

Discrete Explanation of RBF Kernels

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Scattered two-dimensional data can be smoothly interpolated using the thin-plate spline, which minimizes the squared second-derivative (approximate curvature) over the surface. The computation can be done by directly solving the PDE $Lu = r$ with relaxation or multigrid. It can also be done (if there are not too many points to interpolate) by a weighted sum of radial basis functions centered at each data point:

$$f(x, y) = \sum w_k f(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2})$$

Radial basis functions $r, r^3, r^2 \log r$, etc. have all been used. Where do these functions come from? The answer requires variational calculus, differential equations, Green's functions, and preferably Fourier transforms. I'll outline this below, but also give a nearly parallel discrete formulation that needs only linear algebra and (unfortunately) Fourier transforms – this second formulation should be more comfortable for computer graphics people.

' = transpose, wrt = with respect to, rhs = right hand side

Continuous

Discrete

Fit an unknown function f to the data y_k , regularized by minimizing a smoothness term.

$$E[f] = \sum (f_k - y_k)^2 + \lambda \int \|Pf\|^2$$

e.g. $\|Pf\|^2 = \int \left(\frac{d^2 f}{dx^2}\right)^2 dx$

A similar discrete version.

$$E[f] = (f - y)' S' S (f - y) + \lambda f' P' P f$$

- To simplify things, here the data points to interpolate are required to be at discrete sample locations in the vector y , so the length of this vector defines a “sample rate” (reasonable).
- S is a “selection matrix” with 1s and 0s on the diagonal (zeros elsewhere). It has 1s corresponding to the locations of data in y . y can be zero (or any other value) where there is no data.
- P is a diagonal-constant matrix that encodes the discrete form of the regularization operator. E.g. to minimize the integrated curvature, rows of P will contain:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2, 1, 0, 0, \dots \\ 1, -2, 1, 0, \dots \\ 0, 1, -2, 1, \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

The variational derivative of E wrt f leads to a differential equation

$$P' P f(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum (f(x) - y_k) \delta(x - x_k)$$

Take the derivative of E with respect to the vector f , obtaining

$$2S(f - y) + \lambda 2P' P f = 0$$

Here P' is the “adjoint” of P . If P is symmetric (true for the second derivative operator) then the adjoint is the same, otherwise it is time-reversed.

The differential equation can be solved by finding the Green's function of the differential operator and convolving with the right hand side (r.h.s) (works only for a linear operator).

Schematically,

$$\begin{aligned}
 Lf &= rhs & L \text{ is the operator } P'P, \\
 & & rhs \text{ is the data fidelity} \\
 f &= g \star rhs & f \text{ obtained by convolving } g \star rhs \\
 Lg &= \delta & \text{choosing } rhs = \delta \text{ gives this eqn}
 \end{aligned}$$

g is the "convolutional inverse" of L . This is easy to solve in the Fourier domain, where convolution becomes multiplication. The transform of δ is a constant, so in the Fourier domain g is the reciprocal of $L = P'P$.

In summary, the kernel g is the inverse Fourier transform of the reciprocal of the Fourier transform of the "adjoint-squared" smoothing operator P .

The Fourier transform of the derivative of a function is

$$F\left[\frac{d}{dx}f(x)\right] = i\omega F[f(x)]$$

i.e. it has linearly more energy at higher frequencies; the Fourier transform of the second derivative should go up with the square of the distance from the frequency origin, etc., in particular the operator $P'P$ boosts the transform proportionally to ω^4 . And the inverse Fourier transform of $1/\omega^4$ is $|x|^3$ ignoring scale. This is the 1-D kernel corresponding to the cubic spline.

(In more detail, the integrals of ω^4 and $|x|^3$ diverge, so instead find the transform of them windowed by $\exp(-a|x|)$ and then take the limit as $a \rightarrow 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int e^{-a|x|}|x|^3 e^{-i2\pi\omega x} dx && \text{transform of } e^{-a|x|}|x|^3 \\
 &= \int_0^\infty e^{-ax} x^3 e^{-i2\pi\omega x} dx \\
 &+ \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{ax} (-x)^3 e^{-i2\pi\omega x} dx \\
 &= \frac{6}{(a + 2i\pi\omega)^4} + \frac{6}{(a - 2i\pi\omega)^4} \\
 & \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{12}{(a + 2i\pi\omega)^4} && \text{now take limit as } a \rightarrow 0 \\
 &= \frac{3}{4\pi^4\omega^4} && \text{i.e. } \sim 1/\omega^4
 \end{aligned}$$

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$$P'Pf = \frac{1}{\lambda}S(f - y)$$

Multiply by G , being the inverse of $P'P$:

$$f = GP'Pf = \frac{1}{\lambda}GS(f - y)$$

So the RBF kernel related to $G = (P'P)^{-1}$. As usual, taking the svd helps.

$$P = UDV' \Rightarrow P'P = VD^2V'$$

The inverse of VD^2V' is $VD^{-2}V'$.

Next, the eigenvectors of a circulant matrix are sinusoids, and P is diagonal-constant (toeplitz?), or nearly circulant. So $VD^{-2}V'$ is approximately the same as taking the Fourier transform and then the reciprocal, remembering that D are the singular values of P , which have to be squared to get the eigenvalues of $P'P$ (\approx Fourier coefficients).