metric space (H, d) is Cauchy complete.

Remark A vector space with a norm satisfying (v) above is called a Banach space. Hilbert spaces are very special Banach spaces.

Example 1 Euclidean vector space \mathbb{R}^n with the usual dot product is a Hilbert space

Example 2 $\ell^2(\mathbb{N}) = \{ (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) \mid \forall i, a_i \in \mathbb{R} \text{ \& } \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|^2 < \infty \}$

This is the prototypical Hilbert space: ∞ -dimensional.

Example 3 Consider \mathbb{R} with the usual notion of (Lebesgue) integration which we will write simply as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f dx$.
 $L^2(\mathbb{R}) = \{ f \}$

We say f is square-integrable if $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f|^2 dx < \infty$.

We say $f \sim g$ if $\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) \neq g(x)\}$ has measure 0.

Then $\int f dx = \int g dx$. Take the set of all these equivalence classes $[f] := \{g \mid f \sim g\}$. We define

$$L^2(\mathbb{R}) = \{ [f] \mid \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f|^2 dx < \infty \}$$

Often one sees the casual statement " $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ is the collection of square-integrable functions." This is not quite correct.

(2)

The inner product on $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ is

$$\langle [f], [g] \rangle = \int f g dx$$

$$\|[f]\|^2 := \langle [f], [f] \rangle = \int f^2 dx$$

Note that it does not matter which representative from each equivalence class is chosen. Without carrying out the quotienting one would not have a Hilbert space.

This is one of the most commonly cited examples of ~~an~~ a Hilbert space but it is never going to be an RKHS.

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Kernels In SVM data cannot always be separated by a hyperplane. We learned the use of soft margins to deal with the non separable case. Another approach is to use non-linear functions but this has to be done in a tractable way. The idea is to try and identify relevant features of the data and use these features to separate them. Thus we embed the data in a higher dimensional space—the feature space—and try to linearly separate them there. The feature space will be a Hilbert space.

def Given a set X , a kernel over X is a map $k: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

We take our feature space to be some Hilbert space H and we define a map $\Phi: X \rightarrow H$. If we consider $K(x, x') := \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(x') \rangle$ we have a kernel.

We will try to define Φ & H cleverly so that K is easy to compute even when computation of Φ & $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is expensive.

Example

$$\Phi: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^6$$

(3)

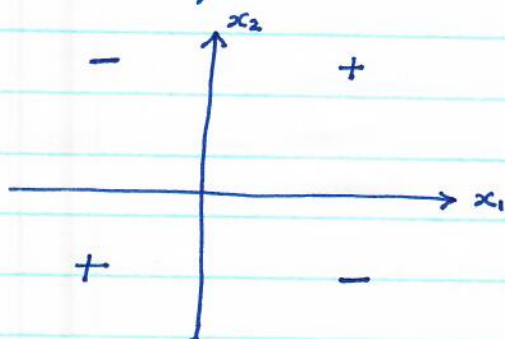
$$\Phi \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 \\ x_2^2 \\ \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2 \\ \sqrt{2} x_1 \\ \sqrt{2} x_2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$K(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = \Phi(\vec{x}) \cdot \Phi(\vec{x}')$$

$$= x_1^2 x_1'^2 + x_2^2 x_2'^2 + 2x_1 x_2 x_1' x_2' + 2x_1 x_1' + 2x_2 x_2' + 1$$

$$= (1 + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}')^2$$

So here we can compute K without embedding into \mathbb{R}^6 first or using the inner product of \mathbb{R}^2 .



These data are not linearly separable in \mathbb{R}^2 .

But it is linearly separable when embedded in \mathbb{R}^6 .

Example Polynomial kernels: Suppose we are in \mathbb{R}^n so we have variables x_1, \dots, x_n , let us consider polynomials of degree d .

$$I = \left\{ (k_1, \dots, k_n) \mid \sum_{i=1}^n k_i \leq d \right\}.$$

Note $|I| \geq \binom{n+d-1}{d}$ [Not obvious!]

$$\Phi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^I$$

$\Phi(\vec{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^I$ let $(k_1, \dots, k_n) \in I$ so

$\Phi(\vec{x})(k_1, \dots, k_n) \in \mathbb{R}$ and is given by

$$\sqrt{c(k_1, \dots, k_n)} x_1^{k_1} x_2^{k_2} \dots x_n^{k_n}$$

where $c(k_1, \dots, k_n) = \frac{d!}{k_0! k_1! \dots k_n!}$ where $k_0 = d - \sum_{i=1}^n k_i$

(4)

The associated kernel is

$$\begin{aligned}
 K(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) &= \Phi(\vec{x}) \cdot \Phi(\vec{y}) \quad \text{using } \cdot \text{ product of } \mathbb{R}^I \\
 &= \sum_{\alpha(k_1, \dots, k_n) \in I} c(k_1, \dots, k_n) (x_1, y_1)^{k_1} \dots (x_n, y_n)^{k_n} \\
 &= (1 + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y})^d \quad \text{using } \cdot \text{ product of } \mathbb{R}^n
 \end{aligned}$$

The expression $(1 + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y})^d$ is linear in $n \times d$ when we count the arithmetic operations, whereas the dot product in \mathbb{R}^I has $\geq \binom{n+d-1}{d}$ components which is exponential in d .

How can we design H & Φ ? This may be hard, but the general theory of RKHS shows how to construct H & Φ starting from a kernel. So given $k: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we find H & Φ . We will look for kernels with good mathematical properties.

def Fix a set X . A kernel on X is a map $k: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ st

- (i) $k(x, y) = k(y, x)$ SYMMETRY
- (ii) $\forall x_1, \dots, x_n \in X$ the matrix $K_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j)$ is positive semi-definite i.e. $\forall v \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad v^T K v \geq 0$

Prop (i) $k(x, x) \geq 0$ (ii) $k(u, v) \leq \sqrt{k(u, u) k(v, v)}$ [CAUCHY-SCHWARTZ for k]

Proof (i) Just take $n=1$ in condition (ii) of the def.

(ii) Take $n=2$. Let $v = \begin{bmatrix} k(u, u) \\ -k(u, v) \end{bmatrix}$ and apply psd

$$K = \begin{pmatrix} k(u, u) & k(u, v) \\ k(v, u) & k(v, v) \end{pmatrix} \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow v^T K v \geq 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } k(v, v) [k(u, u) k(v, v) - k(u, v)^2] \geq 0 \Rightarrow k(u, u) k(v, v) \geq k(u, v)^2.$$

Because of (i)

Such a matrix is called a Gram matrix.

Now we are ready to define RKHS and build them.

Let X be a set; write $\mathcal{F}(X)$ for the vector space of functions from X to \mathbb{R} .

Def A subset $H \subset \mathcal{F}(X)$ is called a reproducing kernel Hilbert space on X if

- (i) H is a vector space of $\mathcal{F}(X)$
- (ii) H has an inner product making it a Hilbert space
- (iii) For every $x \in X$ the linear evaluation map $\text{eval}_x: H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\text{eval}_x(f) = f(x)$ is bounded.

Remark: A bounded linear map is continuous. In fact a linear map on H is bounded if and only if it is continuous.

Remark: Condition (iii) cannot even be stated for $L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

A major theorem in Hilbert space theory is the Riesz representation theorem:

For any bounded (= continuous) linear map $\alpha: H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ there is an element $a \in H$ s.t.

$$\alpha(f) = \langle a, f \rangle.$$

Hence for every $x \in X$ there is a unique $k_x \in H$ s.t.

$$\forall f \in H \quad \langle k_x, f \rangle = f(x) = \text{eval}_x(f)$$

Def k_x is called the reproducing kernel for x . The function $K: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $K(x, y) = k_y(x)$ is called the reproducing kernel for H .

Note $K(x, y) = k_y(x) = \langle k_x, k_y \rangle = \langle k_y, k_x \rangle = k_x(y) = K(y, x)$.

Also $\|k_x\|^2 = \langle k_x, k_x \rangle = K(x, x) = k_x(x)$.

If we have $H \subseteq \mathcal{F}(X)$ and $\Phi: X \rightarrow H$ then $\Phi(x) = k_x$ then $k(x, y) = \langle k_x, k_y \rangle = \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(y) \rangle$ is a positive semidefinite kernel.

How do we know that some kernel we have designed comes from a RKHS? We write $K(x, \cdot)$ for k_x & note

$$\langle K(x, \cdot), K(y, \cdot) \rangle = K(x, y)$$

Thm Let $K: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a positive semidefinite kernel. There then exists a unique Hilbert space $H \subseteq \mathcal{F}(X)$ with K as its reproducing kernel. The subspace $H_0 \subseteq H$ spanned by the set $\{K(x, \cdot) \mid x \in X\}$ is dense in H and H is the completion of H_0 with inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{H_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_j K(y_j, x_i)$$

$$\text{where } f = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i K(\cdot, x_i) \text{ and } g = \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j K(\cdot, y_j)$$

So we can write the inner product as

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_j f(y_j) g(x_i)$$

I will not prove this fundamental result due to MOORE and later to ARONSZAJN.

I will show $\langle f, f \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow f = 0$.

~~As~~ $\forall f \in H \quad |f(x)|^2 \geq 0$ hence

$$0 \leq |f(x)|^2 = |\langle K(x, \cdot), f \rangle|^2 \leq \langle K(x, \cdot), K(x, \cdot) \rangle \cdot \langle f, f \rangle \quad \text{CAUCHY SCHWARTZ}$$

So if $\langle f, f \rangle = 0$ we have $|f(x)|^2 = 0$ for all $x \in X$

Thus f is indeed the zero function.