

NNT: 201XSACLSXXX

A thesis submitted to attain the degree of

Doctor Of
Université Paris-Saclay

Prepared at

Université d'Évry-Val-d'Essonne
&
Télécom-ParisTech

Presented by

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Entitled

Data Are Not Real!

About

**Large-Scale Learning On Structured Input-Output Data With
Operator-Valued Kernels**

Doctoral School — 580

Sciences et Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication (STIC)

Laboratoire Informatique, Biologie Intégrative et Systèmes Complexes (IBISC)

Specialty Area of Computer Science

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Presented and defended at Université d'Évry-Val-d'Essonne, the 1st of March 2017 Jury

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Engineer (Eng.) ENSIIE, Romain Brault: *Data Are Not Real!* Large-Scale Learning On Structured Input-Output Data With Operator-Valued Kernels, © Romain Brault, March 13, 2017

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ABSTRACT

In this thesis we study scalable methods to perform regression with *Operator-Valued Kernels* in order to learn *vector-valued functions*.

When data present structure, or relations between them or their different components, a common approach is to treat the data as a vector living in an appropriate vector space rather a collection of real number. This representation allows to take into account the structure of the data by defining an appropriate space embedding the underlying structure. Thus many problems in machine learning can be cast into learning vector-valued functions. Operator-Valued Kernels *Operator-Valued Kernels* and *vector-valued Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces* provide a theoretical and practical framework to address that issue, naturally extending the well-known framework of scalar-valued kernels. In the context of scalar-valued function learning, a scalar-valued kernel can be seen as a similarity measure between two data point. A solution of the learning problem has the form of a linear combination of these similarities with respect to weights to determine in order to have the best “fit” of the data. When dealing with Operator-Valued Kernels, the evaluation of the kernel is no longer a scalar similarity, but a function acting on vectors. A solution is then a linear combination of operators with respect to vector weights.

Although Operator-Valued Kernels generalize strictly scalar-valued kernels, large scale applications are usually not affordable with these tools that require an important computational power along with a large memory capacity. In this thesis, we propose and study scalable methods to perform regression with *Operator-Valued Kernels*. To achieve this goal, we extend Random Fourier Features, an approximation technique originally introduced for scalar-valued kernels, to *Operator-Valued Kernels*. The idea is to take advantage of an approximated operator-valued feature map in order to come up with a linear model in a finite dimensional space.

First we develop a general framework devoted to the approximation of shift-invariant Mercer kernels on Locally Compact Abelian groups and study their properties along with the complexity of the algorithms based on them. Second we show theoretical guarantees by bounding the error due to the approximation, with high probability. Third, we study various applications of Operator Random Fourier Features to different tasks of Machine learning such as multi-class classification, multi-task learning, time serie modeling, functional regression and anomaly detection. We also compare the proposed framework with other state of the art methods. Fourth, we conclude by drawing short-term and mid-term perspectives.

PUBLICATIONS

Some ideas and figures have appeared previously in the following publications:

Put your publications from the thesis here. The packages `multibib` or `bibtopic` etc. can be used to handle multiple different bibliographies in your document.

*We have seen that computer programming is an art,
because it applies accumulated knowledge to the world,
because it requires skill and ingenuity, and especially
because it produces objects of beauty.*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Put your acknowledgements here.

Many thanks to everybody who already sent me a postcard!

Regarding the typography and other help, many thanks go to Marco Kuhlmann, Philipp Lehman, Lothar Schlesier, Jim Young, Lorenzo Pantieri and Enrico Gregorio¹, Jörg Sommer, Joachim Köstler, Daniel Gottschlag, Denis Aydin, Paride Legovini, Steffen Prochnow, Nicolas Repp, Hinrich Harms, Roland Winkler, and the whole L^AT_EX-community for support, ideas and some great software.

Regarding L_YX: The L_YX port was initially done by *Nicholas Mariette* in March 2009 and continued by *Ivo Pletikosić* in 2011. Thank you very much for your work and the contributions to the original style.

¹ Members of GuIT (Gruppo Italiano Utilizzatori di T_EX e L^AT_EX)

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ACRONYMS

i. i. d.	independent identically distributed.
I. i. d.	Independent identically distributed.
p. d. f.	probability density function.
P. d. f.	Probability density function.
p.	in probability.
P.	In probability.
a. s.	almost surely.
A. s.	Almost surely.
a. e.	almost everywhere.
A. e.	Almost everywhere.
e. g.	exempli gratia.
E. g.	Exempli gratia.
w. r. t.	with respect to.
W. r. t.	With respect to.
i. e.	id est.
I. e.	Id est.
MSE	Mean Squared Error.
OVK	Operator-Valued Kernel.
RFF	Random Fourier Feature.
ORFF	Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature.
POVM	Positive Operator-Valued Measure.
RKHS	Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space.
\mathcal{Y} -RKHS	\mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space.
LCA	Locally Compact Abelian.
FT	Fourier Transform.
IFT	Inverse Fourier Transform.

Part I

INTRODUCTION

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1

MOTIVATIONS



2

BACKGROUND

2.1 notations

In this section we summarize briefly important notions used throughout this document. It is mainly based on books and lecture notes of Cotaescu [16] and Kurdila and Zabrankin [27].

2.1.1 Algebraic structures

¹ Commutative.

We note \mathbb{K} any Abelian¹ field, \mathbb{R} the Abelian field of real numbers and \mathbb{C} the Abelian field of complex numbers. The unit pure imaginary number $\sqrt{-1} \in \mathbb{C}$ is denoted i and the Euler constant $\exp(1) \in \mathbb{R}$ is denoted e . \mathbb{N} represents the set of natural numbers and $\mathbb{N}_n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ the set of natural numbers smaller or equal to n . For any space S , $S^d, d \in \mathbb{N}$ represents the Cartesian product space $S^d = S \times \dots \times S$. For any two algebraic structures S and S' we write $S \cong S'$ if there exists an isomorphism between these two structures. If $a + ib = x \in \mathbb{C}$ then $\bar{x} = a - ib \in \mathbb{C}$ denote the complex conjugate. By extension if $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $\bar{x} = x \in \mathbb{R}$.

2.1.2 Topology and continuity

In order to define a proper notion of continuity, we focus on topological spaces. A topological space is a pair of sets $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{T}_x)$ where \mathcal{X} describes the points considered, and \mathcal{T}_x describes the possible neighbours. The standard axioms of topology suppose that $\mathcal{T}_x \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X})$ is a collection of subsets of \mathcal{X} such that the empty set and \mathcal{X} itself belongs to \mathcal{T}_x , any (finite or infinite) union of members of \mathcal{T}_x still belongs to \mathcal{T}_x and the intersection of any finite number of members of \mathcal{T}_x still belongs to \mathcal{T}_x . The elements of \mathcal{T}_x are called open sets and the collection \mathcal{T}_x is a topology on \mathcal{X} . If $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{T}_x)$ and $(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{T}_y)$ are topological spaces, a function f is said to be continuous if for every open set $\mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{T}_y$, the inverse image $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid f(x) \in \mathcal{V}\}$ is an open subset of \mathcal{T}_x . Since the notion of continuity depends on open sets, it depends on the topology of the spaces \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} .

If \mathcal{X} is a topological space and x is a point in \mathcal{X} , a neighbourhood of x is a subset \mathcal{V} of \mathcal{X} that includes an *open* set \mathcal{U} containing x . A topological space \mathcal{X} is said to be Hausdorff (T₂) when all distinct points in \mathcal{X} are pairwise neighborhood-separable. [I.e.](#) if there exists a neighbourhood \mathcal{U} of x and a neighbourhood \mathcal{V} of y such that \mathcal{U} and \mathcal{V} are disjoint. It implies the uniqueness of limits of sequences and existence of nets used throughout this thesis. Therefore in the whole document we always assume that a topological space \mathcal{X} is Hausdorff.

A topological space is said to be separable if there exists a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ of elements of \mathcal{X} such that every nonempty open subsets of the space contains at least one element of the sequence. Separability plays an important role in numerical analysis because many theorems have only

constructive proofs for separable spaces. Such constructive proofs can be turned into algorithms which is the primary goal of this work. In this document we also assume that any topological space is separable if there is no specific mention of the contrary. Moreover we recall that a Hilbert space is separable if and only if it has a countable orthonormal basis. Hence an operator between two separable Hilbert spaces can be written as an infinite dimensional matrix.

If \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are two topological spaces, we denote by $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ the topological vector space of functions $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y}) \subset \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ the subspace of continuous functions, endowed with the product topology (topology of pointwise convergence).

2.1.3 Measure theory

A σ -algebra on \mathcal{X} is a set $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X})$ of subsets of \mathcal{X} , containing the empty set, which is closed under taking complements and countable unions. A pair $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{M})$ where \mathcal{X} is a set and \mathcal{M} is a σ -algebra is called a measure space. The Borel σ -algebra $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ is a σ -algebra generated by the open sets of \mathcal{X} . A measure on a measurable space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}))$ is a map $\mu: \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{R}}_+$ which is zero on the empty set and countably additive, *i.e.* for any subset $(\mathcal{Z}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of pairwise disjoint measurable sets,

$$\mu \left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{Z}_n \right) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(\mathcal{Z}_n).$$

2.1.4 Vector spaces, linear operators and matrices

Given any vector space \mathcal{H} over an Abelian field \mathbb{K} , the (continuous) dual space¹ \mathcal{H}^* is defined as the set of all *continuous* linear functionals $x^*: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$. When \mathcal{H} is a vector space, there is a natural duality pairing between \mathcal{H}^* and \mathcal{H} defined for all $x^* \in \mathcal{H}^*$ and all $z \in \mathcal{H}$ as $(x^*, z)_{\mathcal{H}^*, \mathcal{H}} = x^*(z) = x^*z$. The duality pairing $(\cdot, \cdot)_{\mathcal{H}^*, \mathcal{H}}$ is then a bilinear form.

Let \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 be two vector spaces. The transpose (or dual) of an operator $W: \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$ is defined as $W^\top: \mathcal{H}_2^* \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1^*$ such that $W^\top: x^* \mapsto x^*(W)$. It is characterized by the relation $(x^*, Wz)_{\mathcal{H}_2^*, \mathcal{H}_2} = (W^\top x^*, z)_{\mathcal{H}_1^*, \mathcal{H}_1}$ for all $x^* \in \mathcal{H}_2^*$ and all $z \in \mathcal{H}_1$. An operator is called self-dual when $W^\top = W$.

¹ The continuous dual space is also called topological dual space. This must be differentiated from the *algebraic* dual space, which is the space of linear functionals from the original vector-space to its base field. Hence the continuous dual space is a subset of the algebraic dual space. The continuous and the algebraic dual space only match when considering finite dimensional vector-spaces

Let \mathcal{H} be a vector space. We set $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}; \mathcal{H})$ to be the space of *bounded* (continuous) linear operators from \mathcal{H} to itself. If $W \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, $\text{Ker } W$ denotes the nullspace, $\text{Im } W$ the image, $W^\top \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}^*)$ the transpose and $\text{Dom } W$ the domain of W .

If \mathcal{H} is an Hilbert space on a field \mathbb{K} we denote its scalar product by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ and its norm by $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{H}}$. When the base field of \mathcal{H} is \mathbb{R} , $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is a *bilinear* form. When the base field of \mathcal{H} is \mathbb{C} , $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is a *sesquilinear* form. Let \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 be two Hilbert spaces. The adjoint of a bounded operator $W : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$ is the unique mapping $W^* : \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ such that $\langle W^*x, z \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1} = \langle x, Wz \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_2}$ for all $x, z \in \text{Dom } W$. An operator $W : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is said to be symmetric when $W^* = W$ and self-adjoint when W is symmetric and $\text{Dom } W^* = \text{Dom } W$. If W is symmetric and $\text{Dom } W = \mathcal{H}$ then W is self-adjoint.

Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space. From Riesz's representation theorem, there is a unique isometric isomorphism $\iota_R : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^*$ such that for any x and $y \in \mathcal{H}$, $(\iota_R(x), y)_{\mathcal{H}^*, \mathcal{H}} = \langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ and $\|\iota_R(x)\|_{\mathcal{H}^*} = \|x\|_{\mathcal{H}}$. The Riesz map ι_R is self-dual, thus if \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space, \mathcal{H} is reflexive. I.e. $\mathcal{H}^{**} \cong \mathcal{H}$. When the base field of \mathcal{H} is \mathbb{C} , then ι_R is an *anti-linear* form since $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is sesquilinear and $(\cdot, \cdot)_{\mathcal{H}^*, \mathcal{H}}$ is bilinear. In the same way when the base field of \mathcal{H} is \mathbb{R} then ι_R is *linear* since both $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ and $(\cdot, \cdot)_{\mathcal{H}^*, \mathcal{H}}$ are bilinear. If \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space we make the dual space \mathcal{H}^* a Hilbert space by endowing it with the inner product $\langle x^*, z^* \rangle_{\mathcal{H}^*} = \langle \iota_R^{-1}(x^*), \iota_R^{-1}(z^*) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ for all $x^*, z^* \in \mathcal{H}^*$. Notice that the transpose is linked to the adjoint by the relation $W^* = \iota_R^{-1} W^\top \iota_R$. When \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space, if $x \in \mathcal{H}$, we always define $x^* \in \mathcal{H}^*$ to be

$$x^* = \iota_R(x) = \langle x, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}.$$

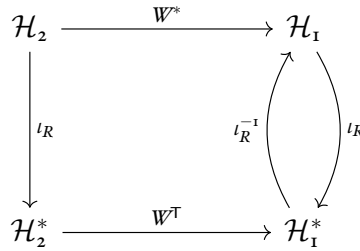


Figure 2.1: Riesz map, dual spaces and adjoints.

Let \mathcal{H} be a *separable* Hilbert space and let $(e_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ be a basis of \mathcal{H} . We call $(e_i^*)_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ the dual basis of \mathcal{H} , the basis of \mathcal{H}^* such that for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $e_i^*(e_j) = \langle e_i, e_j \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \delta_{ij}$. In the whole document we consider that \mathcal{H}^* is always equipped with the dual basis of \mathcal{H} . For a vector $x \in \mathcal{H}$ with a basis $(e_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ we write $x_i = e_i^*(x)$. For a linear operator $W : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$ where \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 are Hilbert spaces with respective basis $(e_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ and $(e'_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}^*}$, we note $W_i = We_i$ and $W_{ij} = e_j^*(We_i)$. Eventually given two separable Hilbert

spaces \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 , an operator $W : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$, $(e_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ a basis of \mathcal{H}_1 and $(e'_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ a basis of \mathcal{H}_2 we have

$$(W^\top)_{ij} = e_j^{**} W^\top e_i^* = e_j^{**} e_i'^* W = e_i'^* W e_j = W_{ji}.$$

We call matrix M of size $(m, n) \in \mathbb{N}^2$ on an Abelian field \mathbb{K} a collection of elements $M = (m_{ij})_{1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n}$, $m_{ij} \in \mathbb{K}$. We note $\mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{K})$ the vector space of all matrices. If \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 are two separable Hilbert spaces on an Abelian field \mathbb{K} , any linear operator $L \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_2)$ can be viewed as a (potentially infinite) matrix. Let $n = \dim(\mathcal{H}_1)$, $m = \dim(\mathcal{H}_2)$ and let $B = (e_i)_{i=1}^n$ and $C = (e'_i)_{i=1}^m$ be the respective bases of \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 . We note $\text{mat}_{B,C} : \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_2) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{K})$ such that $M = \text{mat}_{B,C}(L) = (e_j'^* L e_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m} \in \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{K})$. Let $M_1 \in \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{K})$ and $M_2 \in \mathcal{M}_{n,l}(\mathbb{K})$. The product between two matrices is written $M_1 M_2 \in \mathcal{M}_{m,l}(\mathbb{K})$ and obey $(M_1 M_2)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n M_{ik} M_{kj}$. Given two linear operator $L_1 \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_2)$ and $L_2 \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_2; \mathcal{H}_3)$ we have $L_1 L_2 \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_3)$ and i

$$\text{mat}_{B,D}(L_1 L_2) = \text{mat}_{B,C}(L_1) \text{mat}_{C,D}(L_2).$$

The operator $\text{mat}_{B,C}$ is a vector space isomorphism allowing us to identify $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_2)$ with $\mathcal{M}_{mn}(\mathbb{K})$ where $n = \dim(\mathcal{H}_1)$ and $m = \dim(\mathcal{H}_2)$. All these notations are summarized in table 2.1.

2.2 about statistical learning

2.3 on large-scale learning

2.4 history and state of the art of large scale learning with kernels

2.4.1 Introduction to kernel methods

2.4.2 Quadratic programming, subsampling

2.4.3 Gradient descents

2.4.4 Mercer Theorem, Nyström method and feature maps

2.4.5 Recent extensions

2.5 elements of abstract harmonic analysis

2.5.1 Locally compact Abelian groups

Definition 2.1 (Locally Compact Abelian (LCA) group.). A group \mathcal{X} endowed with a binary operation \star is said to be a Locally Compact Abelian group if \mathcal{X} is a topological commutative group w. r. t. \star for which every point has a compact neighborhood and is Hausdorff (T₂).

Table 2.1: Mathematical symbols used throughout the paper and their significance.

Symbol	Meaning
\mathbb{K}	Any Abelian field.
\mathbb{R}	The Abelian field of real numbers.
\mathbb{C}	The Abelian field of complex numbers.
$i \in \mathbb{C}$	Unit pure imaginary number $\sqrt{-1}$.
$e \in \mathbb{R}$	Euler constant.
δ_{ij}	Kronecker delta function. $\delta_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$, 1 otherwise.
$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_2$	Euclidean inner product.
$\ \cdot\ _2$	Euclidean norm.
\mathcal{X}	Input space.
$\hat{\mathcal{X}}$	The Pontryagin dual of \mathcal{X} .
\mathcal{Y}	Output space (Hilbert space).
\mathcal{H}	Feature space (Hilbert space).
$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}$	The canonical inner product of the Hilbert space \mathcal{Y} .
$\ \cdot\ _{\mathcal{Y}}$	The canonical norm induced by the inner product of the Hilbert space \mathcal{Y} .
$\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$	Vector space of function from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{Y} .
$\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$	The vector subspace of \mathcal{F} of continuous function from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{Y} .
$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}; \mathcal{Y})$	The set of bounded linear operator from a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} to a Hilbert space \mathcal{Y} .
$\mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{K})$	The set of matrices of size (m, n) .
$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$	The set of bounded linear operator from a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} to itself.
$\mathcal{L}_+(\mathcal{Y})$	The set of non-negative bounded linear operator from a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} to itself.
$\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$	Borel σ -algebra on a topological space \mathcal{X} .
$\mu(\mathcal{X})$	A scalar positive measure of \mathcal{X} .
$L^p(\mathcal{X}, \mu)$	The Banach space of $ \cdot ^p$ -integrable function from $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}), \mu)$ to \mathbb{C} .
$L^p(\mathcal{X}, \mu; \mathcal{Y})$	The Banach space of $\ \cdot\ _{\mathcal{Y}}$ (Bochner)-integrable function from $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}), \mu)$ to \mathcal{Y} .
$\bigoplus_{i=1}^D x_i$	The direct sum of D vectors x_i 's in \mathcal{H} .

Moreover given a element z of al LCA group \mathcal{X} , we define the set $z \star \mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X} \star z = \{ z \star x \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \}$ and the set $\mathcal{X}^{-1} = \{ x^{-1} \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \}$. We also

note e the neural element of \mathcal{X} such that $x \star e = e \star x = e$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Throughout this thesis we focus on positive definite function. Let \mathcal{Y} be a complex separable Hilbert space. A function $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ is positive definite if for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^N \left\langle y_i, f(x_j^{-1} \star x_i) y_j \right\rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \geq 0 \quad (2.1)$$

for all sequences $(y_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}_N^*} \in \mathcal{Y}^N$ and all sequences $(x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}_N^*} \in \mathcal{X}^N$. If \mathcal{Y} is real we add the assumption that $f(x^{-1}) = f(x)^*$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. A consequence is that a positive definite function is bounded, as shown by Følberg [19], $\|f(x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq 2\|f(e)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, however positive definite functions are not necessarily continuous. This motivates the introduction of functions of positive type which are nothing but continuous positive definite function.

2.5.2 The Haar measure

Measures on topological spaces which appear in practice often satisfy the following regularity properties.

Definition 2.2 (Radon measure). *A Radon measure $\mu = \mathbf{Rad}$ on a topological measurable space \mathcal{X} is a measure on $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}))$ which satisfies the following properties.*

1. *The measure \mathbf{Rad} is finite on every compact set.*

$$\mathbf{Rad}(K) < \infty, \quad \text{for any compact set } K \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}).$$

2. *The measure \mathbf{Rad} is outer regular on any Borel sets E .*

$$\mathbf{Rad}(E) = \inf \{ \mathbf{Rad}(U) \mid E \subseteq U \}, \quad \text{for any open set } U.$$

3. *The measure \mathbf{Rad} is inner regular on open sets E .*

$$\mathbf{Rad}(E) = \sup \{ \mathbf{Rad}(K) \mid K \subseteq E \}, \quad \text{for any compact set } K.$$

When dealing with topological groups it is natural to look for measures which are invariant under translation. There exist, up to a positive multiplicative constant, a unique countably additive, nontrivial measure \mathbf{Haar} on any LCA group. For more details and constructive proofs see Alfsen [1], Conway [15], and Folland [20].

Definition 2.3 (The Haar measure). *A Haar measure $\mu = \mathbf{Haar}$ on a LCA group $\mathcal{X} = (G, \star)$ is a Radon measure on $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}))$ which is non-zero on non-empty open sets and is invariant under translation. Namely*

1. *if $Z \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ is open, then $\mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{X}) > 0$.*

2. For all $Z \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ and $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\mathbf{Haar}(x \star Z) = \mathbf{Haar}(Z)$.

² If \mathcal{X} was not supposed to be Abelian, we should have defined a left Haar measure and a right Haar measure. In our case both measure are the same, so we refer to both of them as Haar measure

Such a measure on a LCA group \mathcal{X} is called a Haar measure². An immediate consequence of the invariance is that for any $s \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}} f(s \star x) d\mathbf{Haar}(x) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x) d\mathbf{Haar}(x).$$

It can be shown that $\mathbf{Haar}(U) > 0$ for every non-empty open subset U . In particular, if \mathcal{X} is compact then $\mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{X})$ is finite and positive, so we can uniquely specify a Haar measure on \mathcal{X} by adding the normalization condition $\mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{X}) = 1$. We call measured space the space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}), \mathbf{Haar})$ the space \mathcal{X} endowed with its Borel σ -algebra and some measure \mathbf{Haar} . If $\mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{X}) = 1$ then the space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}), \mathbf{Haar})$ is called a probability space. Last but not least, on the additive group $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, the Lebesgue measure noted \mathbf{Leb} is a valid Haar measure. For a concise introduction and important properties we refer the reader to the lecture of Tornier [50].

2.5.3 Even and odd functions

Let \mathcal{X} be a LCA group and \mathbb{K} be a field viewed as an additive group. We say that a function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is even if for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $f(x) = f(x^{-1})$ and odd if $f(x) = -f(x^{-1})$. The definition can be extended to operator-valued functions.

Definition 2.4 (Even and odd operator-valued function on a LCA group). Let \mathcal{X} be a measured LCA group and \mathcal{Y} be a Hilbert space, and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ the space of bounded linear operators from \mathcal{Y} to itself viewed as an additive group. A function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ is (weakly) even if for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\langle y, f(x^{-1}) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle y, f(x) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \quad (2.2)$$

and (weakly) odd if

$$\langle y, f(x^{-1}) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = -\langle y, f(x) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \quad (2.3)$$

It is easy to check that if f is odd then $\int_{\mathcal{X}} \langle y, f(x) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\mathbf{Haar}(x) = 0$.

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\mathcal{X}} \langle y, f(x) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\mathbf{Haar}(x) \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \left\langle y, \left(\frac{f(x^{-1}) + f(x)}{2} \right) - \left(\frac{f(x^{-1}) - f(x)}{2} \right) y' \right\rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\mathbf{Haar}(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(- \int_{\mathcal{X}} \langle y, f(x) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\mathbf{Haar}(x) + \int_{\mathcal{X}} \langle y, f(x) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\mathbf{Haar}(x) \right) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Besides the product of an even and an odd function is odd. Indeed for all $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}))$, where f is even and g odd. Define $b(x) = \langle y, f(x)g(x)y' \rangle$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} b(x^{-1}) &= \langle y, f(x^{-1}) g(x^{-1}) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle y, f(x) (-g(x)) y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \\ &= -b(x). \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

2.5.4 Characters

Locally Compact Abelian (LCA) groups are central to the general definition of Fourier Transform which is related to the concept of Pontryagin duality [20]. Let (\mathcal{X}, \star) be a LCA group with e its neutral element and the notation, x^{-1} , for the inverse of $x \in \mathcal{X}$. A *character* is a complex continuous homomorphism $\omega : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{U}$ from \mathcal{X} to the set of complex numbers of unit module \mathbb{U} . The set of all characters of \mathcal{X} forms the Pontryagin *dual group* $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. The dual group of an LCA group is an LCA group so that we can endow $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$ with a “dual” Haar measure noted $\widehat{\text{Haar}}$. Then the dual group operation is defined by

$$(\omega_1 \star \omega_2)(x) = \omega_1(x)\omega_2(x) \in \mathbb{U}.$$

The Pontryagin duality theorem states that $\widehat{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \cong \mathcal{X}$. I.e. there is a canonical isomorphism between any LCA group and its double dual. To emphasize this duality the following notation is usually adopted

$$\omega(x) = (x, \omega) = (\omega, x) = x(\omega), \quad (2.5)$$

where $x \in \mathcal{X} \cong \widehat{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}}$ and $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. The form (\cdot, \cdot) defined in equation 2.5 is called (duality) pairing. Another important property involves the complex conjugate of the pairing which is defined as

$$\overline{(x, \omega)} = (x^{-1}, \omega) = (x, \omega^{-1}). \quad (2.6)$$

Table 2.3: Classification of Fourier Transforms in terms of their domain and transform domain.

$\mathcal{X} =$	$\widehat{\mathcal{X}} \cong$	Operation	Pairing
\mathbb{R}^d	\mathbb{R}^d	$+$	$(x, \omega) = \exp(i \langle x, \omega \rangle_2)$
$\mathbb{R}_{*,+}^d$	\mathbb{R}^d	\cdot	$(x, \omega) = \exp(i \langle \log(x), \omega \rangle_2)$
$(-c; +\infty)^d$	\mathbb{R}^d	\odot	$(x, \omega) = \exp(i \langle \log(x+c), \omega \rangle_2)$

We notice that for any pairing depending of ω , there exists a function $h_\omega : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $(x, \omega) = \exp(ih_\omega(x))$ since any pairing maps into \mathbb{U} . Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} (x \star z^{-1}, \omega) &= \omega(x)\omega(z^{-1}) \\ &= \exp(+ih_\omega(x)) \exp(+ih_\omega(z^{-1})) \\ &= \exp(+ih_\omega(x)) \exp(-ih_\omega(z)). \end{aligned}$$

The following example shows how to determine the (Pontryagin) dual of a LCA group.

Example 2.1 On the additive group $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ we have $\widehat{\mathbb{R}} \cong \mathbb{R}$ with the duality pairing $(x, \omega) = \exp(ix\omega)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$. The Haar measure on \mathcal{X} is the Lebesgue measure.

Proof If $\omega \in \widehat{\mathbb{R}}$ then $\omega(\circ) = \mathbf{1}$ since ω is an homeomorphism from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{U} . Therefore there exists $a > \circ$ such that $\int_{\circ}^a \omega(t) d\mathbf{Leb}(t) \neq \circ$. Setting $A\omega = \int_{\circ}^a \omega(t) d\mathbf{Leb}(t)$ we have

$$(A\omega)(x) = \int_{\circ}^a \omega(x+t) d\mathbf{Leb}(t) = \int_x^{a+x} \omega(t) d\mathbf{Leb}(t).$$

so ω is differentiable and

$$\omega'(x) = A^{-1}(\omega(a+x) - \omega(x)) = c\omega(x) \quad \text{where} \quad c = A^{-1}(\omega(a) - \mathbf{1}).$$

It follow that $\omega(x) = e^{cx}$, and since $|\omega| = \mathbf{1}$, one can take $c = i\zeta$ for some $\zeta \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence we can identify ω with ζ and $\widehat{\mathbb{R}}$ with \mathbb{R} since ζ uniquely determines ω , thus we identify $\omega = \zeta$. \square

We also especially mention the duality pairing associated to the skewed multiplicative [LCA](#) product group. This group together with the operation \odot has been proposed by Li, Ionescu, and Sminchisescu [28] to handle histograms features especially useful in image recognition applications. Let $\mathcal{X} = (-c_k; +\infty)_{k=1}^d$, where $c_k \in \mathbb{R}_+$, endowed with the group operation \odot defined component-wise for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$ as follow.

$$x \odot z := ((x_k + c)(z_k + c_k) - c_k)_{k=1}^d.$$

Example 2.2 (Li, Ionescu, and Sminchisescu [28]). On the skewed multiplicative group $\mathcal{X} = ((-c, +\infty), \odot)$ we have $\widehat{(-c, +\infty)} \cong \mathbb{R}$, with duality pairing $(x, \omega) = \exp(i \log(x+c)\omega)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. The Haar measure on \mathcal{X} is given for all $Z \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ by $\text{Haar}(\mathcal{X}) = \int_Z (z+c)^{-1} d\mathbf{Leb}(z)$.

Proof Let $a, b \in (-c, +\infty)$ and $\mu([a, b]) = \int_a^b (z+c)^{-1} d\mathbf{Leb}(z)$. Then for all $d \in (-c, +\infty)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu([d \odot a, d \odot b]) &= \int_{(d+c)(a+c)-c}^{(d+c)(b+c)-c} (z+c)^{-1} d\mathbf{Leb}(z) \\ &= \log(d+c)(b+c) - \log(d+c)(a+c) \\ &= \log(b+c) - \log(a+c) \\ &= \int_a^b (z+c)^{-1} d\mathbf{Leb}(z) = \mu([a, b]). \end{aligned}$$

Thus μ is translation invariant, making $\text{Haar} = \lambda\mu$ a valid Haar measure on \mathcal{X} for any multiplicative constant $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_*$. Let $(x, \omega) = \exp(i \log(x+c)\omega)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. We have for all $z \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\begin{aligned} (x \odot z, \omega) &= \exp(i \log((x+c)(z+c))\omega) \\ &= \exp(i \log(x+c)\omega) \exp(i \log(z+c)\omega) \\ &= (x, \omega)(z, \omega) \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\omega(x \odot z) = \omega(x)\omega(z)$, which define a valid pairing, therefore we can identify $\widehat{\mathcal{X}} = \widehat{(-c, +\infty)} \cong \mathbb{R}$ where \mathbb{R} is the additive group endowed with the Haar measure being the Lebesgue measure. \square

It is easy to extend the pontryagin dual of groups to dual groups, as well as defining the pairing on the dual group using the following proposition [20]

Proposition 2.1 *Let $(\mathcal{X}_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a collection of **LCA** groups. Then*

$$\widehat{\left(\prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{X}_i\right)} \cong \prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \widehat{\mathcal{X}_i}$$

Proof Each $\omega = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N) \in \prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{X}_i$ defines a character on $\prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{X}_i$ by

$$((x_1, \dots, x_N), (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N)) = (x_1, \omega_1) \cdots (x_N, \omega_N).$$

Moreover, every character ω on $\prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{X}_i$ is of this form, where ω_i is defined by

$$(x_i, \omega_i) = ((e_1, \dots, e_{i-1}, x_i, e_{i+1}, \dots, e_N), \omega),$$

where e_i denotes the neutral element of the **LCA** group \mathcal{X}_i . □

Hence $\widehat{\mathbb{R}^d} \cong \mathbb{R}^d$ with duality pairing

$$(x, \omega) = \exp \left(i \sum_{k=1}^d x_k \omega_k \right),$$

hence $\widehat{h_\omega(x)} = \sum_{k=1}^d \omega_k x_k = \langle x, \omega \rangle_2$. For the skewed multiplicative group $(-c_k, +\infty)_{k=1}^d \cong \mathbb{R}^d$ and the duality pairing is defined by

$$(x, \omega) = \exp \left(i \sum_{k=1}^d \log(x_k + c_k) \omega_k \right).$$

Hence $\widehat{h_\omega(x)} = \sum_{k=1}^d \log(x_k + c_k) \omega_k = \langle \log(x + c), \omega \rangle_2$. Eventually the natural Haar measure on product group is the product measure. E.g. for $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$, the Haar measure on \mathbb{R}^d is the d-th power of the Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} . Table 2.3 provide an explicit list of pairings for various groups based on \mathbb{R}^d or its subsets. The interested reader can refer to Folland [20] for a more detailed construction of **LCA**, Pontryagin duality and Fourier Transforms on **LCA**.

2.5.5 The Fourier Transform

For a function with values in a separable Hilbert space $f \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar}; \mathcal{Y})$, we denote $\mathcal{F}[f]$ its Fourier Transform (**FT**) which is defined by

$$\forall \omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \quad \mathcal{F}[f](\omega) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \overline{(x, \omega)} f(x) d\mathbf{Haar}(x).$$

The Inverse Fourier Transform (**IFT**) of a function $g \in L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}; \mathcal{Y})$ is noted $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[g]$ defined by

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \quad \mathcal{F}^{-1}[g](x) = \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} (x, \omega) g(\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega),$$

We also define the flip operator \mathcal{R} by $(\mathcal{R}f)(x) := f(x^{-1})$.

Theorem 2.1 (Fourier inversion). *Given a measure \mathbf{Haar} defined on \mathcal{X} , there exists a unique suitably normalized dual measure $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ on $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$ such that for all $f \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar}; \mathcal{Y})$ and if $\mathcal{F}[f] \in L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}; \mathcal{Y})$ we have*

$$f(x) = \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \langle x, \omega \rangle \mathcal{F}[f](\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega), \quad \text{for } \mathbf{Haar}\text{-almost all } x \in \mathcal{X}. \quad (2.7)$$

i.e. such that $(\mathcal{R}\mathcal{F}\mathcal{F}[f])(x) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\mathcal{F}[f](x) = f(x)$ for \mathbf{Haar} -almost all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. If f is continuous this relation holds for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

Proof *The proof is based on Bochner's theorem and the Pontryagin duality theorem. We refer the reader to Folland [20, theorem 4.22 page 105 and theorem 4.33 page 111] for the full proof. \square*

Thus when a Haar measure \mathbf{Haar} on \mathcal{X} is given, the measure on $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$ that makes theorem 2.6 true is called the dual measure of \mathbf{Haar} , noted $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$. Let $c \in \mathbb{R}_*$. If $c\mathbf{Haar}$ is the measure on \mathcal{X} , then $c^{-1}\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ is the dual measure on $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. Hence one must replace $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ by $c^{-1}\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ in the inversion formula to compensate. Therefore, *we always take the Haar measure \mathbf{Haar} on \mathcal{X} to be the dual of the given Haar measure \mathbf{Haar} on \mathcal{X} .* Whenever $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}} = \mathbf{Haar}$ we say that the Haar measure is self-dual. Moreover if $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ is normalized, the Fourier Transform on

$$L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar}; \mathcal{Y}) \cap L^2(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar}; \mathcal{Y})$$

extends uniquely to a unitary isomorphism from $L^2(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar}, \mathcal{Y})$ onto $L^2(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}; \mathcal{Y})$ (Plancherel theorem). For the familiar case of a scalar-valued function f on the LCA group $(\mathbb{R}^d, +)$, we have for all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}} = \mathbb{R}^d$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}[f](\omega) &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \overline{\langle x, \omega \rangle} f(x) d\mathbf{Haar}(x) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp(-i \langle x, \omega \rangle_2) f(x) d\mathbf{Leb}(x), \end{aligned} \quad (2.8)$$

the Haar measure being here the Lebesgue measure. Notice that the normalization factor of $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ on $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$ depends on the measure \mathbf{Haar} on \mathcal{X} and the duality pairing. For instance let $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$. In example 2.6 we showed that $\widehat{\mathcal{X}} \cong \mathbb{R}^d$ with pairing $\langle x, \omega \rangle = \exp(ix\omega)$, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. If one endow \mathcal{X} with the Lebesgue measure as the Haar measure, the Haar measure on the dual is defined for all $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ by

$$\mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{Z}) = \mathbf{Leb}(\mathcal{Z}), \quad \text{and} \quad \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\mathcal{Z}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \mathbf{Leb}(\mathcal{Z}),$$

in order to have $\mathcal{F}^{-1}\mathcal{F}[f] = f$. If one use the cleaner equivalent pairing $\langle x, \omega \rangle = \exp(2i\pi x\omega)$ rather than $\langle x, \omega \rangle = \exp(ix\omega)$, then

$$\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\mathcal{Z}) = \mathbf{Leb}(\mathcal{Z}).$$

The pairing $\langle x, \omega \rangle = \exp(2i\pi x\omega)$ looks more attractive in theory since it limits the messy factor outside the integral sign and make the Haar

measure self-dual. However it is of lesser use in practice since it yields additional unnecessary computation when evaluating the pairing.

Hence we settle with the Haar measure on \mathcal{X} defined as

$$\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\mathcal{Z}) = \mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{Z}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \mathbf{Leb}(\mathcal{Z})$$

We conclude this subsection by recalling the injectivity property of the Fourier Transform.

Corollary 2.1 (Fourier Transform injectivity). *Given μ and ν two measures, if $\mathcal{F}[\mu] = \mathcal{F}[\nu]$ then $\mu = \nu$. Moreover given two functions f and $g \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar}; \mathcal{Y})$ if $\mathcal{F}[f] = \mathcal{F}[g]$ then $f = g$*

Proof We refer the reader to the proof of Folland [20, corollary 4.34 page 112]. \square

2.5.6 Representation of Groups

Representations of groups are convenient tools that allows group-theoretic problems to be replaced by linear algebra problems. Let $Gl(\mathcal{H})$ be the group of continuous isomorphism of \mathcal{H} , a Hilbert space, onto itself. A representation π of a LCA group \mathcal{X} in \mathcal{H} is an homomorphism π :

$$\pi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow Gl(\mathcal{H})$$

for which all the maps $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ defined for all $v \in \mathcal{H}$ as $x \mapsto \pi(x)v$, are continuous. The space \mathcal{H} in which the representation takes place is called the representation space of π . A representation π of a group \mathcal{X} in a vector space \mathcal{H} defines an action defined for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ by

$$\pi_x : \begin{cases} \mathcal{H} & \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \\ v & \mapsto \pi(x)v. \end{cases}$$

If for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\pi(x)$ is a unitary operator, then the group representation π is said to be unitary (i.e. $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\pi(x)$ is isometric and surjective). Thus π is unitary when for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\pi(x)^* = \pi(x)^{-1} = \pi(x^{-1}).$$

The representation π of \mathcal{X} in \mathcal{H} is said to be irreducible when $\mathcal{H} \neq \{0\}$ and are the only two stable invariant subspaces under all operators $\pi(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. i.e. for all $U \subset \mathcal{H}$, $U \neq \{0\}$,

$$\{ \pi(x)v \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall v \in U \} \neq U.$$

To study LCA groups we also introduce the left regular representation of \mathcal{X} acting on a Hilbert space of function $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$. For all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$ and for all $f \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$(\lambda_z f)(x) := f(z^{-1} \star x).$$

The representation λ of \mathcal{X} defines an action λ_x on \mathcal{H} which is the translation of $f(x)$ by z^{-1} . With this definition one has for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$, $\lambda_x \lambda_z = \lambda_{x^{-1} \star z}$. Such representations are faithful, that is $\lambda_x = \mathbf{I} \iff x = e$.

2.6 on operator-valued kernels

We now introduce the theory of \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (\mathcal{Y} -RKHS) that provides a flexible framework to study and learn vector-valued functions. The foundations of the general theory of scalar kernel is mostly due to Aronszajn [3] and provides a unifying point of view for the study of an important class of Hilbert spaces of real or complex valued functions. It has been first applied in the theory of partial differential equation. The theory of Operator-Valued Kernels (OVKs) which extends the scalar-valued kernel was first developed by Pedrick [40] in his Ph. D Thesis. Since then it has been successfully applied to machine learning by many authors. In particular we introduce the notion of Operator-Valued Kernels following the propositions of Carmeli, De Vito, and Toigo [13], Carmeli et al. [14], and Micchelli and Pontil [31].

2.6.1 Definitions and properties

In machine learning the goal is often to find a function f belonging to a space of function $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ that minimize some criterion. The class of functions we consider are functions living in a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$. The completeness allows to consider sequences of functions $f_n \in \mathcal{H}$ where the limit $f_n \rightarrow f$ is in \mathcal{H} . Moreover the existence of an inner product gives rise to a norm and also makes \mathcal{H} a metric space.

Amongs all these functions $f \in \mathcal{H}$, we consider a subset of functions $f \in \mathcal{H}_K \subset \mathcal{H}$ such that the evaluation map $\text{ev}_x : f \mapsto f(x)$ is bounded for all x . I.e. such that $\|\text{ev}_x\|_K \leq C_x$ for all x . For scalar valued kernel the evaluation map is a linear functional. Thus by Riesz's representation theorem there is an isomorphism between evaluating a function at a point and an inner product: $f(x) = \text{ev}_x f = \langle K_x, f \rangle_K$. From this we deduce the reproducing property $K(x, z) = \langle K_x, K_z \rangle_K$ which is the cornerstone of many proofs in machine learning and functional analysis. When dealing with vector-valued functions, the evaluation map ev_x is no longer a linear functional, since it is vector-valued. However, inspired by the theory of scalar valued kernel, many authors showed that if the evaluation map of functions with values in a Hilbert space \mathcal{Y} is bounded an similar reproducing property can be obtained, namely $\langle y', K(x, z)y \rangle = \langle K_x y', K_z y \rangle_K$ for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$. This motivates the following definition of a \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (\mathcal{Y} -RKHS).

Definition 2.5 (\mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space [13, 31]).

Let \mathcal{Y} be a (real or complex) Hilbert space. A \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space on a locally compact second countable topological space \mathcal{X} is a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} such that

1. the elements of \mathcal{H} are functions from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{Y} (i.e. $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$);

2. for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, there exists a positive constant C_x such that for all $f \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\|f(x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}} \leq C_x \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}. \quad (2.9)$$

Throughout this section we show that a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS defines a unique positive-definite function called Operator-Valued Kernel (OVK) and conversely an OVK uniquely defines a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS. We follow here the definition of Carmeli et al. [14].

Definition 2.6 (positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel acting on a complex Hilbert space). Given \mathcal{X} a locally compact second countable topological space and \mathcal{Y} a complex Hilbert Space, a map $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ is called an positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel kernel if

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^N \langle K(x_i, x_j) y_j, y_i \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \geq 0, \quad (2.10)$$

for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$, for all sequences of points $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$ in \mathcal{X}^N and all sequences of points $(y_i)_{i=1}^N$ in \mathcal{Y}^N .

if \mathcal{Y} is a complex Hilbert space, a positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel is always self-adjoint, i.e. $K(x, z) = K(z, x)^*$. This gives rise to the following definition of positive definite Operator-Valued Kernel acting on a real Hilbert space.

Definition 2.7 (positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel acting on a real Hilbert space). Given \mathcal{X} a locally compact second countable topological space and \mathcal{Y} a real Hilbert Space, a map $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ is called a positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel kernel if

$$K(x, z) = K(z, x)^* \quad (2.11)$$

and

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^N \langle K(x_i, x_j) y_j, y_i \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \geq 0, \quad (2.12)$$

for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$, for all sequences of points $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$ in \mathcal{X}^N , and all sequences of points $(y_i)_{i=1}^N$ in \mathcal{Y}^N .

As in the scalar case any \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space defines a unique positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel and conversely a positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel defines a unique \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space.

Proposition 2.2 Given a \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space there is a unique positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$.

Proof Given $x \in \mathcal{X}$, equation 2.9 ensure that the evaluation map at x defined as

$$ev_x : \begin{cases} \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y} \\ f \mapsto f(x) \end{cases}$$

is a bounded operator and the Operator-Valued Kernel K associated to \mathcal{H} is defined as

$$K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}) \quad K(x, z) = ev_x ev_z^*.$$

Since for all $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$ in \mathcal{X}^N and all $(y_i)_{i=1}^N$ in \mathcal{Y}^N ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i,j=1}^N \langle K(x_i, x_j) y_j, y_i \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \sum_{i,j=1}^N \langle ev_{x_j}^* y_j, ev_{x_i}^* y_i \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^N ev_{x_i}^* y_i, \sum_{i=1}^N ev_{x_i}^* y_i \right\rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \\ &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^N ev_{x_i}^* y_i \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2 \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

the map K is positive-definite. \square

Given $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $K_x : \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ denotes the linear operator whose action on a vector y is the function $K_x y \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ defined for all $z \in \mathcal{X}$ by $K_x = ev_x^*$. As a consequence we have that

$$K(x, z)y = ev_x ev_z^* y = K_x^* K_z y = (K_z y)(x). \quad (2.13)$$

Some direct consequences follows from the definition.

1. The kernel reproduces the value of a function $f \in \mathcal{H}$ at a point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ since for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $ev_x^* y = K_x y = K(\cdot, x)y$ so that

$$\langle f(x), y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle f, K(\cdot, x)y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle K_x^* f, y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}. \quad (2.14)$$

2. The set $\{ K_x y \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \}$ is total in \mathcal{H} . Namely,

$$\left(\bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Im } K_x \right)^{\perp} = \{ 0 \}.$$

If $f \in (\bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Im } K_x)^{\perp}$, then for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $f \in (\text{Im } K_x)^{\perp} = \text{Ker } K_x^*$, hence $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ that is $f = 0$.

3. Finally for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $f \in \mathcal{H}$, $\|f(x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}} \leq \sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}} \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}$. This come from the fact that $\|K_x\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{H}} = \|K_x^*\|_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Y}} = \sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}}$ and the operator norm is sub-multiplicative.

Additionally given an positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel, it defines a unique \mathcal{Y} -RKHS.

Proposition 2.3 *Given a positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel there $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$, there is a unique \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space \mathcal{H} on \mathcal{X} with reproducing kernel K .*

Proof Let $K_{x,y} = K(\cdot, x)y \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ and let

$$\mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span} \{ K_{x,y} \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \} \subset \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y}).$$

If $f = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i K_{x_i, y_i}$ and $g = \sum_{i=1}^N d_i K_{z_i, y'_i}$ are elements of \mathcal{H}_0 we have that

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \bar{d}_j \langle f(z_j), y'_j \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \sum_{i,j=1}^N c_i \bar{d}_j \langle K(z_j, x_i) y_i, y'_j \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \langle y_i, g(x_i) \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}},$$

so that the sesquilinear form on $\mathcal{H}_0 \times \mathcal{H}_0$

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0} = \sum_{i,j=1}^N c_i \bar{d}_j \langle K(z_j, x_i) y_i, y'_j \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}$$

is well defined. Since K is a positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel, we have that $\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0} \geq 0$ for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_0$. Because the sesquilinear form is positive if \mathcal{Y} is a complex Hilbert space, it is also Hermitian. If \mathcal{Y} is a real Hilbert space, by assumption $K(x, z) = K(z, x)^*$, making $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ an Hermitian sesquilinear form. Choosing $g = K_{x,y}$ in the above definition yields for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, all $f \in \mathcal{H}_0$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$

$$\langle f, K_{x,y} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0} = \langle f(x), y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}.$$

Besides iff $f \in \mathcal{H}_0$ for all unitary vector $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, by the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle f(x), y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}| &= |\langle f, K_{x,y} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}| \leq \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}} \sqrt{\langle K_{x,y}, K_{x,y} \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}} \\ &= \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}} \sqrt{\langle K(x, x)y, y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}} \leq \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}} \sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}}, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$\|f(x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}} \leq \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_0} \sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}}$$

Therefore if $\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0} = 0$ then $f = 0$. Eventually we deduce that $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ is an inner product on \mathcal{H}_0 . Hence \mathcal{H}_0 is a pre-Hilbert space. To make it a (complete) Hilbert space we need to take the completion of this space. Let \mathcal{H} be the completion of \mathcal{H}_0 . Moreover let $K_x : \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ where $K_x y = K_{x,y}$. By construction K_x is bounded. Let $W : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ where $(Wf)(x) = K_x^* f$. The operator W is injective. Indeed if $Wf = 0$ then for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $f \in \text{Ker } K_x^* = (\text{Im } f)^\perp$. Since the set $\cup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Im } K_x = \{ K_{x,y} \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \}$ generates by definition \mathcal{H}_0 , we have $f = 0$. Besides, as W is injective, we have for all $f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{H}_0$ $(Wf_1)(x) = (Wf_2)(x) \implies f_1(x) = f_2(x)$ pointwise in \mathcal{H} so that we can identify \mathcal{H} with a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$. Hence

$K_x^* f = (Wf)(x) = f(x) = ev_x f$, showing that \mathcal{H} is a \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space with reproducing kernel

$$K_{\mathcal{H}}(x, z)y = (ev_z^* y)(x) = K(x, z)y.$$

The uniqueness of \mathcal{H} comes from the uniqueness of the completion of \mathcal{H}_0 up to an isometry. \square

The above theorem also holds if \mathcal{Y} is a real Hilbert space provided we add the assumption that $K(x, z)$ is self-adjoint i.e. $K(x, z) = K(z, x)^*$ for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$. Then $K(x, z)$ still defines a valid symmetric bilinear form on \mathcal{Y} when \mathcal{Y} is a *real* Hilbert space.

Since an positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel defines a unique \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (\mathcal{Y} -RKHS) and conversely a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS defines a unique Operator-Valued Kernel, we denotes the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} endowed with the scalar product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ respectively \mathcal{H}_K and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_K$. From now we refer to positive-definite Operator-Valued Kernel or reproducing Operator-Valued Kernel as Operator-Valued Kernel whether they act on complex or real Hilbert spaces. As a consequence, given K an Operator-Valued Kernel, define $K_x = K(\cdot, x)$ we have

$$K(x, z) = K_x^* K_z \quad \forall x, z \in \mathcal{X}, \quad (2.15a)$$

$$\mathcal{H}_K = \overline{\text{span}} \{ K_x y \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \}. \quad (2.15b)$$

Another way to describe functions of \mathcal{H}_K consists in using a suitable feature map.

Proposition 2.4 (Feature Operator [14]). *Let \mathcal{H} be any Hilbert space and $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}; \mathcal{H})$, with $\Phi_x := \Phi(x)$. Then the operator $W : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ defined for all $g \in \mathcal{H}$, and for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ by $(Wg)(x) = \Phi_x^* g$ is a partial isometry from \mathcal{H} onto the \mathcal{Y} -RKHS \mathcal{H}_K with reproducing kernel*

$$K(x, z) = \Phi_x^* \Phi_z, \quad \forall x, z \in \mathcal{X}.$$

$W^* W$ is the orthogonal projection onto

$$(\text{Ker } W)^\perp = \overline{\text{span}} \{ \Phi_x y \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \}.$$

Then

$$\|f\|_K = \inf \{ \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}} \mid \forall g \in \mathcal{H}, Wg = f \}. \quad (2.16)$$

Proof The operator $(Wg)(x) = \Phi(x)^* g$ ensure that the nullspace of W is $\mathcal{N} = \text{Ker } W = \bigcap_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Ker } \Phi(x)^*$. Since $\Phi(x)$ is bounded, $\Phi(x)$ is a continuous operator, thus for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\text{Ker } \Phi(x)^*$ is closed so that \mathcal{N} is closed. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{N} = \text{Ker } W = \bigcap_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Ker } \Phi(x)^* = \bigcap_{x \in \mathcal{X}} (\text{Im } \Phi(x))^\perp = \left(\bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Im } \Phi(x) \right)^\perp$$

So that $\mathcal{N}^\perp = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{Im } \Phi(x)$ and the restriction of W to \mathcal{N}^\perp is injective.

Let $\mathcal{H}_K = \text{Im } W$ be a vector space. Define the unique inner product on \mathcal{H}_K such that W becomes a partial isometry from \mathcal{H} onto \mathcal{H}_K . We call this new partial isometry (again) W . We show that \mathcal{H}_K is a \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space. Since W^*W is a projection on \mathcal{N}^\perp , given $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$, where $f = Wg$ and $g \in \mathcal{N}^\perp$ we have for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$

$$f(x) = (Wg)(x) = \Phi(x)^*g = \Phi(x)^*W^*Wg = (W\Phi(x))^*f.$$

Since $\text{Ker } W$ is closed, W is bounded, and $\Phi(x)$ is bounded by definition so that the evaluation map

$$ev_x = (W\Phi(x))^*$$

is bounded so continuous. Then the reproducing kernel is given for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$ by

$$K(x, z) = ev_x ev_z^* = (W\Phi(x))^*(W\Phi(z)) = \Phi(x)^*W^*W\Phi(z) = \Phi(x)^*\Phi(z),$$

Since W^*W is the identity on $\text{Im } \Phi(z)$. Hence \mathcal{H}_K is a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS (see proof of proposition 2.12). \square

We call Φ a feature map, W a feature operator and \mathcal{H} a feature space. Since W is an isometry from $(\text{Ker } W)^\perp$ onto \mathcal{H}_K , the map W allows us to identify \mathcal{H}_K with the closed subspace $(\text{Ker } W)^\perp$ of \mathcal{H} . Notice that W is a partial isometry, meaning that there can exist multiple functions $g \in \mathcal{H}$, the re-description space, such that $Wg = f$ where f is a function of the \mathcal{Y} -RKHS \mathcal{H}_K . However equation 2.16 shows that there is a unique function $g \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $Wg = f$, and $\|g\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}$. Among all functions $g \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $Wg = f$, the only one making the norm in the \mathcal{Y} -RKHS and the re-description space is the one with minimal norm.

In this work we mainly focus on the class kernels inducing a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS of continuous functions. Such kernels are named \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernels.

Definition 2.8 (\mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel). A reproducing kernel $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ is called \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel if \mathcal{H}_K is a subspace of $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$.

The following proposition characterize \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel in terms of the properties of a kernels rather than properties of the \mathcal{Y} -RKHS.

Proposition 2.5 (Characterization of \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel [14]). Let K be a reproducing kernel. The kernel K is Mercer if and only if the function $x \mapsto \|K(x, x)\|$ is locally bounded and for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, $K_x y \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$.

Proof If $\mathcal{H}_K \subset \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$, then for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, $K_x y$ is an element of $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ (see equation 2.15b). In addition for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$, $\|K_x^* f\| = \|f(x)\| \leq \|f\|_\infty$. Hence there exist a constant $M \in \mathbb{R}_+$ such that for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\|K_x\| \leq M$. Therefore from equation 2.15a, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\|K(x, x)\| = \|K_x^*\|^2 \leq M^2$. Conversely assume that the function $x \mapsto \|K(x, x)\|$ is locally bounded and $K_{xy} \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$. For all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$ and all $x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\|f(x)\| = \|f\|_K \sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|} \leq M \|f\|_K.$$

Thus convergence in \mathcal{H}_K implies uniform convergence. Since by assumption

$$\{K_{x,t} \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y}\} \subset \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y}),$$

then the \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space

$$\mathcal{H}_K = \overline{\text{span}} \{K_{x,y} \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y}\} \subset \mathcal{C}$$

is also a subset of $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$ by the uniform convergence theorem. \square

The next lemma shows that when \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are separable and \mathcal{H}_K is a space of continuous functions then \mathcal{H}_K is separable. It is worth mentioning that when the Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_K is separable, it admit a countable orthonormal basis.

Lemma 2.1 (Separable \mathcal{Y} -RKHS [13]). *Let \mathcal{H}_K be a \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space of continuous function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$. If \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are separable then \mathcal{H}_K is separable.*

Proof The separability of \mathcal{X} assure that there exist a countable dense subset $\mathcal{X}_o \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. Since \mathcal{Y} is separable,

$$\mathcal{S} = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{X}_o} \text{Im } K_x = \{K_{x,y} \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}_o, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y}\} \subset \mathcal{H}_K$$

is separable too. We show that \mathcal{S} is total in \mathcal{H}_K so that \mathcal{H}_K is separable. If for all $x \in \mathcal{X}_o, f \in \mathcal{S}^\perp$, then $f \in \text{Ker } K_x^*$. Namely $f(x) = \text{ev}_x f = 0$. Since f is continuous and \mathcal{X}_o is dense in \mathcal{X} , for all $x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = 0$ so $f = 0$. \square

Since a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel K defines a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS \mathcal{H}_K of continuous functions, \mathcal{H}_K is separable when \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are separables.

Proposition 2.6 (Separable \mathcal{Y} -RKHS for \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel [13]). *Let $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be a reproducing kernel where \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are separable spaces. If K is a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel then \mathcal{H}_K is separable.*

Proof From proposition 2.16 K is a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel if and only if $\mathcal{H}_K \subset \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}; \mathcal{Y})$. Applying lemma 2.16 of Carmeli, De Vito, and Toigo [13], we have that \mathcal{H}_K is separable. \square

Thus since \mathcal{H}_K is also a Hilbert space and is separable it is second countable (i.e. it has a countable orthonormal basis). An important consequence is that if K is a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer and \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are separable then \mathcal{H}_K and any res-description is isometrically isomorphic to ℓ^2 .

2.6.2 Shift-Invariant operator-valued kernels on LCA groups

The main subjects of interest of equation 2.19 are shift-invariant Operator-Valued Kernel. When referring to a shift-invariant OVK $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ we assume that \mathcal{X} is a locally compact second countable topological group with identity e .

Definition 2.9 (Shift-invariant OVK). A reproducing Operator-Valued Kernel $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ is called shift-invariant³ if for all $x, z, t \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$K(x \star t, z \star t) = K(x, z). \quad (2.17)$$

³ Also referred to as translation-invariant OVK.

A shift-invariant kernel can be characterized by a function of one variable K_e called the signature of K . Here e denotes the neutral element of the LCA group \mathcal{X} endowed with the operator \star .

We recall the definition of left regular representation of \mathcal{X} acting on \mathcal{H}_K which is useful to study LCA groups. For all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$ and for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$,

$$(\lambda_z f)(x)G := f(z^{-1} \star x).$$

A group representation λ_z describes the group by making it act on a vector space (here \mathcal{H}_K) in a linear manner. In other words, the group representation lets us see a group as a linear operator which are well studied mathematical objects.

Proposition 2.7 (Kernel signature [14]). Let $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ be a reproducing kernel. The following conditions are equivalents.

1. K is a positive-definite shift-invariant Operator-Valued Kernel.
2. There is a positive-definite function $K_e : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ such that $K(x, z) = K_e(z^{-1} \star x)$.

If one of the above conditions is satisfied, then the representation λ leaves invariant \mathcal{H}_K , its action on \mathcal{H}_K is unitary and

$$K(x, z) = K_e^* \lambda_{x^{-1} \star z} K_e \quad \forall (x, z) \in \mathcal{X}^2. \quad (2.18a)$$

$$\|K(x, x)\| = \|K_e(e)\| \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \quad (2.18b)$$

Proof Assume proposition 2.17 holds true. Given $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$, equation 2.13 and equation 2.17 yields

$$K_e(z^{-1} \star x) = K(z^{-1} \star x, e) = K(x, z).$$

Since K is a reproducing kernel, K_e is of completely positive type, so that proposition 2.17 holds true. Besides if proposition 2.17 holds true obviously the definition of a reproducing kernel (definition 2.9) is fulfilled so that proposition 2.17 holds true.

Suppose that K is a shift-invariant reproducing kernel. Given $t \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$(\lambda_x K_t y)(z) = (K_t y)(x^{-1} \star z) = K(x^{-1} \star z, t) = K(z, x \star t) = (K_{x \star t} y)_z,$$

that is $\lambda_x K_t = K_{x \star t}$. Besides for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ and all $x, z, t, t' \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \lambda_x K_t y, \lambda_x K_{t'} y' \rangle_K &= \langle K_{x \star t} y, K_{x \star t'} y' \rangle_K = \langle K(x \star t', x \star t) y, y' \rangle \\ &= \langle K(t', t) y, y' \rangle = \langle K_t y, K_{t'} y' \rangle_K \end{aligned}$$

This means that λ leaves the set $\{ K_x y \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \}$ invariant. Since

$$\{ K_x y \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \}$$

is total in \mathcal{H}_K (see equation 2.15b), λ is surjective and because it also leaves the inner product invariant, the first two claims follow. \square

The notation K_e for the function of completely positive type associated with the reproducing kernel K is consistent with the definition given by equation 2.13 since for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$

$$(K_e y)(x) = K_e(x)y.$$

Moreover notice that shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernels are directly linked to functions of positive type (see equation 2.1), since shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernels they are nothing but functions whose signature is of positive type (continuous positive definite functions).

2.6.3 Examples of operator-valued kernels

Operator-valued kernels have been first introduced in Machine Learning to solve multi-task regression problems. Multi-task regression is encountered in many fields such as structured classification when classes belong to a hierarchy for instance. Instead of solving independently p single output regression task, one would like to take advantage of the relationships between output variables when learning and making a decision.

Definition 2.10 (Decomposable kernel). Let Γ be a non-negative operator of $\mathcal{L}_+(\mathcal{Y})$. K is said to be a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer decomposable kernel⁴ if for all $(x, z) \in \mathcal{X}^2$,

$$K(x, z) := k(x, z)\Gamma,$$

where k is a scalar Mercer kernel.

When $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^p$, the matrix Γ is interpreted as encoding the relationships between the outputs coordinates. If a graph coding for the proximity between tasks is known, then it is shown in Álvarez, Rosasco, and Lawrence [2], Baldassarre et al. [4], and Evgeniou, Micchelli, and Pontil [18] that Γ can be chosen equal to the pseudo inverse L^+ of the graph Laplacian such that the norm in \mathcal{H}_K is a graph-regularizing penalty for the outputs (tasks). When no prior knowledge is available, Γ can be set to the empirical covariance of the output training data or learned with one of the algorithms proposed in the literature [17, 29, 44]. Another interesting property of the decomposable kernel is its universality (a kernel which may approximate an arbitrary continuous target function uniformly on any compact subset of the input space). A reproducing kernel K is said *universal* if the associated \mathcal{Y} -RKHS \mathcal{H}_K is dense in the space $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$. The conditions for a kernel to be universal have been discussed in Caponnetto et al. [12] and Carmeli et al. [14]. In particular they show that a decomposable kernel is universal provided that the scalar kernel k is universal and the operator Γ is injective.

Proposition 2.8 (Kernels and Regularizers [2]). Let $K(x, z) := k(x, z)\Gamma$ for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$ be a decomposable kernel where Γ is a matrix of size $p \times p$. Then for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$,

$$\|f\|_K = \sum_{i,j=1}^p \Gamma_{ij}^+ \langle f_i, f_j \rangle_k \quad (2.19)$$

⁴ Some authors also refer to as separable kernels.

where $f_i = \langle f, e_i \rangle$ (resp $f_j = \langle f, e_j \rangle$), denotes the i -th (resp j -th) component of f .

Curl-free and divergence-free kernels provide an interesting application of operator-valued kernels [5, 30, 32] to *vector field* learning, for which input and output spaces have the same dimensions ($d = p$). Applications cover shape deformation analysis [32] and magnetic fields approximations [54]. These kernels discussed in [21] allow encoding input-dependent similarities between vector-fields.

Definition 2.11 (Curl-free and Div-free kernel). Assume $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^p$ with $d = p$. The divergence-free kernel is defined as

$$K^{div}(x, z) = K_o^{div}(\delta) = (\nabla \nabla^\top - \Delta I)k_o(\delta)$$

and the curl-free kernel as

$$K^{curl}(x, z) = K_o^{curl}(\delta) = -\nabla \nabla^\top k_o(\delta),$$

where ∇ is the gradient operator⁵, $\nabla \nabla^\top$ is the Hessian operator and Δ is the Laplacian operator.

⁵ See equation 4.10 for a formal definition of the operator ∇ .

Although taken separately these kernels are not universal, a convex combination of the curl-free and divergence-free kernels allows to learn any vector field that satisfies the Helmholtz decomposition theorem [5, 30].



Part II

CONTRIBUTIONS

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3

OPERATOR-VALUED RANDOM FOURIER FEATURES

3.1 motivations

Random Fourier Features have been proved useful to implement efficiently kernel methods in the scalar case, allowing to learn a linear model based on an approximated feature map. In this work, we are interested to construct approximated operator-valued feature maps to learn vector-valued functions. With an explicit (approximated) feature map, one converts the problem of learning a function f in the vector-valued Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space \mathcal{H}_K into the learning of a linear model \tilde{f} defined by:

$$\tilde{f}(x) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \theta,$$

where $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Y})$ and $\theta \in \mathcal{H}$. The methodology we propose works for operator-valued kernels defined on any Locally Compact Abelian (LCA) group, noted (\mathcal{X}, \star) , for some operation noted \star . This allows us to use the general context of Pontryagin duality for Fourier Transform of functions on LCA groups. Building upon a generalization of Bochner's theorem for operator-valued measures, an operator-valued kernel is seen as the *Fourier Transform* of an operator-valued positive measure. From that result, we extend the principle of Random Fourier Feature for scalar-valued kernels and derive a general methodology to build Operator Random Fourier Feature when operator-valued kernels are shift-invariant according to the chosen group operation. Elements of this chapter have been developed in Brault, Heinonen, and Buc [8].

We present a construction of feature maps called Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature (ORFF), such that $f : x \mapsto \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \theta$ is a continuous function that maps an arbitrary LCA group \mathcal{X} as input space to an arbitrary output Hilbert space \mathcal{Y} . First we define a functional *Fourier feature map*, and then propose a Monte-Carlo sampling from this feature map to construct an approximation of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel. Then, we prove the convergence of the kernel approximation $\tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z)$ with high probability on *compact* subsets of the LCA \mathcal{X} , when \mathcal{Y} is *finite dimensional*. Eventually we conclude with some numerical experiments.

3.2 theoretical study

The following proposition of Carmeli et al. [14] and Zhang, Xu, and Zhang [57] extends Bochner's theorem to any shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel.

Proposition 3.1 (Operator-valued Bochner's theorem [37, 57]).

If a continuous function K from $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$ to \mathcal{Y} is a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel on \mathcal{X} , then there exists a unique positive projection-valued measure $\hat{\mathcal{Q}} : \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_+(\mathcal{Y})$ such that for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$K(x, z) = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega)} d\hat{\mathcal{Q}}(\omega), \quad (3.1)$$

where $\widehat{\mathcal{Q}}$ belongs to the set of all the projection-valued measures of bounded variation on the σ -algebra of Borel subsets of $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. Conversely, from any positive operator-valued measure M , a shift-invariant kernel K can be defined by proposition 3.0.

Although this theorem is central to the spectral decomposition of shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer [OVK](#), the following results proved by Carmeli et al. [\[14\]](#) provides insights about this decomposition that are more relevant in practice. It first gives the necessary conditions to build shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel with a pair $(A, \widehat{\mu})$ where A is an operator-valued function on $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$ and $\widehat{\mu}$ is a real-valued positive measure on $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. Note that obviously such a pair is not unique and the choice of this paper may have an impact on theoretical properties as well as practical computations. Secondly it also states that any [OVK](#) have such a spectral decomposition when \mathcal{Y} is finite dimensional or \mathcal{X} .

Proposition 3.2 (Carmeli et al. [\[14\]](#)). *Let $\widehat{\mu}$ be a positive measure on $\mathcal{B}(\widehat{\mathcal{X}})$ and $A : \widehat{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ such that $\langle A(\cdot)y, y' \rangle \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \widehat{\mu})$ for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $A(\omega) \succcurlyeq 0$ for $\widehat{\mu}$ -almost all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. Then, for all $\delta \in \mathcal{X}$,*

$$K_e(\delta) = \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(\delta, \omega)} A(\omega) d\widehat{\mu}(\omega) \quad (3.2)$$

is the kernel signature of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel K such that $K(x, z) = K_e(x \star z^{-1})$. The [Y-RKHS](#) \mathcal{H}_K is embed in $L^2(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mu}; \mathcal{Y}')$ by mean of the feature operator

$$(Wg)(x) = \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x, \omega)} B(\omega) g(\omega) d\widehat{\mu}(\omega), \quad (3.3)$$

Where $B(\omega)B(\omega)^ = A(\omega)$ and both integral converges in the weak sense. If \mathcal{Y} is finite dimensional or \mathcal{X} is compact, any shift-invariant kernel is of the above form for some pair $(A, \widehat{\mu})$.*

When $p = 1$ one can always assume A is reduced to the scalar 1, $\widehat{\mu}$ is still a bounded positive measure and we retrieve the Bochner theorem applied to the scalar case ([??](#)).

Proposition [3.1](#) shows that a pair $(A, \widehat{\mu})$ entirely characterize an [OVK](#). Namely a given measure $\widehat{\mu}$ and a function A such that $\langle y', A(\cdot)y \rangle \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \widehat{\mu})$ for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $A(\omega) \succcurlyeq 0$ for $\widehat{\mu}$ -almost all ω , gives rise to an [OVK](#). Since $(A, \widehat{\mu})$ determine a unique kernel we can write $\mathcal{H}_{(A, \widehat{\mu})} \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}_K$ where K is defined as in equation [3.2](#). However the converse is to true: Given a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer shift invariant Operator-Valued Kernel, there exist infinitely many pairs $(A, \widehat{\mu})$ that characterize an [OVK](#).

The main difference between proposition [3.0](#) and proposition [3.1](#) is that the first one characterize an [OVK](#) by a unique Positive Operator-Valued Measure ([POVM](#)), while the second one shows that the [POVM](#) that uniquely characterize a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer [OVK](#) has an operator-valued density with respect to a *scalar* measure $\widehat{\mu}$; and that this operator-valued density is not unique.

Finally proposition 3.1 does not provide any *constructive* way to obtain the pair $(A, \hat{\mu})$ that characterize an OVK. The following equation 3.3 is based on an other proposition of Carmeli, De Vito, and Toigo and show that if the kernel signature $K_e(\delta)$ of an OVK is in L^1 then it is possible to construct *explicitly* a pair $(C, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}})$ from it. Additionally, we show that we can always extract a scalar-valued *probability* density function from C such that we obtain a pair $(A, \mathbf{Pr}_{\hat{\mu}, \rho})$ where $\mathbf{Pr}_{\hat{\mu}, \rho}$ is a *probability* distribution absolutely continuous with respect to $\hat{\mu}$ and with associated probability density function (p.d.f.) ρ . Thus for all $Z \subset \mathcal{B}(\hat{\mathcal{X}})$,

$$\mathbf{Pr}_{\hat{\mu}, \rho}(Z) = \int_Z \rho(\omega) d\hat{\mu}(\omega).$$

When the reference measure $\hat{\mu}$ is the Lebesgue measure, we note $\mathbf{Pr}_{\hat{\mu}, \rho} = \mathbf{Pr}_\rho$.

3.2.1 Sufficient conditions of existence

While proposition 3.1 gives some insights on how to build an approximation of a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel, we need a theorem that provides an explicit construction of the pair $(A, \mathbf{Pr}_{\hat{\mu}, \rho})$ from the kernel signature K_e . Proposition 14 in Carmeli et al. [14] gives the solution, and also provide a sufficient condition for proposition 3.1 to apply.

Proposition 3.3 (Carmeli et al. [14]). *Let K be a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel. Suppose that for all $z \in \mathcal{X}$ and for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$,*

$$\langle K_e(\cdot)y, y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar})$$

where \mathcal{X} is endowed with the group law \star . For all $\omega \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}$ and for all y, y' in \mathcal{Y} , let

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} (\delta, \omega) \langle y', K_e(\delta)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\mathbf{Haar}(\delta) \\ &= \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle]_{\mathcal{Y}}(\omega). \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

Then

1. $C(\omega)$ is a bounded non-negative operator for all $\omega \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}$,
2. $\langle y, C(\cdot)y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \in L^1(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}})$ for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{X}$,
3. for all $\delta \in \mathcal{X}$ and for all y, y' in \mathcal{Y} ,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y', K_e(\delta)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(\delta, \omega)} \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{F} [\langle y', C(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}](\delta). \end{aligned}$$

There have been a lot of confusion in the literature whether a kernel is the Fourier Transform or Inverse Fourier Transform of a measure. However lemma 3.4 clarify the relation between the Fourier Transform and

Inverse Fourier Transform for a translation invariant Operator-Valued Kernel. Notice that in the real scalar case the Fourier Transform and Inverse Fourier Transform of a shift-invariant kernel are the same, while the difference is significant for [OVK](#).

The following lemma is a direct consequence of the definition of $C(\omega)$ as the Fourier Transform of the adjoint of K_e and also helps simplifying the definition of [ORFF](#).

Lemma 3.1 *Let K_e be the signature of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel such that for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar})$ and let*

$$\langle y', C(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] .$$

Then

1. $C(\omega)$ is self-adjoint and C is even.
2. $\mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] = \mathcal{F} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}]$.
3. $K_e(\delta)$ is self-adjoint and K_e is even.

Proof For any function f on (\mathcal{X}, \star) define the flip operator \mathcal{R} by

$$(\mathcal{R}f)(x) := f(x^{-1}) .$$

For any shift invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel and for all $\delta \in \mathcal{X}$, $K_e(\delta) = K_e(\delta^{-1})^*$. Indeed from the definition of a shift-invariant kernel,

$$K_e(\delta^{-1}) = K(\delta^{-1}, e) = K(e, \delta) = K(\delta, e)^* = K_e(\delta)^* .$$

Equation 3.4: taking the Fourier Transform yields,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] (\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', (\mathcal{R}K_e(\cdot))^*y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] (\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{R}\mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle K_e(\cdot)y', y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] (\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{R}\langle C(\cdot)y', y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}(\omega) \\ &= \langle y', C(\omega^{-1})^* y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} . \end{aligned}$$

Hence $C(\omega) = C(\omega^{-1})^*$. Suppose that \mathcal{Y} is a complex Hilbert space. Since for all $\omega \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}$, $C(\omega)$ is bounded and non-negative so $C(\omega)$ is self-adjoint. Besides we have $C(\omega) = C(\omega^{-1})^*$ so C must be even. Suppose that \mathcal{Y} is a real Hilbert space. The Fourier Transform of a real valued function obey $\mathcal{F}[f](\omega) = \overline{\mathcal{F}[f](\omega^{-1})}$. Therefore since $C(\omega)$ is non-negative for all $\omega \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle &= \overline{\langle y', C(\omega^{-1})y \rangle} = \langle y, C(\omega^{-1})^* y' \rangle \\ &= \langle y, C(\omega)y' \rangle . \end{aligned}$$

Hence $C(\omega)$ is self-adjoint and thus C is even. Equation 3.4: simply, for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle y, C(\omega^{-1})y' \rangle = \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle$ thus

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] (\omega) &= \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle = \mathcal{R}\langle y', C(\cdot)y \rangle(\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{R}\mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] (\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{F} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}] (\omega) . \end{aligned}$$

Equation 3.4: from equation 3.4 we have $\mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle] = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \mathcal{R} \langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle$. By injectivity of the Fourier Transform, K_e is even. Since $K_e(\delta) = K_e(\delta^{-1})^*$, we must have $K_e(\delta) = K_e(\delta)^*$. \square

While proposition 3.3 gives an explicit form of the operator $C(\omega)$ defined as the Fourier Transform of the kernel K , it is not really convenient to work with the Haar measure $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ on $\mathcal{B}(\widehat{\mathcal{X}})$. However it is easily possible to turn $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ into a probability measure to allow efficient integration over an infinite domain.

The following proposition allows to build a spectral decomposition of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel on a LCA group \mathcal{X} endowed with the group law \star with respect to a scalar probability measure, by extracting a scalar probability density function from C .

Proposition 3.4 (Shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel spectral decomposition). *Let K_e be the signature of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel. If for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle K_e(\cdot)y, y' \rangle \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar})$ then there exists a positive probability measure $\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}$ and an operator-valued function A an such that for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$,*

$$\langle y', K_e(\delta)y \rangle = \mathbf{E}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho} \left[\overline{(\delta, \omega)} \langle y', A(\omega)y \rangle \right], \quad (3.5)$$

with

$$\langle y', A(\omega)y \rangle \rho(\omega) = \mathcal{F} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle] (\omega). \quad (3.6)$$

Moreover

1. for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle A(\cdot)y, y' \rangle \in L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho})$,
2. $A(\omega)$ is non-negative for $\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}$ -almost all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$,
3. $A(\cdot)$ and $\rho(\cdot)$ are even functions.

Proof This is a simple consequence of proposition 3.3 and lemma 3.4. By taking $\langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle = \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle] (\omega) = \mathcal{F} [\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle] (\omega)$ we can write the following equality concerning the OVK signature K_e .

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y', K_e(\delta)y \rangle (\omega) &= \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(\delta, \omega)} \langle y', C(\omega)y \rangle d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(\delta, \omega)} \left\langle y', \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\rho(\omega)} C(\omega)y \right\rangle \rho(\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega). \end{aligned}$$

It is always possible to choose $\rho(\omega)$ such that $\int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \rho(\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) = \mathbf{1}$. For instance choose

$$\rho(\omega) = \frac{\|C(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}}{\int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \|C(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega)}$$

Since for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle y', C(\cdot)y \rangle \in L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}})$ and \mathcal{Y} is a separable Hilbert space, by pettis measurability theorem, $\int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \|C(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega)$ is finite and so is

$\|C(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y},\mathcal{Y}}$ for all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. Therefore $\rho(\omega)$ is the density of a probability measure $\widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}},\rho}$, i.e. conclude by taking

$$\widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}},\rho}(\mathcal{Z}) = \int_{\mathcal{Z}} \rho(\omega) d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega),$$

for all $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathcal{B}(\widehat{\mathcal{X}})$. \square

In the case where $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^p$, we rewrite equation 3.6 coefficient-wise by choosing an orthonormal basis $\{e_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}_p^*}$ of \mathbb{R}^p .

$$A(\omega)_{ij}\rho(\omega) = \mathcal{F}[K_e(\cdot)_{ij}](\omega). \quad (3.7)$$

It follows that for all i and j in \mathbb{N}_p^* ,

$$K_e(x \star z^{-1})_{ij} = \mathcal{F}[A(\cdot)_{ij}\rho(\cdot)](x \star z^{-1}) \quad (3.8)$$

Remark 3.1 Note that although the Fourier Transform of K_e yields a unique operator-valued function $C(\cdot)$, the decomposition of $C(\cdot)$ into $A(\cdot)\rho(\cdot)$ is again not unique. The choice of the decomposition may be justified by the computational cost or by the nature of the constants involved in the uniform convergence of the estimator.

Another difficulty arise from the fact that the quantity $\sup_{\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \|A(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y},\mathcal{Y}}$ obtained in proposition 3.4 might not bounded. The unboundedness of $\|A(\cdot)\|_{\mathcal{Y},\mathcal{Y}}$ forbid the use of the most simple concentrations inequalities – which require the boundedness of the random variable to be controlled. Therefore in the context of Operator-Valued Kernel concentration inequalities for unbounded random operators should be used. However, as pointed out by Minh [34], under some condition on the trace of $K_e(\delta)$, it is possible to turn $A(\cdot)$ into a bounded random operator for all ω in $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. The idea is to define a sum measure $\rho = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}^*} \rho_{e_j}$, which gives rise to bounded operator $A(\omega)$ and is independant of the $\{e_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ base, instead of constructing a measure from the operator norm as in proposition 3.4. Additionally with such construction the measure associated to $A(\cdot)$ is *independant* from the basis of \mathcal{Y} . In this proof we relax the assumptions of Minh [34] which requires $\int_{\mathcal{X}} |\text{Tr } K_e(\delta)| d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\delta)$ to be well defined. We only require $\text{Tr } K_e(e)$ to be well defined.

Proposition 3.5 (Bounded shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel spectral decomposition). Let K_e be the signature of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel. If for all y and y' in \mathcal{Y} , $\langle K_e(\cdot)y, y' \rangle \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \widehat{\text{Haar}})$ and $\text{Tr } K_e(e) \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\langle y', K_e(\delta)y \rangle = \widehat{\text{E}}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}},\rho_{\text{Tr}}} \left[\overline{(\delta, \omega)} \langle y, A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)y' \rangle \right]. \quad (3.9)$$

with

$$\langle y', C(\cdot)y \rangle = \mathcal{F}[\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle] \quad (3.10a)$$

$$c_{\text{Tr}} = \text{Tr}[K_e(e)] \quad (3.10b)$$

$$A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega) = c_{\text{Tr}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)]^{-1} C(\omega) \quad (3.10c)$$

$$\rho_{\text{Tr}}(\omega) = c_{\text{Tr}}^{-1} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)]. \quad (3.10d)$$

Moreover

1. For all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle y, A_{\text{Tr}}(\cdot)y' \rangle \in L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho_{\text{Tr}}})$.
2. $A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)$ is non-negative for all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$,
3. $\sup_{\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \|A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq c_p$,
4. $A_{\text{Tr}}(\cdot)$ and ρ_{Tr} are even functions.

Proof Let $\{e_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ be an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{Y} . Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \langle e_j, C(\omega)e_j \rangle d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega) &= \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \underbrace{\overline{\langle e, \omega \rangle}}_{=1} \langle e_j, C(\omega)e_j \rangle d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \langle e_j, K_e(e)e_j \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Since $C(\omega)$ is non-negative, all the $\langle e_j, C(\omega)e_j \rangle$. Thus using the monotone convergence theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)] d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega) &= \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}^*} \langle e_j, C(\omega)e_j \rangle d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}^*} \langle e_j, K_e(e)e_j \rangle \\ &= \text{Tr}[K_e(e)] = c_{\text{Tr}} < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Let $A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)$ and $\rho_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)$ be defined as in equation 3.10c and equation 3.10d, respectively. By definition, $\int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \rho_{\text{Tr}}(\omega) d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega) = 1$ and $A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)\rho_{\text{Tr}}(\omega) = C(\omega)$. Now it remains to check the finiteness of $\text{Tr}[C(\omega)]$ for all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$. Since for all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$, $\text{Tr}[C(\omega)] \geq 0$,

$$\text{Tr}[C(\omega)] \leq \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)] d\widehat{\text{Haar}}(\omega) = \text{Tr}[K_e(e)] < \infty.$$

Since $\text{Tr}[C(\omega)]$ is positive and its integral is finite, ρ_{Tr} is a probability density function. The Schatten norms $\|\cdot\|_p$ verifies $\text{Tr}[\|\cdot\|] = \|\cdot\|_1 \geq \|\cdot\|_p \geq \|\cdot\|_q \geq \|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} = \|\cdot\|_\infty$ for all $p, q \in \mathbb{N}^*$ such that $1 \leq p \leq q$. Therefore since for all $\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}$, $C(\omega)$ is non-negative,

$$\begin{aligned} \|A_{\text{Tr}}(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} &= c_{\text{Tr}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)]^{-1} \|C(\omega)\|_\infty \\ &\leq c_{\text{Tr}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)]^{-1} \|C(\omega)\|_1 \\ &= c_{\text{Tr}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)]^{-1} \text{Tr}[|C(\omega)|] \\ &= c_{\text{Tr}} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)]^{-1} \text{Tr}[C(\omega)] \\ &\leq c_{\text{Tr}} < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\sup_{\omega \in \widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \|A(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq c_{\text{Tr}} < \infty$. As C is an even function, so are A_{Tr} and ρ_{Tr} . Eventually $\langle y', C(\cdot)y \rangle$ is in $L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\text{Haar}})$, thus $\langle y, A_{\text{Tr}}(\cdot)\rho_{\text{Tr}}(\cdot)y' \rangle$ is in $L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\text{Haar}})$, hence $\langle y, A_{\text{Tr}}(\cdot)y' \rangle \in L^1(\widehat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho_{\text{Tr}}})$. Since the trace is independent of the basis of \mathcal{Y} , so is ρ_{Tr} . \square

If \mathcal{Y} is finite dimensional then $\text{Tr}[K_e(e)]$ is well defined hence proposition 3.8 is valid as long as $K_e(\cdot)_{ij} \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \text{Haar})$ for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}_p^*$, where p is the dimension of \mathcal{Y} .

3.2.2 Examples of spectral decomposition

In this section we give example of spectral decomposition of various \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel, based on proposition 3.4 and proposition 3.8.

3.2.2.1 Gaussian decomposable kernel

Recall that a decomposable \mathbb{R}^p -Mercer has the form $K(x, z) = k(x, z)\Gamma$, where $k(x, z)$ is a scalar Mercer kernel and $\Gamma \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^p)$ is a non-negative operator. Let $K_e^{dec, gauss}(\cdot) = k_e^{gauss}(\cdot)\Gamma$ be the Gaussian decomposable kernel where K_e and k_e are respectively the signature of K and k on the additive group $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ - i.e. $\delta = x - z$ and $e = 0$. The scalar Gaussian kernel reads for all $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$k_o^{gauss}(\delta) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|\delta\|_2^2\right)$$

where $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}_+$ is an hyperparameter corresponding to the bandwidth of the kernel. The Pontryagin-dual group of $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ is $\widehat{\mathcal{X}} \cong (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ with the pairing

$$(\delta, \omega) = \exp(i\langle \delta, \omega \rangle)$$

where δ and $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$. In this case the Haar measures on \mathcal{X} and $\widehat{\mathcal{X}}$ are in both case the Lebesgue measure. However in order to have the property that $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[\mathcal{F}[f]] = f$ and $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[f] = \mathcal{R}\mathcal{F}[f]$ one must normalize both measures by $\sqrt{2\pi}^{-d}$, i.e. for all $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$,

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{2\pi}^d \mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{Z}) &= \mathbf{Leb}(\mathcal{Z}) \text{ and} \\ \sqrt{2\pi}^d \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\mathcal{Z}) &= \mathbf{Leb}(\mathcal{Z}).\end{aligned}$$

Then the Fourier Transform on $(\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}[f](\omega) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp(-i\langle \delta, \omega \rangle) f(x) d\mathbf{Haar}(\delta) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp(-i\langle \delta, \omega \rangle) f(x) \frac{d\mathbf{Leb}(\delta)}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d}.\end{aligned}$$

Since $k_o^{gauss} \in L^1$ and Γ is bounded, it is possible to apply proposition 3.4, and obtain for all y and $y' \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle y', C^{dec, gauss}(\omega)y \rangle &= \mathcal{F}\left[\langle y', K_o^{dec, gauss}(\cdot)y \rangle\right](\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{F}[k_o^{gauss}](\omega)\langle y', \Gamma y \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$C^{dec, gauss}(\omega) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp\left(-i\langle \omega, x \rangle - \frac{\|\delta\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \frac{d\mathbf{Leb}(\delta)}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \Gamma.$$

Hence

$$C^{dec,gauss}(\omega) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^{\frac{1}{\sigma^2}}d} \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\|\omega\|_2^2\right)}_{\rho(\cdot) = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d)\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \underbrace{\sqrt{2\pi}^d}_{A(\cdot)=\Gamma}.$$

Therefore the canonical decomposition of $C^{dec,gauss}$ is $A^{dec,gauss}(\omega) = \Gamma$ and $\rho^{dec,gauss} = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d)\sqrt{2\pi}^d$, where \mathcal{N} is the Gaussian probability distribution. Note that this decomposition is done with respect to the *normalized* Lebesgue measure $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$, meaning that for all $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathcal{B}(\widehat{\mathcal{X}})$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d)\sqrt{2\pi}^d}(\mathcal{Z}) &= \int_{\mathcal{Z}} \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d)\sqrt{2\pi}^d d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\widehat{\mathcal{X}}} \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d) d\mathbf{Leb}(\omega) \\ &= \mathbf{Pr}_{\mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d)}(\mathcal{Z}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the same decomposition with respect to the usual –non-normalized– Lebesgue measure \mathbf{Leb} yields

$$A^{dec,gauss}(\cdot) = \Gamma \quad (3.11a)$$

$$\rho^{dec,gauss} = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d). \quad (3.11b)$$

If Γ is a trace class operator, applying proposition 3.8 yields the same decomposition since $\mathbf{Tr} \left[K_{\circ}^{dec,gauss}(\circ) \right] = \mathbf{Tr} [\Gamma]$ and

$$\mathbf{Tr} \left[C^{dec,gauss}(\cdot) \right] = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2}I_d)\sqrt{2\pi}^d \mathbf{Tr} [\Gamma].$$

3.2.2.2 Skewed- χ^2 decomposable kernel

The skewed- χ^2 scalar kernel is defined on the LCA group $\mathcal{X} = (-c_k; +\infty)_{k=1}^d$, with $c_k \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and endowed with the group operation \odot . Let $(e_k)_{k=1}^d$ be the standard basis of \mathcal{X} and $_k : x \mapsto \langle x, e_k \rangle$. The operator $\odot : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ is defined by

$$x \odot z = ((x_k + c_k)(z_k + c_k) - c_k)_{k=1}^d.$$

The identity element e is $(1 - c_k)_{k=1}^d$ since $(1 - c) \odot x = x$. Thus the inverse element x^{-1} is $((x_k + c_k)^{-1} - c_k)_{k=1}^d$. The skewed- χ^2 scalar kernel reads

$$k_{1-c}^{skewed}(\delta) = \prod_{k=1}^d \frac{2}{\sqrt{\delta_k + c_k} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta_k + c_k}}}. \quad (3.12)$$

The dual of \mathcal{X} is $\widehat{\mathcal{X}} \cong \mathbb{R}^d$ with the pairing

$$(\delta, \omega) = \prod_{k=1}^d \exp(i \log(\delta_k + c_k)\omega_k).$$

The Haar measure are defined for all $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathcal{B}((-c; +\infty)^d)$ and all $\widehat{\mathcal{Z}} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ by

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{2\pi}^d \mathbf{Haar}(\mathcal{Z}) &= \int_{\mathcal{Z}} \prod_{k=1}^d \frac{1}{z_k + c_k} d\mathbf{Leb}(z) \\ \sqrt{2\pi}^d \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\widehat{\mathcal{Z}}) &= \mathbf{Leb}(\widehat{\mathcal{Z}}).\end{aligned}$$

Thus the Fourier Transform is

$$\mathcal{F}[\widehat{f}](\omega) = \int_{(-c; +\infty)^d} \prod_{k=1}^d \frac{\exp(-i \log(\delta_k + c_k) \omega_k)}{\delta_k + c_k} f(\delta) \frac{d\mathbf{Leb}(\delta)}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d}.$$

Then, applying Fubini's theorem over product space, and the fact that each dimension is independent

$$\mathcal{F}\left[k_{\circ}^{\text{skewed}}\right](\omega) = \prod_{k=1}^d \int_{-c_k}^{+\infty} \frac{2 \exp(-i \log(\delta_k + c_k) \omega_k)}{(\delta_k + c_k) \left(\sqrt{\delta_k + c_k} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta_k + c_k}} \right)} \frac{d\mathbf{Leb}(\delta_k)}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d}.$$

Making the change of variable $t_k = (\delta_k + c_k)^{-1}$ yields

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}\left[k_{\circ}^{\text{skewed}}\right](\omega) &= \prod_{k=1}^d \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{2 \exp(-i t_k \omega_k)}{\exp(\frac{1}{2} t_k) + \exp(-\frac{1}{2} t_k)} \frac{d\mathbf{Leb}(t_k)}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \\ &= \sqrt{2\pi}^d \prod_{k=1}^d \text{sech}(\pi \omega_k).\end{aligned}$$

Since $k_{1-c}^{\text{skewed}} \in L^1$ and Γ is bounded, it is possible to apply proposition 3.4, and obtain

$$\begin{aligned}C^{\text{dec,skewed}}(\omega) &= \mathcal{F}\left[k_{1-c}^{\text{skewed}}\right](\omega) \Gamma \\ &= \underbrace{\sqrt{2\pi}^d \prod_{k=1}^d \text{sech}(\pi \omega_k)}_{\rho(\cdot) = \mathcal{S}(\circ, 2^{-1})^d \sqrt{2\pi}^d} \underbrace{\Gamma}_{A(\cdot)}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence the decomposition with respect to the usual –non-normalized– Lebesgue measure \mathbf{Leb} yields

$$A^{\text{dec,skewed}}(\cdot) = \Gamma \quad (3.13a)$$

$$\rho^{\text{dec,skewed}} = \mathcal{S}(\circ, 2^{-1})^d. \quad (3.13b)$$

3.2.2.3 Curl-free Gaussian kernel

The curl-free Gaussian kernel is defined as $K_{\circ}^{\text{curl,gauss}} = -\nabla \nabla^T k_{\circ}^{\text{gauss}}$. Here $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ so the setting is the same than equation 3.10.

$$\begin{aligned}C^{\text{curl,gauss}}(\omega)_{ij} &= \mathcal{F}\left[K_{1-c}^{\text{curl,gauss}}(\cdot)_{ij}\right](\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{F}\left[-\frac{d^2}{d\delta_i d\delta_j} k_{\circ}^{\text{gauss}}\right](\omega) \\ &= -(i\omega_i)(i\omega_j) \mathcal{F}\left[k_{\circ}^{\text{gauss}}\right](\omega) \\ &= \omega_i \omega_j \mathcal{F}\left[k_{\circ}^{\text{gauss}}\right](\omega) \\ &= \sqrt{2\pi}^d \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \|\omega\|_2^2\right) \sqrt{2\pi}^d \omega_i \omega_j.\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$C^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} d} \exp\left(-\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \|\omega\|_2^2\right) \sqrt{2\pi}^d}_{\mu(\cdot) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{o}, \sigma^{-2} I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d} \underbrace{\omega \omega^\top}_{A(\omega) = \omega \omega^\top}.$$

Here a canonical decomposition is $A^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \omega \omega^\top$ for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\mu^{curl,gauss} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{o}, \sigma^{-2} I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d$ with respect to the normalized Lebesgue measure $d\omega$. Again the decomposition with respect to the usual –non-normalized– Lebesgue measure is for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$A^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \omega \omega^\top \quad (3.14a)$$

$$\mu^{curl,gauss} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{o}, \sigma^{-2} I_d). \quad (3.14b)$$

Notice that in this case $\|A^{curl,gauss}(\cdot)\|_{\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R}^d}$ is not bounded. However applying proposition 3.8 yields a different decomposition where the quantity $\|A_{\text{Tr}}^{curl,gauss}(\cdot)\|_{\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R}^d}$ is bounded. First we have for all $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}_d^*$

$$\frac{d^2}{d\delta_i d\delta_j} k_{\mathbf{o}}^{gauss}(\delta) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\delta\|_2^2\right)}{\sigma^2} \begin{cases} \frac{\delta_i \delta_j}{\sigma^2} & \text{if } i \neq j \\ \left(1 - \frac{\delta_i \delta_j}{\sigma^2}\right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Hence

$$-\nabla \nabla^\top k_{\mathbf{o}}^{gauss}(\delta) = \left(I_d - \frac{\delta \delta^\top}{\sigma^2}\right) \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\delta\|_2^2\right)}{\sigma^2}.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr} \left[K_{\mathbf{o}}^{curl,gauss}(\mathbf{o}) \right] &= \text{Tr} \left[\nabla \nabla^\top k_{\mathbf{o}}^{gauss}(\mathbf{o}) \right] \\ &= d\sigma^{-2} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\text{Tr}[C(\omega)] = \|\omega\|_2^2 \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{o}, \sigma^{-2} I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d.$$

Apply proposition 3.8 to obtain the decomposition $A_{\text{Tr}}^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \omega \omega^\top \|\omega\|_2^{-2}$ and the measure $\mu_{\text{Tr}}^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \sigma^2 d^{-1} \|\omega\|_2^2 \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{o}, \sigma^{-2}) \sqrt{2\pi}^d$ for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with respect to the normalized Lebesgue measure. Therefore the decomposition with respect to the usual non-normalized Lebesgue measure is

$$A_{\text{Tr}}^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \frac{\omega \omega^\top}{\|\omega\|_2^2} \quad (3.15a)$$

$$\mu_{\text{Tr}}^{curl,gauss}(\omega) = \frac{\sigma^2}{d} \|\omega\|_2^2 \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{o}, \sigma^{-2})(\omega). \quad (3.15b)$$

This example also illustrate that there exist many decomposition of $C(\omega)$ into $(A(\omega), \mu(\omega))$.

3.2.2.4 Divergence-free kernel

The divergence-free Gaussian kernel is defined as $K_o^{div,gauss} = (\nabla \nabla^\top - \Delta)k_o^{gauss}$ on the group $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$. The setting is the same than equation 3.10. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} C^{div,gauss}(\omega)_{ij} &= \mathcal{F} \left[K_o^{div,gauss}(\cdot)_{ij} \right] (\omega) \\ &= \mathcal{F} \left[\frac{d^2}{d\delta_i d\delta_j} k_o^{gauss} - \delta_{i=j} \sum_{k=1}^d \frac{d^2}{d\delta_k d\delta_k} k_o^{gauss} \right] (\omega) \\ &= \left(-(\mathrm{i}\omega_i)(\mathrm{i}\omega_j) - \delta_{i=j} \sum_{k=1}^d (\mathrm{i}\omega_k)^2 \right) \mathcal{F} [k_o^{gauss}] \\ &= \left(\delta_{i=j} \sum_{k=1}^d \omega_k^2 - \omega_i \omega_j \right) \mathcal{F} [k_o^{gauss}] (\omega). \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$C^{div,gauss}(\omega) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^{\frac{1}{\sigma^2}}}}_{\rho(\cdot) = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2} I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d} \exp \left(-\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \|\omega\|_2^2 \right) \underbrace{\sqrt{2\pi}^d (I_d \|\omega\|_2^2 - \omega \omega^\top)}_{A(\omega) = I_d \|\omega\|_2^2 - \omega \omega^\top}.$$

Thus the canonical decomposition with respect to the normalized Lebesgue measure is $A^{div,gauss}(\omega) = I_d \|\omega\|_2^2 - \omega \omega^\top$ and the measure

$$\rho^{div,gauss} = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2} I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d.$$

The canonical decomposition with respect to the usual Lebesgue measure is

$$A^{div,gauss}(\omega) = I_d \|\omega\|_2^2 - \omega \omega^\top \quad (3.16a)$$

$$\rho^{div,gauss} = \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2} I_d). \quad (3.16b)$$

To obtain the bounded decomposition, again, apply proposition 3.8. For all $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^d \frac{d^2}{d\delta_k d\delta_k} k_o^{gauss}(\delta) = \left(d - \frac{\|\delta\|_2^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \frac{\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\delta\|_2^2 \right)}{\sigma^2}.$$

Thus overall,

$$K_o^{div,gauss}(\delta) = \left(\frac{\delta \delta^\top}{\sigma^2} + \left((d-1) - \frac{\|\delta\|_2^2}{\sigma^2} \right) I_d \right) \frac{\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\delta\|_2^2 \right)}{\sigma^2}.$$

Eventually $\mathrm{Tr} [K_o^{div,gauss}(\circ)] = \mathrm{Tr} [(\nabla \nabla^\top - \Delta)k_o^{gauss}(\circ)] = d(d-1)\sigma^{-2}$ and $\mathrm{Tr} [C(\omega)] = (d-1)\|\omega\|_2^2 \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^2 I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d$. As a result the decomposition with respect to the normalized Lebesgue measure is $A_{\mathrm{Tr}}^{div,gauss}(\omega) = (I_d - \omega \omega^\top \|\omega\|_2^{-2})$ and $\rho_{\mathrm{Tr}}^{div,gauss}(\omega) = d^{-1} \sigma^2 \|\omega\|_2^2 \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^2 I_d) \sqrt{2\pi}^d$. The decomposition with respect to the normalized Lebesgue measure being

$$A_{\mathrm{Tr}}^{div,gauss}(\omega) = I_d - \frac{\omega \omega^\top}{\|\omega\|_2^2} \quad (3.17a)$$

$$\rho_{\mathrm{Tr}}^{div,gauss} = \frac{\sigma^2}{d} \|\omega\|_2^2 \mathcal{N}(\circ, \sigma^{-2} I_d). \quad (3.17b)$$

3.2.3 Functional Fourier feature map

We introduce a *functional* feature map, we call *Fourier Feature map*, defined by the following proposition as a direct consequence of proposition 3.1.

Proposition 3.6 (Functional Fourier feature map). *Let \mathcal{Y} and \mathcal{Y}' be two Hilbert spaces. If there exist an operator-valued function $B : \hat{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}')$ such that for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$,*

$$\langle y, B(\omega)B(\omega)^*y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle y', A(\omega)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}$$

$\hat{\mu}$ -almost everywhere and $\langle y', A(\cdot)y \rangle \in L^1(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \hat{\mu})$ then the operator Φ_x defined for all y in \mathcal{Y} by

$$(\Phi_x y)(\omega) = (x, \omega)B(\omega)^*y, \quad (3.18)$$

⁶ i.e. it satisfies for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$,
 $\Phi_x^* \Phi_z = K(x, z)$
 where K is a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer [OVK](#).

is a feature map⁶ of some shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel K .

Proof For all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y, \Phi_x^* \Phi_z y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \langle \Phi_x y, \Phi_z y' \rangle_{L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \hat{\mu}; \mathcal{Y}')} \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x, \omega)} \langle y, B(\omega)(z, \omega)B(\omega)^*y' \rangle d\hat{\mu}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega)} \langle y B(\omega)B(\omega)^*y' \rangle d\hat{\mu}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega)} \langle y, A(\omega)y' \rangle d\hat{\mu}(\omega), \end{aligned}$$

which defines a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer according to proposition 3.1 of Carmeli et al. [14]. \square

With this notation we have $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}; L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \hat{\mu}; \mathcal{Y}'))$ such that $\Phi_x \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}; L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \hat{\mu}; \mathcal{Y}'))$ where $\Phi_x := \Phi(x)$.

3.3 building operator-valued random fourier features

As shown in propositions 3.4 and 3.8 it is always possible to find a pair $(A, \widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho})$ from a shift invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer Operator-Valued Kernel K_e such that $\widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$ is a probability measure i.e. $\int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \rho d\widehat{\text{Haar}} = 1$ where ρ is the density of $\widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$ and $K_e(\delta) = \mathbb{E}_{\rho}(\overline{\delta, \omega})A(\omega)$. In order to obtain an approximation of K from a decomposition $(A, \widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho})$ we turn our attention to a Monte-Carlo estimation of the expectations equation 3.9 and equation 3.5 characterizing a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer shift-invariant Operator-Valued Kernel.

However, for efficient computations as motivated in the introduction, we are interested in finding an approximated *feature map* instead of a kernel approximation. Indeed, an approximated feature map will allow to build linear models in regression tasks. The idea is to start from the Monte-Carlo approximation of the expectation and provide a systematic decomposition of the Monte-Carlo sample mean into an approximate feature

map. The following proposition provides the general form of an Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature.

Proposition 3.7 (ORFF). *Let \mathcal{Y} and \mathcal{Y}' be two Hilbert spaces. If one can find $B : \hat{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}')$ and a probability measure $\widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$ on $\mathcal{B}(\hat{\mathcal{X}})$, such that for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and all $y' \in \mathcal{Y}'$, $\langle y, B(\cdot)y' \rangle \in L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho})$, then the operator-valued function given for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ by*

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\Phi}(x)y &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y, \\ \omega_j &\sim \widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho} \text{ independent identically distributed (i.i.d.)}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.19)$$

is an approximated feature map⁷ of a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer Operator-Valued Kernel.

Proof Let $(\omega_j)_{j=1}^D$ be a sequence of $D \in \mathbb{N}^*$ i.i.d. random vectors, each of them following the law $\widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$. For all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \tilde{\Phi}(x)y', \tilde{\Phi}(z)y \rangle &= \frac{1}{D} \left\langle \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y', \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (z, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \langle y', \overline{(x, \omega_j)} B(\omega_j) (z, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \\ &= \left\langle y', \left(\frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega_j)} A(\omega_j) \right) y \right\rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}, \end{aligned}$$

where $A(\omega) = B(\omega)B(\omega)^*$. By assumption $\langle y, A(\cdot)y' \rangle \in L^1(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho})$ and ω_j are i.i.d.. Hence from the strong law of large numbers and proposition 3.1 with $\hat{\mu} = \widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$,

$$\frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega_j)} A(\omega_j) \xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \mathbb{E}_{\rho}[\overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega_j)} A(\omega)] = K_e(x \star z^{-1})$$

where the integral converges in the weak operator topology. \square

Remark 3.2 The approximate feature map proposed in proposition 3.18 has direct link with the functional Fourier feature map defined in proposition 3.17b since we have for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\Phi}(x)y &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y, \quad \omega_j \sim \widehat{\Pr}_{\text{Haar}, \rho} \text{ i.i.d.} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (\Phi_x y)(\omega_j). \end{aligned} \quad (3.20)$$

⁷ i.e. it satisfies $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z) \xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} K(x, z)$ where K is a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer OVK.

Therefore $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ can be seen as an “operator-valued vector” corresponding the “stacking” of D i.i.d. operator-valued random variable $(x, \omega_j)B(\omega_j)^*$. Note that we consider ω to be a *variable* in $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$ while ω_j are $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$ -valued *random variables*. i.e. ω_j are $(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \mathcal{B}(\hat{\mathcal{X}}))$ -valued measurable function and $\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}}$ is the distribution of each ω_j . Let

$$\tilde{\mathcal{H}} = \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \mathcal{Y}',$$

be a Hilbert space. Let $\omega \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}^D$ be a sequence where $\omega = (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D$ (i.e. a realization of the random sequence $(\omega_j)_{j=1}^D, \omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}}$). Notice that for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\tilde{\Phi}(x)y \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ as we can take $g(\omega_j) = (x, \omega_j)B(\omega_j)^*y$. Thus we have for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ and all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\langle y', \tilde{K}(x, z)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle y', \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle \tilde{\Phi}(x)y', \tilde{\Phi}(z)y \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}.$$

Thus $\tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z)$ is a proper random shift-invariant Operator-Valued Kernel as shown in the following proposition.

Proposition 3.8 *Let $\omega \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}^D$. If for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$*

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y', \tilde{K}_e(x \star z^{-1})y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \langle \tilde{\Phi}(x)y', \tilde{\Phi}(z)y \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}} \\ &= \left\langle y', \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \overline{(x \star z^{-1}, \omega_j)B(\omega_j)B(\omega_j)^*y} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}, \end{aligned}$$

for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$, then \tilde{K} is a shift-invariant Operator-Valued Kernel.

Proof Apply proposition 2.15b to $\tilde{\Phi}$ considering the Hilbert space $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ to show that \tilde{K} is an *OVK*. Then proposition 2.17 shows that \tilde{K} is shift-invariant since $\tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{K}_e(x, \star z^{-1})$. \square

We stress out that if $\omega = (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \sim \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}}$ i.i.d. is a *random sequence* then

$$\tilde{K}_e(x \star z^{-1}) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z)$$

is not *sensus stricto* an Operator-Valued Kernel since it is a random variable (and $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ is no longer a Hilbert space, since its inner product is a then random variable and not a scalar). However this is not a problem since any realization of the random sequence ω gives birth to a (different) Operator-Valued Kernel, and $\mathbf{E}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}} \tilde{K}$ is an *OVK*. This illustrated by figure 3.1 where we represented the same function for different realization of $\tilde{K} \approx K$. We generated 250 points equally separated on the segment $(-1; 1)$. We computed the Gram Matrix of the Gaussian decomposable kernel

$$K(x, z)_{ij} = \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2(\sigma \cdot 1)^2(x_i - x_j)^2} \right) \Gamma, \quad \text{for } i, j \in \mathbb{N}_{250}^*.$$

We computed a reference function (black line) defined as $(y_1, y_2)^T = f(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{250} K(x_i, x_j)u_j$ where $u_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ i.i.d.. We took $\Gamma = .5I_2 + .5\mathbf{1}_2$ such that

Figure 3.1: Different realizations of a Gaussian kernel approximation. Top row and bottom row correspond to two different realizations of \tilde{K} , which are *different* Operator-Valued Kernel. However when D tends to infinity, the different realizations of \tilde{K} yield the same **OVK**.

the outputs y_1 and y_2 share some similarities. Then we computed an approximate kernel matrix $\tilde{K} \approx K$ for 25 increasing values of D ranging from 1 to 10^4 . The two graphs on the top row shows that the more the number of features increase the closer the model $\tilde{f}(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{250} \tilde{K}(x_i, x_j) u_j$ is to f . The bottom row shows the same experiment but for a different realization of \tilde{K} . When D is small the curves of the bottom and top rows are very dissimilar –and sine wave like– while they both converge to f when D increase.

In the same way we defined an **ORFF**, we can define an approximate feature operator \tilde{W} which maps $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ onto $\mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}$, where

$$\tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z), \quad \text{for all } x, z \in \mathcal{X}.$$

Definition 3.1 (Random Fourier feature operator). Let $\omega = (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}^D$ and let

$$\tilde{K}_e = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \overline{(\cdot, \omega_j)} B(\omega_j) B(\omega_j)^*.$$

We call random Fourier feature operator the linear application $\tilde{W} : \tilde{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}$ defined as

$$(\tilde{W}\theta)(x) := \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \theta = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \overline{(x, \omega_j)} B(\omega_j) g(\omega_j)$$

where $\theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D g(\omega_j) \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}$. Then,

$$\left(\text{Ker } \tilde{W} \right)^\perp = \overline{\text{span}} \left\{ \tilde{\Phi}(x)y \mid \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \right\} \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{H}}.$$

The random Fourier feature operator is useful to show the relations between the random Fourier feature map with the functional feature map defined in proposition 3.17b. The relationship between the generic feature map (defined for all Operator-Valued Kernel) the functional feature map (defining a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer Operator-Valued Kernel) and the random Fourier feature map is presented in figure 3.2.

Proposition 3.9 For any $g \in \mathcal{H} = L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}}; \mathcal{Y}')$, let

$$\theta := \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D g(\omega_j), \quad \omega_j \sim \Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}} \text{ i.i.d. .}$$

Then

1. $(\tilde{W}\theta)(x) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \theta \xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \Phi_x^* g = (Wg)(x),$
2. $\|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2,$

Proof (of equation 3.20) Since $(\omega_j)_{j=1}^D$ are *i.i.d.* random vectors, for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and for all $y' \in \mathcal{Y}'$, $\langle y, B(\cdot)y' \rangle \in L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho})$ and $g \in L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}; \mathcal{Y}')$, from the strong law of large numbers

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\tilde{W}\theta)(x) &= \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \theta \\
 &= \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \overline{(x, \omega_j)} B(\omega_j) g(\omega_j), \quad \omega_j \sim \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho} \text{ i.i.d.} \\
 &\xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x, \omega)} B(\omega) g(\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}(\omega) \\
 &= (Wg)(x) := \Phi_x^* g. \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof (of equation 3.20) Again, since $(\omega_j)_{j=1}^D$ are *i.i.d.* random vectors and

$$g \in L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}; \mathcal{Y}'),$$

from the strong law of large numbers

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 &= \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \|g(\omega_j)\|_{\mathcal{Y}'}^2, \quad \omega_j \sim \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho} \text{ i.i.d.} \\
 &\xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \|g(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}'}^2 d\widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}(\omega) \\
 &= \|g\|_{L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}; \mathcal{Y}')}^2. \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

We write $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(x) \approx K(x, z)$ when $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(x) \xrightarrow{a.s.} K(x, z)$ in the weak operator topology when D tends to infinity. With mild abuse of notation we say that $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ is an approximate feature map of Φ_x *i.e.* $\tilde{\Phi}(x) \approx \Phi_x$, when for all $y', y \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle y, K(x, z)y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} &= \langle \Phi_x y, \Phi_z y' \rangle_{\mathcal{L}^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}; \mathcal{Y}')} \\
 &\approx \langle \tilde{\Phi}(x)y, \tilde{\Phi}(z)y' \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}} := \langle y, \tilde{K}(x, z)y' \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}
 \end{aligned}$$

where Φ_x is defined in the sense of proposition 3.17b. Then corollary 3.20 exhibit a construction of an ORFF directly from an OVK.

Corollary 3.1 *If $K(x, z)$ is a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel such that for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar})$. Then*

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y, \quad \omega_j \sim \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho} \text{ i.i.d.},$$

where $\langle y, B(\omega)B(\omega)^* y' \rangle \rho(\omega) = \mathcal{F}[\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle](\omega)$, is an approximated feature map of K .

Proof Find $(A, \Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}})$ from proposition 3.4. Then find a decomposition of

$$A(\omega) = B(\omega)B(\omega)^*$$

for $\Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}}$ -almost all ω and apply proposition 3.18. \square

Remark 3.3 We find a decomposition such that $A(\omega_j) = B(\omega_j)B(\omega_j)^*$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}_D^*$ either by exhibiting a closed-form or using a numerical decomposition.

Corollary 3.20 allows us to define equation 3.20 for constructing ORFF from an operator valued kernel.

Algorithm 1: Construction of ORFF from OVK

Input : $K(x, z) = K_e(\delta)$ a \mathcal{Y} -shift-invariant Mercer kernel such that $\forall y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}, \langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d, \text{Haar})$ and D the number of features.

Output : A random feature $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ such that $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z) \approx K(x, z)$

- 1 Define the pairing (x, ω) from the LCA group (\mathcal{X}, \star) ;
- 2 Find a decomposition $(B(\omega), \Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}})$ such that

$$B(\omega)B(\omega)^* \rho(\omega) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[K_e](\omega);$$

- 3 Draw D random vectors $(\omega_j)_{j=1}^D$ i.i.d. from the probability law

$\Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}};$

- 4 **return** $\begin{cases} \tilde{\Phi}(x) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}, \tilde{\mathcal{H}}) & : y \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y; \\ \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \in \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{Y}) & : \theta \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \sum_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j) \theta_j \end{cases}$
-

3.3.1 Examples of Operator Random Fourier Feature maps

We now give two examples of operator-valued random Fourier feature map when. First we introduce the general form of an approximated feature map for a matrix-valued kernel on the additive group $(\mathbb{R}^d, +)$.

Example 3.1 (Matrix-valued kernel on the additive group). In the following let $K(x, z) = K_o(x - z)$ be a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer matrix-valued kernel on $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$, invariant w.r.t. the group operation $+$. Then the function $\tilde{\Phi}$ defined as follow is an Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature of K_o .

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^* y \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^* y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega_j \sim \Pr_{\widehat{\text{Haar}, \rho}} \text{ i.i.d..}$$

for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$.

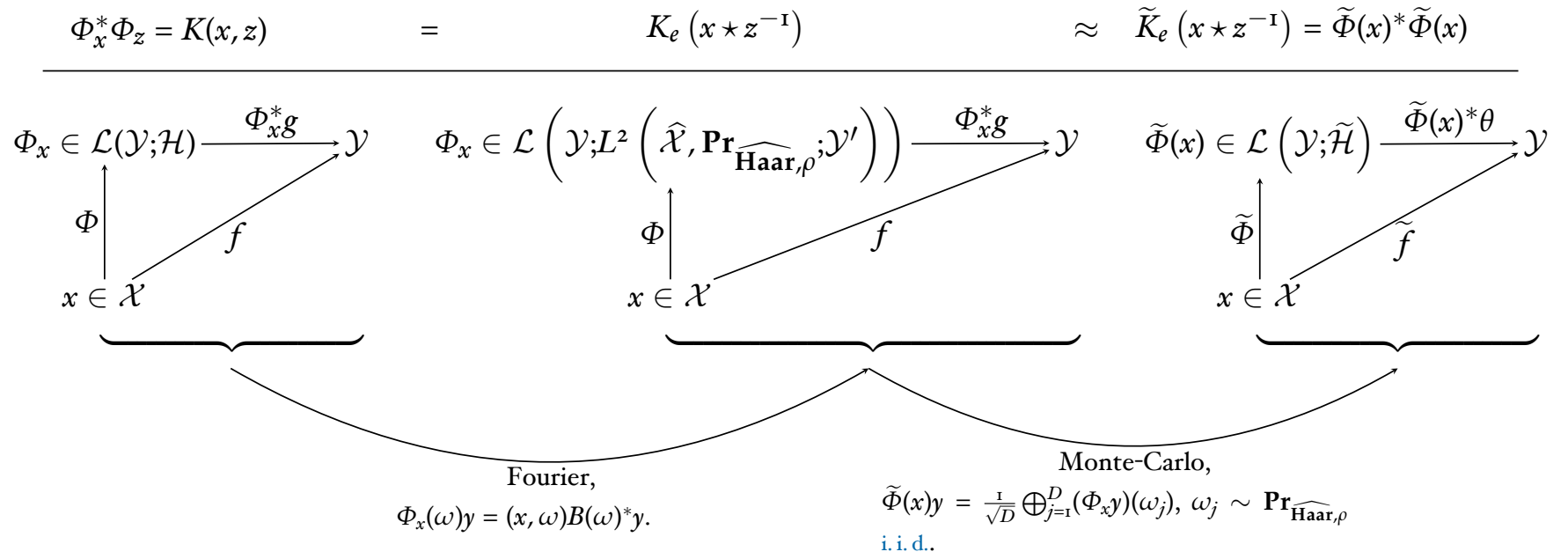


Figure 3.2: Relationships between feature-maps. For any realization of $\omega_j \sim \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}$ i.i.d., $\tilde{\mathcal{H}} = \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \mathcal{Y}'$.

Proof The (Pontryagin) dual of $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$ is $\widehat{\mathcal{X}} \cong \mathbb{R}^d$, and the duality pairing is $(x - z, \omega) = \exp(i\langle x - z, \omega \rangle_2)$. The kernel approximation yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{K}(x, z) &= \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z) \\ &= \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 & \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle z, \omega_j \rangle_2 \\ \sin \langle z, \omega_j \rangle_2 \end{pmatrix} A(\omega_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \cos \langle x - z, \omega_j \rangle_2 A(\omega_j) \\ &\xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} \mathbb{E}_\rho [\cos \langle x - z, \omega \rangle_2 A(\omega)] \end{aligned}$$

in the weak operator topology. Since for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\sin \langle x, \cdot \rangle_2$ is an odd function and $A(\cdot)\rho(\cdot)$ is even,

$$\mathbb{E}_\rho [\cos \langle x - z, \omega \rangle_2 A(\omega)] = \mathbb{E}_\rho [\exp(-i\langle x - z, \omega \rangle_2) A(\omega)] = K(x, z).$$

Hence $\tilde{K}(x, z) \xrightarrow[D \rightarrow \infty]{a.s.} K(x, z)$. \square

In particular we deduce the following features maps for the kernels proposed in equation 3.10.

- For the decomposable gaussian kernel $K_o^{dec, gauss}(\delta) = k_o^{gauss}(\delta)\Gamma$ for all $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^d$, let $BB^* = \Gamma$. A bounded –and unbounded– ORFF map is

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\Phi}(x)y &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B^* y \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B^* y \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (\tilde{\varphi}(x) \otimes B^*)y, \end{aligned}$$

where $\omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_{\mathcal{N}(o, \sigma^{-2}I_d)}$ i.i.d. and $\tilde{\varphi}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \end{pmatrix}$ is a scalar RFF map [41].

- For the curl-free gaussian kernel, $K_o^{curl, gauss} = -\nabla \nabla^\top k_o^{gauss}$ an unbounded ORFF map is

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \omega_j^\top y \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \omega_j^\top y \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.21)$$

$\omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_{\mathcal{N}(o, \sigma^{-2}I_d)}$ i.i.d. and a bounded ORFF map is

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \frac{\omega_j^\top}{\|\omega_j\|} y \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 \frac{\omega_j^\top}{\|\omega_j\|} y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_\rho \text{ i.i.d..}$$

where $\rho(\omega) = \frac{\sigma^2 \|\omega\|^2}{d} \mathcal{N}(o, \sigma^{-2}I_d)(\omega)$ for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

- For the divergence-free gaussian kernel $K_o^{div,gauss}(x, z) = (\nabla \nabla^\top - \Delta I_d) k_o^{gauss}(x, z)$ an unbounded **ORFF** map is

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^\top y \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^\top y \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.22)$$

where $\omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_\rho$ i.i.d. and $B(\omega) = (\|\omega\| I_d - \omega \omega^\top)$ and $\rho = \mathcal{N}(o, \sigma^{-2} I_d)$ for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$. A bounded **ORFF** map is

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^\top y \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^\top y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_\rho \text{ i.i.d.},$$

where $B(\omega) = \left(I_d - \frac{\omega \omega^\top}{\|\omega\|^2} \right)$ and $\rho(\omega) = \frac{\sigma^2 \|\omega\|^2}{d} \mathcal{N}(o, \sigma^{-2} I_d)$ for all $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

The second example extends scalar-valued Random Fourier Features on the skewed multiplicative group –described in ?? and equation 3.11– to the operator-valued case.

Example 3.2 (Matrix-valued kernel on the skewed multiplicative group). *In the following, $K(x, z) = K_{1-c}(x \odot z^{-1})$ is a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer matrix-valued kernel on $\mathcal{X} = (-c; +\infty)^d$ invariant w.r.t. the group operation⁸ \odot . Then the function $\tilde{\Phi}$ defined as follow is an Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature of K_{1-c} .*

⁸ The group operation \odot is defined in equation 3.11.

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle \log(x+c), \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^* y \\ \sin \langle \log(x+c), \omega_j \rangle_2 B(\omega_j)^* y \end{pmatrix},$$

$\omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\text{Haar}}, \rho}$ iid, for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$.

Proof The dual of $\mathcal{X} = (-c; +\infty)^d$ is $\hat{\mathcal{X}} \cong \mathbb{R}^d$, and the duality pairing is $(x \odot z^{-1}, \omega) = \exp(i \langle \log(x \odot z^{-1} + c), \omega \rangle_2)$. Following the proof of example 3.20, we have

$$\tilde{K}(x, z) = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{j=1}^D \cos \left\langle \log \left(\frac{x+c}{z+c} \right), \omega_j \right\rangle_2 A(\omega_j).$$

which converges almost surely to

$$\mathbf{E}_\rho[\exp(-i \langle \log(x \odot z^{-1} + c), \omega \rangle_2) A(\omega)] = \mathbf{E}_\rho[\overline{(\log(x \odot z^{-1} + c), \omega)} A(\omega)] = K(x, z)$$

when D tends to infinity, in the weak operator topology. \square

- For the skewed- χ^2 decomposable kernel defined as $K_{1-c}^{dec,skewed}(\delta) = k_{1-c}^{skewed}(\delta) \Gamma$ for all $\delta \in \mathcal{X}$, let $BB^* = \Gamma$. A bounded –and unbounded– **ORFF** map is

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\Phi}(x)y &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle \log(x+c), \omega_j \rangle_2 B^* y \\ \sin \langle \log(x+c), \omega_j \rangle_2 B^* y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_\rho \text{ i.i.d.} \\ &= (\tilde{\Phi}(x) \otimes B^*)y, \end{aligned}$$

where $\rho = \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{o}, 2^{-1})$ and $\tilde{\Phi}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \oplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle \log(x+c), \omega_j \rangle_2 \\ \sin \langle \log(x+c), \omega_j \rangle_2 \end{pmatrix}$ is a scalar [RFF](#) map [\[28\]](#).

3.3.2 Regularization property

We have shown so far that it is always possible to construct a feature map that allows to approximate a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel. However we could also propose a construction of such map by studying the regularization induced with respect to the Fourier Transform of a target function $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$. In other words, what is the norm in $L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}; \mathcal{Y})$ induced by $\|\cdot\|_K$?

Proposition 3.10 *Let K be a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer Kernel such that for all y, y' in \mathcal{Y} , $\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \in L^1(\mathcal{X}, \mathbf{Haar})$. Then for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$*

$$\|f\|_K^2 = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \frac{\langle \mathcal{F}[f](\omega), A(\omega)^\dagger \mathcal{F}[f](\omega) \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}}{\rho(\omega)} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega). \quad (3.23)$$

where $\langle y', A(\omega)y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} \rho(\omega) := \mathcal{F}[\langle y', K_e(\cdot)y \rangle](\omega)$.

Proof We first show how the Fourier Transform relates to the feature operator. Since \mathcal{H}_K is embed into $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}; \mathcal{Y})$ by mean of the feature operator W , we have for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$, for all $f \in \mathcal{H}$ and for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}[\mathcal{F}^{-1}[f]](x) &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x, \omega)} \mathcal{F}^{-1}[f](\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) = f(x) \\ (Wg)(x) &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \overline{(x, \omega)} \rho(\omega) B(\omega) g(\omega) d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) = f(x). \end{aligned}$$

By injectivity of the Fourier Transform, $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[f](\omega) = \rho(\omega) B(\omega) g(\omega)$. From [proposition 2.15b](#) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_K^2 &= \inf \{ \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \mid \forall g \in \mathcal{H}, \quad Wg = f \} \\ &= \inf \left\{ \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \|g\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2 d\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho} \mid \forall g \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \mathcal{F}^{-1}[f] = \rho(\cdot) B(\cdot) g(\cdot) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

The pseudo inverse of the operator $B(\omega)$ – noted $B(\omega)^\dagger$ – is the unique solution of the system $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[f](\omega) = \rho(\omega) B(\omega) g(\omega)$ [w.r.t.](#) $g(\omega)$ with minimal norm¹. Eventually,

$$\|f\|_K^2 = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \frac{\|B(\omega)^\dagger \mathcal{F}^{-1}[f](\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2}{\rho(\omega)^2} d\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}(\omega)$$

¹ Note that since $B(\omega)$ is bounded the pseudo inverse of $B(\omega)$ is well defined for $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ -almost all ω . However if $B(\omega)$ is infinite dimensional, the pseudo inverse is continuous if and only if $A(\omega)$ has closed range. This is always true if \mathcal{Y} is finite dimensional.

Using the fact that $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[\cdot] = \mathcal{F}\mathcal{R}[\cdot]$ and $\mathcal{F}^2[\cdot] = \mathcal{R}[\cdot]$,

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_K^2 &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \frac{\|\mathcal{R}[B(\cdot)^\dagger \rho(\cdot)](\omega) \mathcal{F}[f](\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2}{\rho(\omega)^2} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \frac{\|B(\omega)^\dagger \rho(\omega) \mathcal{F}[f](\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2}{\rho(\omega)^2} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \frac{\langle B(\omega)^\dagger \mathcal{F}[f](\omega), B(\omega)^\dagger \mathcal{F}[f](\omega) \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}}{\rho(\omega)} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \frac{\langle \mathcal{F}[f](\omega), A(\omega)^\dagger \mathcal{F}[f](\omega) \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}}}{\rho(\omega)} d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

Note that if $K(x, z) = k(x, z)$ is a scalar kernel then for all ω in $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$, $A(\omega) = \mathbf{I}$. Therefore we recover a well known results for kernels that is for any $f \in \mathcal{H}_k$ we have $\|f\|_k = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{X}}} \mathcal{F}[k_e](\omega)^{-1} \mathcal{F}[f](\omega)^2 d\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}(\omega)$ [46, 52, 56]. We also note that the regularization property in \mathcal{H}_K does not depends (as expected) on the decomposition of $A(\omega)$ into $B(\omega)B(\omega)^*$. Therefore the decomposition should be chosen such that it optimizes the computation cost. For instance if $A(\omega) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^p)$ has rank r , one could find an operator $B(\omega) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^p, \mathbb{R}^r)$ such that $A(\omega) = B(\omega)B(\omega)^*$. Moreover, in light of equation 3.23 the regularization property of the kernel with respect to the Fourier Transform, it is also possible to define an approximate feature map of an Operator-Valued Kernel from its regularization properties in the \mathcal{Y} -RKHS as proposed in equation 3.23.

Algorithm 2: Construction of ORFF

Input :

- The pairing (x, ω) of the LCA group (\mathcal{X}, \star) .
- A probability measure $\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}$ with density ρ w.r.t. the haar measure $\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}$ on $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$.
- An operator-valued function $B : \hat{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}')$ such that for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\langle y', B(\cdot)B(\cdot)^*y \rangle \in L^1(\hat{\mathcal{X}}, \mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho})$.
- D the number of features.

Output : A random feature $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ such that $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z) \approx K(x, z)$.

1 Draw D random vectors $(\omega_j)_{j=1}^D$ i.i.d. from the probability law

$\mathbf{Pr}_{\widehat{\mathbf{Haar}}, \rho}$;

2 return $\begin{cases} \tilde{\Phi}(x) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y}, \tilde{\mathcal{H}}) & : y \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^* y; \\ \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \in \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\mathcal{H}}, \mathcal{Y}) & : \theta \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \sum_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j) \theta_j \end{cases}$;

3.4 operator random feature engineering

As in the scalar case, it is possible to construct. We list some examples in the following.

3.4.0.1 Sum of kernels

Proposition 3.11 (Sum of kernels). *Let I be a countable set and let $(K^i)_{i \in I}$ be a family of \mathcal{Y} -reproducing kernels such that for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$*

$$\sum_{i \in I} \langle y, K^i(x, x)y \rangle < \infty.$$

Given $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$, the serie $\sum_{i \in I} K^i(x, z)$ converges to a bounded operator $K(x, z)$ in the strong operator topology, and the map $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$ defined by

$$K(x, z)y = \sum_{i \in I} K^i(x, z)y$$

is a \mathcal{Y} -reproducing kernel. The corresponding space \mathcal{H}_K is embedded in $\oplus_{i \in I} \mathcal{H}_{K^i}$ by means of the feature operator

$$(Wf)(x) = \sum_{i \in I} f_i$$

where $f = \oplus_{i \in I} f_i, f_i \in \mathcal{H}_{K^i}$, and the sum converges in norm. Moreover if each K^i is a Mercer kernel—resp. \mathcal{C}_0 -kernel—and $x \mapsto \sum_{i \in I} \|K^i(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}$ is locally bounded—resp. bounded—then K is Mercer—resp. \mathcal{C}_0 .

3.5 conclusions



4

LEARNING WITH FEATURE MAPS

4.1 learning with orff

We now turn our attention to learning function with an ORFF model that approximate an OVK model.

4.1.1 Warm-up: supervised regression

Let $\mathbf{s} = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^N \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^N$ be a sequence of training samples. Given a local loss function $L : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ such that L is proper, convex and lower semi-continuous in f , we are interested in finding a *vector-valued function* $f_{\mathbf{s}} : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$, that lives in a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS and minimize a tradeoff between a data fitting term L and a regularization term to prevent from overfitting. Namely finding $f_{\mathbf{s}} \in \mathcal{H}_K$ such that

$$f_{\mathbf{s}} = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x_i, f, y_i) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|f\|_K^2, \quad (4.1)$$

⁹ Tychonov regularization.

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_+$ is a regularization⁹ parameter. We call the quantity

$$\mathcal{R}(f) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x_i, f, y_i), \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}_K, \forall \mathbf{s} \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^N.$$

The empirical risk of the model $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$. A common choice of data fitting term for regression is $L : (x_i, f, y_i) \mapsto \|f(x_i) - y_i\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2$. We introduce a corollary from Mazur and Schauder proposed in 1936 (see Górniewicz [22] and Kurdila and Zabrankin [27]) showing that equation 4.1—and equation 4.3—attains a unique minimizer.

Theorem 4.1 (Mazur-Schauder). *Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space and $\mathcal{J} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be a proper, convex, lower semi-continuous and coercive function. Then \mathcal{J} is bounded from below and attains a minimizer. Moreover if \mathcal{J} is strictly convex the minimizer is unique.*

This is easily verified for Ridge regression. Define

$$\mathcal{J}_{\lambda}(f) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|f(x_i) - y_i\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|f\|_K^2, \quad (4.2)$$

¹⁰ Reminder, if $f \in \mathcal{H}_k$, $ev_x : f \mapsto f(x)$ is continuous, see proposition 2.12.

where $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. \mathcal{J}_{λ} is continuous¹⁰ and strictly convex. Additionally \mathcal{J}_{λ} is coercive since $\|f\|_K$ is coercive, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, and all the summands of \mathcal{J}_{λ} are positive. Hence for all positive λ , $f_{\mathbf{s}} = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda}(f)$ exists, is unique and attained.

Remark 4.1 We consider the optimization problem proposed in equation 4.2 where $L : (x_i, f, y_i) \mapsto \|f(x_i) - y_i\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2$. If given a training sample \mathbf{s} , we have

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|y_i\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2 \leq \sigma_y^2,$$

then $\lambda \|f_s\|_K \leq 2\sigma_y^2$. Indeed, since \mathcal{H}_K is a Hilbert space, $\circ \in \mathcal{H}_K$, thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\lambda}{2} \|f_s\|_K^2 &\leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x_i, f_s, y_i) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|f_s\|_K^2 \\ &\leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x_i, \circ, y_i) \leq \sigma_y^2, \quad \text{by optimality of } f_s. \end{aligned}$$

Since for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\|f(x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}} \leq \sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}} \|f\|_K$, the maximum value that the solution $\|f_s(x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}}$ of equation 4.2 can reach is $2\sqrt{\|K(x, x)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}} \frac{\sigma_y^2}{\lambda}$. Thus when solving a Ridge regression problem, given a shift-invariant kernel K_e , one should choose

$$\circ < \lambda \leq 2 \frac{\sqrt{\|K_e(e)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}} \sigma_y^2}{C}.$$

with $C \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ to have a chance to fit all the y_i with norm $\|y_i\|_{\mathcal{Y}} \leq C$ in the train set.

4.1.2 Semi-supervised regression

Regression in \mathcal{Y} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space has been well studied [2, 11, 25, 31, 33, 36, 43], and a cornerstone of learning in \mathcal{Y} -RKHS is the representer theorem¹¹, which allows to replace the search of a minimizer in an infinite dimensional \mathcal{Y} -RKHS by a finite number of parameters $(u_i)_{i=1}^N$, $u_i \in \mathcal{Y}$. We present here the very general form of Minh, Bazzani, and Murino [36]. This framework encompasses Vector-valued Manifold Regularization [6, 10, 35] and Co-regularized Multi-view Learning [9, 42, 45, 48].

¹¹ Sometimes referred to as minimal norm interpolation theorem.

In the following we suppose we are given a cost function $c : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, such that $c(f(x), y)$ returns the error of the prediction $f(x)$ w.r.t. the ground truth y . A loss function of a model f with respect to an example $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ can be naturally defined from a cost function as $L(x, f, y) = c(f(x), y)$. Conceptually the function c evaluate the quality of the prediction versus its ground truth $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ while the loss function L evaluate the quality of the model f at a training point $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. Moreover we suppose that we are given a training sample $\mathbf{u} = (x_i)_{i=N}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{X}^U$ of unlabelled examples. We note $\mathbf{z} \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^N \times \mathcal{X}^U$ the sequence $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{su}$ concatenating both labeled (\mathbf{s}) and unlabelled (\mathbf{u}) training examples.

Theorem 4.2 (Representer [36]). *Let K be a \mathcal{U} -Mercer Operator-Valued Kernel and \mathcal{H}_K its corresponding \mathcal{U} -Reproducing Kernel Hilbert space.*

Let $V : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be a bounded linear operator and let $c : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be a cost function such that $L(x, f, y) = c(Vf(x), y)$ is a proper convex lower semi-continuous function in f for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$.

Eventually let $\lambda_K \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ and $\lambda_M \in \mathbb{R}_+$ be two regularization hyperparameters and $(M_{ik})_{i,k=1}^{N+U}$ be a sequence of data dependent bounded linear operators in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U})$, such that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{N+U} \langle u_i, M_{ik} u_k \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall (u_i)_{i=1}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \text{ and } M_{ik} = M_{ki}^*.$$

The solution $f_z \in \mathcal{H}_K$ of the regularized optimization problem

$$\begin{aligned} f_z = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c(Vf(x_i), y_i) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|f\|_K^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle f(x_i), M_{ik} f(x_k) \rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.3)$$

has the form $f_z = \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K(\cdot, x_j) u_{z,j}$ where $u_{z,j} \in \mathcal{U}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} u_z = \arg \min_{u \in \bigoplus_{i=1}^{N+U} \mathcal{U}} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \sum_{k=1}^{N+U} K(x_i, x_k) u_k, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N+U} u_k^* K(x_i, x_k) u_k \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K(x_i, x_j) u_j, M_{ik} \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K(x_k, x_j) u_j \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

The first representer theorem was first introduced by Wahba [53] in the case where $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$. The extension to an arbitrary Hilbert space \mathcal{Y} has been proved by many authors in different forms [10, 25, 31]. The idea behind the representer theorem is that eventhough we minimize over the whole space \mathcal{H}_K , when $\lambda_K > 0$, the solution of equation 4.3 falls inevitably into the set

$$\mathcal{H}_{K,z} = \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K_{x_j} u_j \mid \forall (u_i)_{i=1}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \right\}.$$

Therefore the result can be expressed as a finite linear combination of basis functions of the form $K(\cdot, x_k)$. Remark that we can perform the kernel expansion of $f_z = \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K(\cdot, x_j) u_{z,j}$ eventhough $\lambda_K = 0$. However f_z is no longer the solution of equation 4.3 over the whole space \mathcal{H}_K but a projection on the subspace $\mathcal{H}_{K,z}$. While this is in general not a problem for practical applications, it might raise issues for further theoretical investigations. In particular, it makes it difficult to perform theoretical comparison the “exact” solution of equation 4.3 with respect to the ORFF approximation solution given in theorem 4.7.

We present here the proof of the generic formulation proposed by Minh, Bazzani, and Murino [36]. In the mean time we clarify some elements of the proof. Indeed the existence of a global minimizer is not trivial and we must invoke the Mazur-Schauder theorem. Moreover the coercivity of the objective function required by the Mazur-Schauder theorem is not obvious when we do not require the cost function to take only positive values. However a corollary of Hahn-Banach theorem linking strong convexity to coercivity gives the solution.

Proof Since $f(x) = K_{x_i}^* f$ (see equation 2.14), the optimization problem reads

$$f_z = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c(VK_{x_i}^* f, y_i) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|f\|_K^2 \\ + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle K_{x_i}^* f, M_{ik} K_{x_k}^* f \rangle_{\mathcal{U}}$$

Let $W_{V,s} : \mathcal{H}_K \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^N \mathcal{Y}$ be a linear operator defined as

$$W_{V,s} f = \bigoplus_{i=1}^N CK_{x_i}^* f,$$

with $VK_{x_i}^* : \mathcal{H}_K \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ and $K_{x_i} V^* : \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_K$. Let $\Upsilon = \bigoplus_{i=1}^N y_i \in \mathcal{Y}^N$. We have

$$\langle \Upsilon, W_{V,s} f \rangle_{\bigoplus_{i=1}^N \mathcal{Y}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle y_i, VK_{x_i}^* f \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle K_{x_i} V^* y_i, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K}.$$

Thus the adjoint operator $W_{V,s}^* : \bigoplus_{i=1}^N \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_K$ is

$$W_{V,s}^* \Upsilon = \sum_{i=1}^N K_{x_i} V^* y_i,$$

and the operator $W_{V,s}^* W_{V,s} : \mathcal{H}_K \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_K$ is

$$W_{V,s}^* W_{V,s} f = \sum_{i=1}^N K_{x_i} V^* VK_{x_i}^* f$$

where $V^* V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U})$. Let

$$\mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(f) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c(Vf(x_i), y_i)}_{=\mathcal{J}_c} + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|f\|_K^2 \\ + \underbrace{\frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle f(x_i), M_{ik} f(x_k) \rangle_{\mathcal{U}}}_{=\mathcal{J}_M}$$

To ensure that \mathcal{J}_{λ_K} has a global minimizer we need the following technical lemma (which is a consequence of the Hahn-Banach theorem for lower-semicontinuous functional, see Kurdila and Zabaranin [27]).

Lemma 4.1 Let \mathcal{J} be a proper, convex, lower semi-continuous functional, defined on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} . If \mathcal{J} is strongly convex, then \mathcal{J} is coercive.

Proof Consider the convex function $G(f) := \mathcal{J}(f) - \lambda \|f\|^2$, for some $\lambda > 0$. Since \mathcal{J} is by assumption proper, lower semi-continuous and strongly convex with parameter λ , G is proper, lower semi-continuous and convex. Thus Hahn-Banach theorem apply, stating that G is bounded by below by an affine functional. I.e. there exists f_0 and $f_1 \in \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$G(f) \geq G(f_0) + \langle f - f_0, f_1 \rangle, \quad \text{for all } f \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Then substitute the definition of G to obtain

$$\mathcal{J}(f) \geq \mathcal{J}(f_\circ) + \lambda (\|f\| - \|f_\circ\|) + \langle f - f_\circ, f_1 \rangle.$$

By the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, $\langle f, f_1 \rangle \geq -\|f\|\|f_1\|$, thus

$$\mathcal{J}(f) \geq \mathcal{J}(f_\circ) + \lambda (\|f\| - \|f_\circ\|) - \|f\|\|f_1\| - \langle f_\circ, f_1 \rangle,$$

which tends to infinity as f tends to infinity. Hence \mathcal{J} is coercive \square

for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$. Since c is proper, lower semi-continuous and convex by assumption, thus the term \mathcal{J}_c is also proper, lower semi-continuous and convex. Moreover the term \mathcal{J}_M is always positive for any $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$ and $\frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|f\|_K^2$ is strongly convex. Thus \mathcal{J}_{λ_K} is strongly convex. Apply lemma 4.4 to obtain the coercivity of \mathcal{J}_{λ_K} , and then theorem 4.1 to show that \mathcal{J}_{λ_K} has a unique minimizer and is attained. Then let

$$\mathcal{H}_{K,Z} = \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K_{x_j} u_j \mid \forall (u_i)_{i=1}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \right\}.$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{K,Z}^\perp \oplus \mathcal{H}_{K,Z} = \mathcal{H}_K. \quad \text{I2}$$

For $f \in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}^\perp$, the operator $W_{V,S}$ satisfies

$$\langle \gamma, W_{V,S} f \rangle_{\oplus_{i=1}^N \mathcal{Y}} = \left\langle \underbrace{f}_{\in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}^\perp}, \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{N+U} K_{x_i} V^* y_i}_{\in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K} = 0$$

for all sequences $(y_i)_{i=1}^N$, since $V^* y_i \in \mathcal{U}$. Hence,

$$(V f(x_i))_{i=1}^N = 0 \quad (4.5)$$

In the same way,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N+U} \langle K_{x_i}^* f, u_i \rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \left\langle \underbrace{f}_{\in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}^\perp}, \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K_{x_j} u_j}_{\in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K} = 0.$$

for all sequences $(u_i)_{i=1}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{U}^{N+U}$. As a result,

$$(f(x_i))_{i=1}^{U+N} = 0. \quad (4.6)$$

Now for an arbitrary $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$, consider the orthogonal decomposition $f = f^\perp + f^\parallel$, where $f^\perp \in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}^\perp$ and $f^\parallel \in \mathcal{H}_{K,Z}$. Then since $\|f^\perp + f^\parallel\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 = \|f^\perp\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 + \|f^\parallel\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2$, equation 4.5 and equation 4.6 shows that if $\lambda_K \geq 0$, clearly then

$$\mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(f) = \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(f^\perp + f^\parallel) \geq \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(f^\parallel)$$

The last inequality holds only when $\|f^\perp\|_{\mathcal{H}_K} = 0$, that is when $f^\perp = 0$. As a result since the minimizer of \mathcal{J}_{λ_K} is unique and attained, it must lie in $\mathcal{H}_{K,Z}$. \square

The representer theorem show that minimizing a functional in a \mathcal{Y} -RKHS yields a solution which depends on all the points in the training set. Assuming that for all $x_i, x \in \mathcal{X}$ and for all $u_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ it takes time $O(P)$, to compute $K(x_i, x)u_i$, making a prediction using the representer theorem take $O(2P)$. Obviously If $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^p$, Then $P = O(p^2)$ thus making a prediction cost $O(2p^2)$ operations.

Instead learning a model f that depends on all the points of the training set, we would like to learn a parametric model of the form $\tilde{f}(x) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \theta$, where θ lives in some redescription space $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$. We are interested in finding a parameter vector θ_z such that

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle \theta, \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.7)$$

Theorem 4.3 (ORFF equivalence). *Let \tilde{K} be an Operator-Valued Kernel such that for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$, $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z) = \tilde{K}(x, z)$ where \tilde{K} is a \mathcal{U} -Mercer OVK and $\mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}$ its corresponding \mathcal{U} -Reproducing kernel Hilbert space.*

Let $V : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be a bounded linear operator and let $c : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a cost function such that $L(x, \tilde{f}, y) = c(V \tilde{f}(x), y)$ is a proper convex lower semi-continuous function in $\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$.

Eventually let $\lambda_K \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ and $\lambda_M \in \mathbb{R}_+$ be two regularization hyperparameters and $(M_{ik})_{i,k=1}^{N+U}$ be a sequence of data dependent bounded linear operators in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U})$, such that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{N+U} \langle u_i, M_{ik} u_k \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall (u_i)_{i=1}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \text{ and } M_{ik} = M_{ki}^*.$$

The solution $\tilde{f}_z \in \mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}$ of the regularized optimization problem

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}_z = \arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{f}(x_i), y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|\tilde{f}\|_{\tilde{K}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle \tilde{f}(x_i), M_{ik} \tilde{f}(x_k) \rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.8)$$

has the form $\tilde{f}_z = \tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^ \theta_z$, where $\theta_z \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp$ and*

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle \theta, \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

Proof Since \tilde{K} is an operator-valued kernel, from theorem 4.2, equation 4.8 has a solution of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}_z &= \sum_{i=1}^{N+U} \tilde{K}(\cdot, x_i) u_i, \quad u_i \in \mathcal{U}, x_i \in \mathcal{X} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^* \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) u_i = \underbrace{\tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^* \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) u_i \right)}_{=\theta \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp \subset \tilde{\mathcal{H}}} \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \left\| \tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^* \theta \right\|_{\tilde{K}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\theta \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp$ and W is an isometry from $(\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp \subset \tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ onto $\mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K}}$, we have $\left\| \tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^* \theta \right\|_{\tilde{K}}^2 = \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}}. \end{aligned}$$

Finding a minimizer θ_z over $(\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp$ is not the same than finding a minimizer over $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$. Although in both cases Mazur-Schauder's theorem guarantee that the respective minimizers are unique, they might not be the same. Since \tilde{W} is bounded, $\text{Ker } \tilde{W}$ is closed, so that we can perform the decomposition $\tilde{\mathcal{H}} = (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp \oplus (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})$. Then clearly by linearity of W and the fact that for all $\theta^\parallel \in \text{Ker } \tilde{W}$, $\tilde{W}\theta^\parallel = 0$, if $\lambda > 0$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}} & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta_z = \arg \min_{\substack{\theta^\perp \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp, \\ \theta^\parallel \in \text{Ker } \tilde{W}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\perp \right) (x) + \underbrace{V \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\parallel \right) (x)}_{=0 \text{ for all } \theta^\parallel}, y_i \right) \\
+ \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \left\| \theta^\perp \right\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 + \underbrace{\frac{\lambda}{2} \left\| \theta^\parallel \right\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2}_{=0 \text{ only if } \theta^\parallel = 0} \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta^\perp, M_{ik} \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\perp \right) (x_k) \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \underbrace{\left(\tilde{W} \theta^\parallel \right) (x_i)}_{=0 \text{ for all } \theta^\parallel}, M_{ik} \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\perp \right) (x_k) \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\perp \right) (x_i), \underbrace{M_{ik} \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\parallel \right) (x_k)}_{=0 \text{ for all } \theta^\parallel} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \underbrace{\left(\tilde{W} \theta^\parallel \right) (x_i)}_{=0 \text{ for all } \theta^\parallel}, \underbrace{M_{ik} \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\parallel \right) (x_k)}_{=0 \text{ for all } \theta^\parallel} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta^\perp \in (\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\perp \right) (x), y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \left\| \theta^\perp \right\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta^\perp, M_{ik} \left(\tilde{W} \theta^\perp \right) (x_k) \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence minimizing over $(\text{Ker } \tilde{W})^\perp$ or $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ is the same when $\lambda_K > 0$. Eventually,

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta_z = \arg \min_{\theta \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \left\| \theta \right\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} \\
= \arg \min_{\theta \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \left\| \theta \right\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\
+ \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \left\langle \theta, \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \right\rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}.
\end{aligned}$$

This shows that when $\lambda_K > 0$ the solution of equation 4.4 with the approximated kernel $K(x, z) \approx \tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z)$ is the same than the solution of equation 4.9 up to a linear transformation. Namely, if u_z is the

solution of equation 4.4, θ_z is the solution of equation 4.9 and $\lambda_K > 0$ we have

$$\theta_z = \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_j) u_z \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}.$$

If $\lambda_K = 0$ we can still find a solution u_z of equation 4.4. By construction of the kernel expansion, we have $u_z \in (\text{Ker } W)^\perp$. However looking at the proof of theorem 4.7 we see that θ_z might *not* belong to $(\text{Ker } W)^\perp$. Then we can compute a residual vector

$$r_z = \theta_z - \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_j) u_z \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}.$$

Then if $r_z = 0$, it means that λ_K is large enough for both representer theorem and ORFF representer theorem to apply. If $r_z \neq 0$ but $\tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^* r_z = 0$ means that both θ_z and $\sum_{j=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_j) u_z$ are in $(\text{Ker } W)^\perp$, thus the representer theorem fails to find the “true” solution over the whole space \mathcal{H}_K but returns a projection onto $\mathcal{H}_{\tilde{K},z}$ of the solution. If $r_z \neq 0$ and $\tilde{\Phi}(\cdot)^* r_z \neq 0$ means that θ_z is *not* in $(\text{Ker } W)^\perp$, thus the ORFF representer theorem fails to apply. This remark is illustrated by figure 4.2.

4.2 solution of the empirical risk minimization

In order to find a solution to equation 4.9, we turn our attention to gradient descent methods. In the following we let

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta) = & \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) + \frac{\lambda_K}{2} \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 \\ & + \frac{\lambda_M}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \langle \theta, \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \rangle_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.10)$$

4.2.1 Gradient methods

Since the solution of equation 4.9 is unique when $\lambda_K > 0$, a sufficient and necessary condition is that the gradient of \mathcal{J}_{λ_K} at the minimizer θ_z is zero. We use the Frechet derivative, the strongest notion of derivative in Banach spaces¹³ [15, 27] which directly generalizes the notion of gradient to Banach spaces. A function $f: \mathcal{H}_0 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ is call Frechet differentiable at $\theta_0 \in \mathcal{H}_0$ if there exist a bounded linear operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_0, \mathcal{H}_1)$ such that

$$\lim_{\|b\|_{\mathcal{H}_0} \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|f(\theta_0 + b) - f(\theta_0) - Ab\|_{\mathcal{H}_1}}{\|b\|_{\mathcal{H}_0}} = 0$$

We write

$$(D_F f)(\theta_0) = \left. \frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\theta_0} = A$$

¹³ Here we view the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} (feature space) as a reflexive Banach space.

and call it Frechet derivative of f with respect to θ at θ_o . With mild abuse of notation we write

$$\left. \frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\theta_o} = \frac{\partial f(\theta_o)}{\partial \theta_o}.$$

The chain rule is valid in this context [27, theorem 4.1.1 page 140]. Namely, let \mathcal{H}_o , \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 be three Hilbert spaces. If a function $f: \mathcal{H}_o \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ is Frechet differentiable at θ and $g: \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$ is Frechet differentiable at $f(\theta)$ then $g \circ f$ is Frechet differentiable at θ and for all $h \in \mathcal{H}_o$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}(g \circ f)(\theta) \circ h = \frac{\partial g(f(\theta))}{\partial f(\theta)} \circ \frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \circ h,$$

or equivalently,

$$D_F(g \circ f)(\theta) \circ h = (D_F g)(f(\theta)) \circ (D_F f)(\theta) \circ h.$$

If $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then $(D_F f)(\theta_o) \in \mathcal{H}^*$ for all $\theta_o \in \mathcal{H}$, and by Riesz's representation theorem we define the gradient of f noted $\nabla_{\theta} f(\theta) \in \mathcal{H}$ as the vector in \mathcal{H} such that

$$\langle \nabla_{\theta} f(\theta), h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = (D_F f)(\theta) \circ h = \frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \circ h.$$

For a function $f: \mathcal{H}_o \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ we note the jacobian of f as $\mathbf{J}_{\theta} f(\theta) = \frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$. In this context if $f: \mathcal{H}_o \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ and $g: \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ the chain rule reads for all $h \in \mathcal{H}_o$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}(g \circ f)(\theta) \circ h = \frac{\partial g(f(\theta))}{\partial f(\theta)} \circ \mathbf{J}_{\theta} f(\theta) \circ h.$$

By Riesz's representation theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \nabla_{\theta}(g \circ f)(\theta), h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_o} &= \langle \nabla_{f(\theta)} g(f(\theta)), \mathbf{J}_{\theta} f(\theta) h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1} \\ &= \langle (\mathbf{J}_{\theta} f(\theta))^* \nabla_{f(\theta)} g(f(\theta)), h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_o} \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\nabla_{\theta}(g \circ f)(\theta) = (\mathbf{J}_{\theta} f(\theta))^* \nabla_{f(\theta)} g(f(\theta)).$$

Thus by linearity and applying the chaine rule to equation 4.9 and since $M_{ik}^* = M_{ki}$ for all $i, k \in \mathbb{N}_{N+U}^*$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta} c \left(V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, y_i \right) &= \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* \left(\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(y, y_i) \right|_{y=V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta} \right)^*, \\ \nabla_{\theta} \left\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta, M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \right\rangle_{\mathcal{U}} &= \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) (M_{ik} + M_{ki}^*) \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta, \\ \nabla_{\theta} \|\theta\|_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}}^2 &= 2\theta. \end{aligned}$$

Provided that $c(y, y_i)$ is Frechet differentiable w.r.t. y , for all y and $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ we have $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta) \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(y, y_i) \Big|_{y=V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta} \right)^* \\ &\quad + \lambda_K \theta + \lambda_M \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \theta \end{aligned}$$

Therefore after factorization, considering $\lambda_K > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(y, y_i) \Big|_{y=V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta} \right)^* \\ &\quad + \lambda_K \left(I_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}} + \frac{\lambda_M}{\lambda_K} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \right) \theta \end{aligned}$$

We note the quantity

$$\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} = I_{\tilde{\mathcal{H}}} + \frac{\lambda_M}{\lambda_K} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^* \in \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\mathcal{H}}) \quad (4.11)$$

so that

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(y, y_i) \Big|_{y=V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta} \right)^* + \lambda_K \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \theta$$

Example 4.1 (Naive close form for the squared error cost). Consider the cost function defined for all $y, y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ by $c(y, y') = \|y - y'\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2$. Then

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} c(y, y_i) \Big|_{y=V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta} \right)^* = 2 \left(V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta - y_i \right).$$

Thus, since the optimal solution $\theta_{\mathbf{z}}$ verifies $\nabla_{\theta_{\mathbf{z}}} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta_{\mathbf{z}}) = 0$ we have

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* \left(V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* \theta_{\mathbf{z}} - y_i \right) + \lambda_K \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \theta_{\mathbf{z}} = 0.$$

Therefore,

$$\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* V\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^* + \lambda_K \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \right) \theta_{\mathbf{z}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^* y_i. \quad (4.12)$$

Suppose that $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$, $V : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ where $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^u$ and for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\tilde{\Phi}(x) : \mathbb{R}^r \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^u$ where all spaces are endowed with the euclidean inner product. From this we can derive equation 4.12 which return the close form solution of equation 4.10 for $c(y, y') = \|y - y'\|_2^2$.

If one consider a Mahalanobis inner product, evaluation of operators has to be done with extra care since the adjoint operator is *not* the classic conjugate transpose of the operator (see remark 4.12). Indeed let $x, z \in \mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{C}^p$ endowed with its standard basis B , and $\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle x, \Sigma^{-1}z \rangle_2$ where Σ is some symmetric positive-definite operator. Some simple calculations shows that given an operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Y})$,

$$(A^*)_{ij} := \langle e_j, \Sigma^{-1}A^*e_i \rangle_2 = \overline{\langle \Sigma^{-1}A^*e_i, e_j \rangle_2} = \overline{\langle e_i, A\Sigma^{-1}e_j \rangle_2} := \overline{(\Sigma A \Sigma^{-1})_{ji}}$$

Thus $A^* = \Sigma^{-1}A^\top \Sigma$.

Remark 4.2 Notice that the evaluation of each operator $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{J}_{\lambda_K}(\theta)$, V^* , $\tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^*$'s and M_{ik} 's depends on the inner product of the respective spaces they are defined. Namely \mathcal{Y} , \mathcal{U} and $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$. For instance if one choose $\tilde{\mathcal{H}} = \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \mathcal{U}'$, $\mathcal{U}' = \mathbb{R}^{u'}$ endowed with the Euclidean inner product $\langle \theta', \theta \rangle_{\mathcal{U}'} = \langle \theta', \theta \rangle_2$, \mathcal{Y} also endowed with the Euclidean inner product and \mathcal{U} endowed with a Mahalanobis inner product $\langle u', u \rangle_{\mathcal{U}} = \langle u', \Sigma^{-1}u \rangle_2$ where Σ is some symmetric positive definite operator, then for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)_{ij} = \langle e_j, \tilde{\Phi}(x)e_i \rangle_2 = \langle e_i, \Sigma^{-1}\Sigma\tilde{\Phi}(x)^*e_j \rangle_2 = (\Sigma\tilde{\Phi}(x)^*)_{ji}.$$

The same Thus $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^* = \Sigma^{-1}\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top$ and $V^* = \Sigma^{-1}V^\top$. then equation 4.12 reads

$$\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) \Sigma^{-1} V^\top V \Sigma^{-1} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^\top + \lambda_K \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \right) \theta_z = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) \Sigma^{-1} V^\top y_i.$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} = I_r + \frac{\lambda_M}{\lambda_K} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \Sigma^{-1} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^\top$.

4.2.2 Complexity analysis

Equation 4.12 constitute our first step toward large-scale learning with operator-valued kernels. We can easily compute the time complexity of equation 4.12 when all the operators act on finite dimensional Hilbert spaces. Suppose that $u = \dim(\mathcal{U}) < +\infty$ and $u' = \dim(\mathcal{U}') < +\infty$ and for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\tilde{\Phi}(x) : \mathcal{U}' \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ where $r = \dim(\tilde{\mathcal{H}}) < +\infty$ is the dimension of the redescription space $\tilde{\mathcal{H}} = \mathbb{R}^r$. Since u , u' , and $r < +\infty$, we view the operators $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$, V and $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)}$ as matrices. Computing V^*V cost $O_t(u^2p)$. Step 1 costs $O_t(r^2u + ru^2)$. Steps 5 (optional) has the same cost except that the sum is done over all pair of $N + U$ points thus it costs $O_t((N + U)^2(r^2u + ru^2))$. Steps 7 costs $O_t(N(ru + up))$. For step 8, the naive inversion of the operator costs $O_t(r^3)$. Eventually the overall complexity of equation 4.12 is

$$O_t \left(ru(r + u) \begin{cases} (N + U)^2 & \text{if } \lambda_M > 0 \\ N & \text{if } \lambda_M = 0 \end{cases} + r^3 + Nu(r + p) \right),$$

Algorithm 3: Naive close form for the squared error cost.**Input :**

- $\mathbf{s} = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^N \in (\mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{R}^p)^N$ a sequence of supervised training points,
- $\mathbf{u} = (x_i)_{i=N+1}^{N+U} \in \mathcal{X}^U$ a sequence of unsupervised training points,
- $\tilde{\Phi}(x_i) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^u, \mathbb{R}^r)$ a feature map defined for all $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$,
- $(M_{ik})_{i,k=1}^{N+U}$ a sequence of data dependent operators (see theorem 4.7),
- $V \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^u, \mathbb{R}^p)$ a combination operator,
- $\lambda_K \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ the Tychonov regularization term,
- $\lambda_M \in \mathbb{R}_+$ the manifold regularization term.

Output : A model

$$b : \begin{cases} \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p \\ x \mapsto \tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta_z, \end{cases}$$

such that θ_z minimize equation 4.10, where $c(y, y') = \|y - y'\|_2^2$ and $\mathbb{R}^u, \mathbb{R}^r$ and \mathbb{R}^p are Hilbert spaces endowed with the euclidean inner product.

```

1  $\mathbf{P} \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^\top V \tilde{\Phi}(x_i)^\top \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^r, \mathbb{R}^r);$ 
2 if  $\lambda_M = 0$  then
3    $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \leftarrow I_r \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^r, \mathbb{R}^r);$ 
4 else
5    $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \leftarrow \left( I_r + \frac{\lambda_M}{\lambda_K} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N+U} \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) M_{ik} \tilde{\Phi}(x_k)^\top \right) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^r, \mathbb{R}^r);$ 
6 end
7  $\mathbf{Y} \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\Phi}(x_i) V^\top y_i \in \mathbb{R}^r;$ 
8  $\theta_z \leftarrow \left( \mathbf{P} + \lambda_K \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{(\lambda_K, \lambda_M)} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^r;$ 
9 return  $b : x \mapsto \tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta_z;$ 
```

while the space complexity is $O_s(r^2)$. This complexity is to compare with the kernelized solution proposed by Minh, Bazzani, and Murino [36]. Let

$$\mathbf{K} : \begin{cases} \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \\ u \mapsto \bigoplus_{i=1}^{N+U} \sum_{j=1}^{N+U} K(x_i, x_j) u_j \end{cases}$$

and

$$\mathbf{M} : \begin{cases} \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \\ u \mapsto \bigoplus_{i=1}^{N+U} \sum_{k=1}^{N+U} M_{ik} u_k. \end{cases}$$

When $\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} K(x_1, x_1) & \dots & K(x_1, x_{N+U}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ K(x_{N+U}, x_1) & \dots & K(x_{N+U}, x_{N+U}) \end{pmatrix}$$

is called the Gram matrix of K . When $\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^p$, \mathbf{K} is a matrix-valued Gram matrix of size $u(N+U) \times u(N+U)$ where each entry $\mathbf{K}_{ij} \in \mathcal{M}_{u,u}(\mathbb{R})$. When $\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^u$, \mathbf{M} can also be seen as a matrix-valued matrix where each entry is $M_{ik} \in \mathcal{M}_{u,u}(\mathbb{R})$. We also introduce the matrices $\mathbf{C}^\top \mathbf{C} := I_{N+U} \otimes (C^\top C)$ and

$$\mathbf{P} : \begin{cases} \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}^{N+U} \\ u \mapsto \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^N u_j \right) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{j=N+1}^{N+U} u_j \circ \right) \end{cases}$$

The operator \mathbf{P} is a projection that sets all the terms u_j , $N < j \leq N+U$ of u to zero. When $\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^u$ it can also be seen as the block matrix of size $u(N+U) \times u(N+U)$ and

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} & & \circ & \dots & \circ \\ & I_u \otimes I_N & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \circ & \dots & \circ \\ \circ & \dots & \circ & \circ & \dots & \circ \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \circ & \dots & \circ & \circ & \dots & \circ \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the equivalent kernelized solution u_z of theorem 4.2 is given by Minh, Bazzani, and Murino [36]

$$\left(\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{C}^\top \mathbf{C} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{K} + \lambda_M \mathbf{M} \mathbf{K} + \lambda_K I_{\bigoplus_{i=1}^{N+U} \mathcal{U}} \right) u_z = \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^N C^\top y_i \right) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{i=N+1}^{N+U} \circ \right).$$

which has time complexity $O_t(((N+U)u)^3 + Nup)$ and space complexity $O_s(((N+U)u)^2)$. Hence equation 4.12 is better than its kernelized counterpart when $r = 2Du'$ is small compared to $(N+U)u$. Roughly speaking it is better to use equation 4.12 when the number of features, r , required is small compared to the number of training points. Notice that computing the data dependent norm (manifold regularization) is expensive. Indeed when $\lambda_M = 0$, equation 4.12 has a linear complexity with respect to the number of supervised training points N while the complexity becomes quadratic in the number of supervised and unsupervised training points $N+U$ when $\lambda_M > 0$. Moreover suppose that $\lambda_M = 0$, $\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^p$ and $\mathcal{U}' = \mathbb{R}^p$ and the combination operator is $V = I_p$. Then the complexity of equation 4.12 boils down to

$$O_t(p^3(ND^2 + D^3)),$$

Figure 4.1: ORFF equivalence theorem. We trained a first model named \tilde{K} following

Figure 4.2: ORFF equivalence theorem. We trained a first model named \tilde{K} following

which is annoying. Indeed learning p independent models with scalar Random Fourier Features would cost $O_t(p(ND^2 + D^3))$, meaning that learning vector-valued function has increase the (expected) complexity from p to p^3 . However in some cases we can drastically reduce the complexity by viewing the feature-maps as linear operators rather than matrices.

4.2.3 Efficient matrix-free operators

When developping equation 4.12 we considered that the feature map $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ was a matrix from \mathbb{R}^u to \mathbb{R}^r for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and therefore that computing $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$ has a time complexity of $O(r^2 u)$. While this holds true in the most generic senario, in many cases the feature maps presents some structure or sparsity allowing to reduce the computational cost of evaluating the feature map. We focus on the Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature given by equation 3.20, developped in ?? and equation 3.20 and treat the decomposable kernel, the curl-free kernel and the divergence-free kernel as an example. We recall that if $\mathcal{U}' = \mathbb{R}^{u'}$ and $\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^u$, then $\hat{\mathcal{H}} = \mathbb{R}^{2Du'}$ thus the Operator-valued Random Fourier Features given in equation 2.19 have the form

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{\Phi}(x) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^u, \mathbb{R}^{2Du'}) & : y \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j)^\top y \\ \tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^{2Du'}, \mathbb{R}^u) & : \theta \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \sum_{j=1}^D (x, \omega_j) B(\omega_j) \theta_j \end{cases},$$

where $\omega_j \sim \widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$ i.i.d. and $B(\omega_j) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^u, \mathbb{R}^{u'})$ for all $\omega_j \in \hat{\mathcal{X}}$. Hence the Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature can be seen as the block matrix

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_1 \rangle B(\omega_1)^\top \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_1 \rangle B(\omega_1)^\top \\ \vdots \\ \cos \langle x, \omega_D \rangle B(\omega_D)^\top \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_D \rangle B(\omega_D)^\top \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}_{2Du', u}(\mathbb{R}), \quad (4.13)$$

$$\omega_j \sim \widehat{\text{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho} \text{ i.i.d.}$$

4.2.4 Case of study: the decomposable kernel

Troughout this section we show how the mathematical formulation relates to a concrete (Python) implementation. We propose a Python implementation based on NumPy [38], SciPy [24] and Scikit-learn [39]. Following equation 4.13, the feature map associated to the decomposable kernel would be

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\langle x, \omega_1 \rangle B^\top \\ \sin\langle x, \omega_1 \rangle B^\top \\ \vdots \\ \cos\langle x, \omega_D \rangle B^\top \\ \sin\langle x, \omega_D \rangle B^\top \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \cos\langle x, \omega_1 \rangle \\ \sin\langle x, \omega_1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \cos\langle x, \omega_D \rangle \\ \sin\langle x, \omega_D \rangle \end{pmatrix}}_{\tilde{\varphi}(x)} \otimes B^\top,$$

$\omega_j \sim \widehat{\mathbf{Pr}}_{\text{Haar}, \rho}$ i.i.d., which would lead to the following naive python implementation for the Gaussian (RBF) kernel of parameter γ , whose associated spectral distribution is $\mathbf{Pr}_\rho = \mathcal{N}(0, 2\gamma)$. **?? PythonTeX ??** Let $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{2Du'}$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}$. With such implementation evaluating a matrix vector product such as $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$ or $\tilde{\Phi}(x)y$ have $O_t(2Du'u)$ time complexity and $O_s(2Du'u)$ of space complexity, which is utterly inefficient... Indeed, recall that if $B \in \mathcal{M}_{u,u'}(\mathbb{R}^{u'})$ is matrix, the operator $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ corresponding to the decomposable kernel is

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\Phi}(x)y &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos\langle x, \omega_j \rangle B^\top y \\ \sin\langle x, \omega_j \rangle B^\top y \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos\langle x, \omega_j \rangle \\ \sin\langle x, \omega_j \rangle \end{pmatrix} \right) \otimes (B^\top y) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \sum_{j=1}^D \cos\langle x, \omega_j \rangle B\theta_j + \sin\langle x, \omega_j \rangle B\theta_j \\ &= B \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \sum_{j=1}^D (\cos\langle x, \omega_j \rangle + \sin\langle x, \omega_j \rangle) \theta_j \right). \end{aligned} \tag{4.14}$$

Which requires only on evaluation of B on y and can be implemented easily in Python thanks to SciPy's LinearOperator. Note that the computation of these expressions can be fully vectorized¹⁴ using the vectorization property of the kronecker product. In the following we consider $\Theta \in \mathcal{M}_{2D,u'}(\mathbb{R})$ and the operator $\mathbf{vec} : \mathcal{M}_{u',2D}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2Du'}$ which turns a matrix into a vector (i.e. $\theta_{u'i+j} = \mathbf{vec}(\Theta_{ij})$, $i \in \mathbb{N}_{2D}$ and $j \in \mathbb{N}_{u'}^*$). Then

$$\left(\tilde{\varphi}(x) \otimes B^\top \right)^\top \theta = \left(\tilde{\varphi}(x)^\top \otimes B \right) \mathbf{vec}(\Theta) = \mathbf{vec}(B\Theta\tilde{\varphi}(x)).$$

which leads us to the following (more efficient) Python implementation **?? PythonTeX ??**

¹⁴ See Walt, Colbert, and Varoquaux [55].

4.2.5 Linear operators in matrix form

For convinience we give the operators corresponding to the decomposable, curl-free and divergence-free kernels in matrix form. Let $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$, $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$, x_i 's in \mathbb{R}^d , $d \leq \infty$ be a sequence of points in \mathbb{R}^d . We note

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_N \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}_{d,N}$$

the data matrix where each column represents a data point¹. Naturally if $\tilde{\Phi}(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{r_1}$ and $\tilde{\varphi}(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{r_2}$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ we define

$$\tilde{\Phi}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\Phi}(x_1) & \dots & \tilde{\Phi}(x_N) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}_{r_1,Nu}$$

and

$$\tilde{\varphi}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\varphi}(x_1) & \dots & \tilde{\varphi}(x_N) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}_{r_2,N}$$

and

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_N \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}_{u,N}.$$

Given a matrix $X \in \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$, we note $X_{\bullet,i}$ the *column* vector corresponding to the i -th column of the matrix X and $X_{i,\bullet}$ the *row* vector (covector) corresponding to the i -th line of the matrix X . With these notations, if $X \in \mathcal{M}_{m,n}$ and $Z \in \mathcal{M}_{n,m'}$, $X_{i,\bullet} Z_{\bullet,j} \in \mathbb{R}$ is the inner product between the i -th row of X and the j -th column of Z and $X_{\bullet,i} Z_{j,\bullet} \in \mathcal{M}_{m,m'}(\mathbb{R})$ is the outer product between the i -th column of X and j -th row of Z .

For the curl-free and divergence-free kernel given in equation 3.20 we recall the unbounded ORFF maps are respectively for all $u \in \mathcal{U}$

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \omega_j^\top u \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \omega_j^\top u \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \bigoplus_{j=1}^D \begin{pmatrix} \cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \left(\|\omega_j\| I_d - \frac{\omega_j \omega_j^\top}{\|\omega_j\|} \right) u \\ \sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \left(\|\omega_j\| I_d - \frac{\omega_j \omega_j^\top}{\|\omega_j\|} \right) u \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\omega_j \sim \text{Pr}_{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{-2} I_d)}$. To avoid complex index notations we decompose the feature maps $\tilde{\Phi}(X)$ into two sub feature maps $\tilde{\Phi}^c$ and $\tilde{\Phi}^s$ corresponding

¹ In many programming language, such as Python, C, C++ or Java each data point is traditionally represented by a row in the data matrix (row major formulation). While this is more natural when parsing a data file, it is less common in mathematical formulations. In this document we adopt the *column major* formulation used by Matlab, Fortran or Julia. Moreover although C++ is commonly row major, some libraries such as Eigen are column major. When dealing with row major formulation, one should “transpose” all the equations given in ??.

to the cosine part and the sine part of each feature map. Namely, for the curl-free kernel, for all $u \in \mathcal{U}$

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)u = \begin{cases} \tilde{\Phi}^c(x)u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \oplus_{j=1}^D \left(\cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \omega_j^\top u \right), \\ \tilde{\Phi}^s(x)u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \oplus_{j=1}^D \left(\sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \omega_j^\top u \right). \end{cases}$$

In the same way, for the divergence-free kernel,

$$\tilde{\Phi}(x)u = \begin{cases} \tilde{\Phi}^c(x)u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \oplus_{j=1}^D \left(\cos \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \left(\|\omega_j\| I_d - \omega_j \omega_j^\top \right) u \right), \\ \tilde{\Phi}^s(x)u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D}} \oplus_{j=1}^D \left(\sin \langle x, \omega_j \rangle \left(\|\omega_j\| I_d - \omega_j \omega_j^\top \right) u \right). \end{cases}$$

We also introduce $\tilde{\Phi}^e$, $e \in \{s, c\}$ which denotes either $\tilde{\Phi}^s$ or $\tilde{\Phi}^c$. This equivalent formulation allows us to keep the notation “lighter” and closer to a proper Python/Matlab implementation with vectorization. With these notations, a summary of efficient linear operators in matrix form is given in table 4.3. The complexity of evaluating all this operators is given in table 4.1.

It is worth mentioning that the same strategy can be applied in many different language. For instance in C++, the library Eigen [23] allows to wrap a sparse matrix with a custom type, where the user overload the transpose and dot product operator (as in Python). Then the custom user operator behaves as a (sparse) matrix –see https://eigen.tuxfamily.org/dox/group__MatrixfreeSolverExample.html. With this implementation the time complexity of $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$ and $\tilde{\Phi}(x)y$ falls down to $O_t(2Du' + u'u)$ and the same holds for space complexity.

Table 4.1: Complexity of efficient linear-operator (in matrix form) for different Feature maps given in table 4.3.

Kernel	$\tilde{\Phi}(X)^*$	$\tilde{\Phi}(X)$
Decomposable	$O((u'r + u'u)N)$	$O((uN + u'u)r)$
Curl-free	$O(uND)$	$O(uND)$
Divergence-free	$O((u^2 + uN)D)$	$O((u^2 + uN)D)$

A quick experiment shows the advantage of seeing the decomposable kernel as a linear operator rather than a matrix. We draw $N = 100$ points $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$ in the interval $(0, 1)^{20}$ and use a decomposable kernel with matrix $\Gamma = BB^\top \in \mathcal{M}_{p,p}(\mathbb{R})$ where $B \in \mathcal{M}_{p,p}(\mathbb{R})$ is a random matrix with coefficients drawn uniformly in $(0, 1)$. We compute $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$ for all x_i 's, where $\theta \in \mathcal{M}_{2D,1}(\mathbb{R})$, $D = 100$, with the implementation EfficientDecomposableGaussianORFF, equation 4.14, and NaiveDecomposableGaussianORFF, equation 4.13. The coefficients of θ were drawn at random uniformly

Table 4.3: Efficient linear-operator (in matrix form) for different Feature maps.

Kernel	$\tilde{\Phi}(X)^*$	$\tilde{\Phi}(X)$
Decomposable ¹	$\Theta \mapsto B(\Theta \tilde{\varphi}(X))$	$U \mapsto B^T(U \tilde{\varphi}(X)^T)$
Gaussian curl-free ²	$\Theta^c, \Theta^s \mapsto \sum_{j=1}^D \omega_j \left(\Theta_j^c \tilde{\varphi}^c(X)_{j\bullet} + \Theta_j^s \tilde{\varphi}^s(X)_{j\bullet} \right)$	$U \mapsto \Theta_j^e = \omega_j^T \left(U \tilde{\varphi}^e(X)_{\bullet j}^T \right)$
Gaussian divergence-free ^{2,3}	$\Theta^c, \Theta^s \mapsto \sum_{j=1}^D \left(B(\omega_j) \Theta_{\bullet j}^c \right) \tilde{\varphi}^c(X)_{j\bullet} + \left(B(\omega_j) \Theta_{\bullet j}^s \right) \tilde{\varphi}^s(X)_{j\bullet}$	$U \mapsto \Theta_{\bullet j}^e = B(\omega_j) \left(U \tilde{\varphi}^e(X)_{\bullet j}^T \right)$

¹ Where $\tilde{\varphi}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\varphi}(X_{\bullet 1}) & \dots & \tilde{\varphi}(X_{\bullet N}) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{M}_{r,N}$ is any design matrix, with scalar feature map $\tilde{\varphi} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$ such that $\tilde{\varphi}(x)^* \tilde{\varphi}(z) = k(x, z) \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $x, z \in \mathcal{X}$. The input data $X \in \mathcal{M}_{d,N}(\mathbb{R})$, the output data $U \in \mathcal{M}_{u,N}(\mathbb{R})$, the parameter matrices Θ^c and $\Theta^s \in \mathcal{M}_{u',r}(\mathbb{R})$ and the decomposable operator $B \in \mathcal{M}_{u,u'}(\mathbb{R})$.

² Where $\tilde{\varphi}^c(X)_{ji} = \cos\langle \omega_j, x_i \rangle$ and $\tilde{\varphi}^s(X)_{ji} = \sin\langle \omega_j, x_i \rangle, j \in \mathbb{N}_D^*$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}_N^*$. Thus $\tilde{\varphi}^c(X) \in \mathcal{M}_{D,N}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\tilde{\varphi}^s(X) \in \mathcal{M}_{D,N}(\mathbb{R})$. The input data $X \in \mathcal{M}_{d,N}(\mathbb{R})$, the output data $U \in \mathcal{M}_{d,N}(\mathbb{R})$, the parameter matrices Θ^c and $\Theta^s \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $\omega_j \sim \mathbf{Pr}_{N(0, \sigma^{-2} I_d)}$ i.i.d. for all $j \in \mathbb{N}_D^*$. Eventually $e \in \{s, c\}$, namely $\Theta^c = \begin{pmatrix} \Theta_1^{e=c} & \dots & \Theta_D^{e=c} \end{pmatrix}^T$ and $\Theta^s = \begin{pmatrix} \Theta_1^{e=s} & \dots & \Theta_D^{e=s} \end{pmatrix}^T$.

³ Here, Θ^c and $\Theta^s \in \mathcal{M}_{d,D}(\mathbb{R})$ thus $\Theta^c = \begin{pmatrix} \Theta_{\bullet 1}^{e=c} & \dots & \Theta_{\bullet D}^{e=c} \end{pmatrix}$, $\Theta^s = \begin{pmatrix} \Theta_{\bullet 1}^{e=s} & \dots & \Theta_{\bullet D}^{e=s} \end{pmatrix}$ and $B(\omega) = \left(\|\omega\|_2 I_d - \frac{\omega \omega^T}{\|\omega\|_2} \right) \in \mathcal{M}_{d,d}$.

in $(0, 1)$. We report the execution time in figure 4.3 for different values of p , $1 \leq p \leq 100$. The left plot report the execution time in seconds

Figure 4.3: Efficient decomposable gaussian ORFF (lower is better).

of the construction of the feature. The middle plot report the execution time of $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$, and the right plot the memory used in bytes to store $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ for all x_i 's. We average the results over ten runs. Full code is given in appendix C.3.

4.2.6 Curl-free kernel

We use the unbounded ORFF map presented in equation 3.21. We draw $N = 1000$ points $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$ in the interval $(0, 1)^p$ and use a curl-free kernel. We compute $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$ for all x_i 's, where $\theta \in \mathcal{M}_{2D,1}(\mathbb{R})$, $D = 500$, with the matrix implementation and the LinearOperator implementation. The coefficients of θ were drawn at random uniformly in $(0, 1)$. We report the execution time in figure 4.4 for different values of p , $1 \leq p \leq 100$. The

Figure 4.4: Efficient curl-free gaussian ORFF (lower is better).

left plot report the execution time in seconds of the construction of the feature. The middle plot report the execution time of $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$, and the right plot the memory used in bytes to store $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ for all x_i 's. We average the results over fifty runs. Full code is given in appendix C.4. As we can see the linear-operator implementation is one order of magnitude slower than its matrix counterpart. However it uses considerably less memory.

4.2.7 Divergence-free kernel

We use the unbounded ORFF map presented in equation 3.22. We draw $N = 100$ points $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$ in the interval $(0, 1)^p$ and use a curl-free kernel. We compute $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$ for all x_i 's, where $\theta \in \mathcal{M}_{2Dp,1}(\mathbb{R})$, $D = 100$, with the matrix implementation and the LinearOperator implementation. The coefficients of θ were drawn at random uniformly in $(0, 1)$. We report the execution time in figure 4.4 for different values of p , $1 \leq p \leq 100$. The

Figure 4.5: Efficient divergence-free gaussian ORFF (lower is better).

left plot report the execution time in seconds of the construction of the feature. The middle plot report the execution time of $\tilde{\Phi}(x)^\top \theta$, and the right plot the memory used in bytes to store $\tilde{\Phi}(x)$ for all x_i 's. We average the results over ten runs. Full code is given in appendix C.5. We draw the same conclusions as the curl-free kernel.

4.2.8 *Iterative (matrix-free) solvers*

We have shown in this section that viewing the Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature maps as linear operator rather than staking matrices leads to more efficient computations.

4.3 experiments

4.4 conclusions



5

CONSISTENCY AND GENERALIZATION

5.1 consistency of the orff estimator

We are now interested on a non-asymptotic analysis of the ORFF approximation of shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernels on LCA group \mathcal{X} endowed with the operation group \star with $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. For a given D , we study how close is the approximation $\tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z)$ to the target kernel $K(x, z)$ for any x, z in \mathcal{X} .

If $A \in \mathcal{L}_+(\mathcal{Y})$ we denote $\|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}$ its operator norm, which amounts the square root of the largest eigenvalue of A . For x and z in some compact $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, we consider: $F(x \star z^{-1}) = \tilde{K}(x, z) - K(x, z)$ and study how the uniform norm

$$\|\tilde{K} - K\|_{\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} = \|F\|_{\infty} = \sup_{(x, z) \in \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \|\tilde{K}(x, z) - K(x, z)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \quad (5.1)$$

behaves according to D . Figure 5.1 empirically shows convergence of three different OVK approximations for x, z sampled from the compact $[-1, 1]^4$ and using an increasing number of sample points D . The log-log plot shows that all three kernels have the same convergence rate, up to a multiplicative factor.

Figure 5.1: Error reconstructing the target operator-valued kernel K with ORFF approximation \tilde{K} for the decomposable, curl-free and divergence-free kernel.

In order to bound the error with high probability, we turn to concentration inequalities devoted to random matrices [7]. Prior to the presentation of general results, we briefly recall the uniform convergence of RFF approximation for a scalar shift invariant kernel on the additive LCA group \mathbb{R}^d and introduce a direct corollary about decomposable shift-invariant OVK on the LCA group $(\mathbb{R}^d, +)$.

5.1.1 Scalar random Fourier Features and decomposable kernel

Rahimi and Recht [41] proved the uniform convergence of Random Fourier Feature (RFF) approximation for a scalar shift invariant kernel on the LCA group \mathbb{R}^d endowed with the group operation $\star = +$. In the case of the shift-invariant decomposable OVK , an upper bound on the error can be directly obtained as a consequence of the result in the scalar case obtained by Rahimi and Recht [41] and other authors [47, 49] since in this case

Theorem 5.1 (Uniform error bound for RFF , Rahimi and Recht [41]). *Let \mathcal{C} be a compact of subset of \mathbb{R}^d of diameter $|\mathcal{C}|$. Let k be a shift invariant kernel, differentiable with a bounded second derivative and μ its normalized Inverse Fourier Transform such that it defines a probability measure. Let D the di-*

mension of the Fourier feature vectors. Then for the mapping $\tilde{\varphi}$ described in Section 1, we have

$$\Pr_{\mu} \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \|\tilde{k} - k\|_{\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \geq \epsilon \right\} \leq 2^8 \left(\frac{d\sigma|\mathcal{C}|}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \exp \left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 D}{4(d+2)} \right)$$

From theorem 5.1, we can deduce the following corollary about the uniform convergence of the ORFF approximation of the decomposable kernel. We recall that for a given pair x, z in \mathcal{C} , $\tilde{K}(x, z) = \tilde{\Phi}(x)^* \tilde{\Phi}(z) = A\tilde{k}(x, z)$ and $K_{\circ}(x - z) = A\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\tilde{k}(x, z)]$.

Corollary 5.1 (Uniform error bound for decomposable ORFF).

Let \mathcal{C} be a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^d of diameter $|\mathcal{C}|$. Let K be a decomposable kernel built from a positive operator A , and k a shift invariant kernel with $\sigma^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \|\omega\|^2 d\mu(\omega) < \infty$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{\mu} \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \|\tilde{K} - K\|_{\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \geq \epsilon \right\} \\ \leq 2^8 \left(\frac{d\sigma\|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}|\mathcal{C}|}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \exp \left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 D}{4\|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}^2(d+2)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Proof The proof directly extends theorem 5.1 given by [41]. Let \tilde{k} the Random Fourier approximation for the scalar-valued kernel k . Since

$$\sup_{(x,z) \in \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \|\tilde{K}(x, z) - K(x, z)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} = \sup_{(x,z) \in \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} |\tilde{K}(x, z) - k(x, z)|,$$

taking $\epsilon' = \|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}\epsilon$ gives the following result for all positive ϵ' :

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{\mu} \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \sup_{x,z \in \mathcal{C}} \|A(\tilde{k}(x, z) - k(x, z))\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \geq \epsilon' \right\} \\ \leq 2^8 \left(\frac{d\sigma\|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}|\mathcal{C}|}{\epsilon'} \right)^2 \exp \left(-\frac{(\epsilon')^2 D}{4\|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}^2(d+2)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

which concludes the proof. \square

Please note that a similar corollary could have been obtained for the recent result of Sutherland and Schneider [49] who refined the bound proposed by Rahimi and Recht by using a Bernstein concentration inequality instead of the Hoeffding inequality. More recently Sriperumbudur and Szabo [47] showed an optimal bound for Random Fourier Feature,

5.1.2 Uniform convergence of ORFF approximation on LCA groups

In this analysis, we assume that \mathcal{Y} is finite dimensional, in remark 5.1, we discuss how the proof could be extended to infinite dimensional output Hilbert spaces. We propose a bound for Operator-valued Random Fourier Feature approximation in the general case. It relies on two main ideas:

1. matrix-Bernstein concentration inequality for random matrices need to be used instead of concentration inequality for scalar random variables,
2. a general theorem valid for random matrices with bounded norms such as decomposable kernel [ORFF](#) approximation as well as unbounded norms such as the [ORFF](#) approximation we proposed for curl and divergence-free kernels that behave as subexponential random variables.

Before introducing the new theorem, we give the definition of the Orlicz norm which gives a proxy-bound on the norm of subexponential random variables.

Definition 5.1 (Orlicz norm [\[51\]](#)). Let $\psi : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ be a non-decreasing convex function with $\psi(0) = 0$. For a random variable X on a measured space $(\Omega, \mathcal{T}(\Omega), \mu)$, the quantity

$$\|X\|_\psi = \inf \{ C > 0 \mid \mathbf{E}_\mu[\psi(|X|/C)] \leq 1 \}.$$

is called the Orlicz norm of X .

Here, the function ψ is chosen as $\psi(u) = \psi_\alpha(u)$ where $\psi_\alpha(u) := e^{u^\alpha} - 1$. When $\alpha = 1$, a random variable with finite Orlicz norm is called a *subexponential variable* because its tails decrease at an exponential rate. Let X be a Hermitian random operator. We call *variance* of X the quantity $\mathbf{Var}_\mu[X] = \mathbf{E}_\mu[X - \mathbf{E}_\mu[X]]^2$. With this convention if X is a $p \times p$ Hermitian matrix, $\mathbf{Var}_\mu[X]_{\ell m} = \sum_{r=1}^p \mathbf{Cov}_\mu[X_{\ell r}, X_{r m}]$.

Theorem 5.2 Assume K is a shift-invariant \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel on \mathcal{C} a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^d of diameter $|\mathcal{C}|$, where \mathbb{R}^d is seen as an Abelian group endowed with the group operation \star . Suppose that the decomposition $\mu(\cdot)A(\cdot)$ is equal to the Inverse Fourier Transform of the kernel's signature^{[15](#)}. Let \tilde{K} be the [ORFF](#) approximation^{[16](#)} of K , K_\circ be the kernel signature of K . Define the constants $b, \sigma_p^2, m \in \mathbb{R}_+$ as

1. $b = D \|\mathbf{Var}_\mu[\tilde{K}]\|_{\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} < \infty$,
2. $\sigma_p^2 = \mathbf{E}_\mu \left[H_\omega^2 \|A(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}^2 \right] < \infty$,
3. $m = 4 \left(\left\| \|A(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \right\|_{\psi_1} + \|K\|_{\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \right) < \infty$,

where $\omega \sim \mu$. Then for all ϵ in \mathbb{R}_+ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_\mu \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \|\tilde{K} - K\|_{\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}} \geq \epsilon \right\} \\ & \leq C_{d,p} \left(\frac{\sigma_p |\mathcal{C}|}{\epsilon} \right)^{\frac{2}{1+2/d}} \begin{cases} \exp \left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 D}{8(d+2)(b + \frac{\epsilon \bar{u}}{6})} \right) & \text{if } \epsilon \bar{u} \leq 2(e-1)b \\ \exp \left(-\frac{\epsilon D}{(d+2)(e-1)\bar{u}} \right) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where $\bar{u} = 2m \log \left(2^{\frac{3}{2}} \left(\frac{m}{b} \right)^2 \right)$ and $C_{d,p} = p \left(\left(\frac{d}{2} \right)^{\frac{-d}{d+2}} + \left(\frac{d}{2} \right)^{\frac{2}{d+2}} \right) 2^{\frac{6d+2}{d+2}}$ and H_ω is the Lipschitz constant^{[17](#)} of $h_\omega(x)$.

¹⁵ in the sense of proposition [3.3](#)

¹⁶ \tilde{K} depends on D .

¹⁷ Remember that $\exp(ih_\omega(x)) = (x, \omega)$, so H_ω depends on the group operation.

Sketch of proof In the following, let $F(\delta) = F(x \star z^{-1}) = \tilde{K}(x, z) - K(x, z)$. Let $\mathcal{C}_\Delta = \{x \star z^{-1} \mid x, z \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Since \mathcal{C} is supposed compact, so is \mathcal{C}_Δ . Its diameter is at most $2|\mathcal{C}|$ where $|\mathcal{C}|$ is the diameter of \mathcal{C} . It is then possible to find an ϵ -net covering \mathcal{C}_Δ with at most $T = (4|\mathcal{C}|/r)^d$ balls of radius r . We call δ_i for $i \in \{1, \dots, T\}$ the center of the i -th ball, called anchors of the ϵ -net. Denote L_F the Lipschitz constant of F . We introduce the following lemma proved in [41].

Lemma 5.1

To apply the lemma, we must check assumptions (H1) and (H2).

Sketch of proof (H1) We bound the Lipschitz constant by noticing that F is differentiable, so

$$L_F = \left\| \frac{\partial F}{\partial \delta}(\delta^*) \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \quad \text{where } \delta^* = \arg \max_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}_\Delta} \left\| \frac{\partial F}{\partial \delta}(\delta) \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}.$$

Using Jensen's inequality and applying Markov's inequality yields

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_\mu \left\{ \omega \mid L_F \geq \frac{\epsilon}{2r} \right\} &= \Pr_\mu \left\{ \omega \mid L_F^2 \geq \left(\frac{\epsilon}{2r} \right)^2 \right\} \\ &\leq \mathbf{E}_\mu \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \delta} h_\omega(\delta) \|A(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}^2 \right] \left(\frac{2r}{\epsilon} \right)^2. \end{aligned}$$

We set $\sigma_p^2 = \mathbf{E}_\mu [H_\omega^2 \|A(\omega)\|_2^2]$ where H_ω is the Lipschitz-constant of h_ω and suppose its existence. \square

Sketch of proof (H2) To obtain a bound on the anchors we apply theorem 4 of Koltchinskii [26]. We suppose the existence of the two constants

$$b = \sup_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}_\Delta} D \|\mathbf{Var}_\mu [\tilde{K}_e(\delta)]\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}$$

and

$$\bar{u} = \log \left(2 \left(\frac{m}{b} \right)^2 + 1 \right),$$

where $m = 4 \left(\left\| \|A(\omega)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \right\|_{\psi_1} + \sup_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}_\Delta} \|K_e(\delta)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \right)$ and $\omega \sim \mu$. Then $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, T\}$,

$$\Pr_\mu \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \|F(\delta_i)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \geq \epsilon \right\} \leq 2p \begin{cases} \exp \left(-\frac{D\epsilon^2}{4b+2\epsilon\bar{u}/3} \right) & \text{if } \epsilon\bar{u} \leq 2(e-1)b \\ \exp \left(-\frac{D\epsilon}{(e-1)\bar{u}} \right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Combining (H1) and (H2). Now applying the lemma and taking the union bound over the centers of the ϵ -net yields

$$\Pr_\mu \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \sup_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}_\Delta} \|F(\delta)\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq \epsilon \right\} \geq 1 - \kappa_1 r^{-d} - \kappa_2 r^2,$$

with $\kappa_2 = 4\sigma_p^2\epsilon^{-2}$ and

$$\kappa_1 = 2p(4|\mathcal{C}|)^d \begin{cases} \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 D}{16(b+\frac{\epsilon}{6}\bar{u})}\right) & \text{if } \epsilon\bar{u} \leq 2(e-1)b \\ \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon D}{2(e-1)\bar{u}}\right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We choose r such that $d\kappa_1 r^{-d-1} - 2\kappa_2 r = 0$, i.e. $r = \left(\frac{d\kappa_1}{2\kappa_2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+2}}$. The bound becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_\mu \left\{ (\omega_j)_{j=1}^D \mid \sup_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}_\Delta} \|F(\delta)\| \geq \epsilon \right\} \\ & \leq pC'_d 2^{\frac{6d+2}{d+2}} \left(\frac{\sigma_p|\mathcal{C}|}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{2}{1+2/d}} \begin{cases} \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon^2}{8(d+2)(b+\frac{\epsilon}{6}\bar{u})}\right) & \text{if } \epsilon\bar{u} \leq 2(e-1)b \\ \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon}{(d+2)(e-1)\bar{u}}\right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where $C'_d = \left(\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^{\frac{-d}{d+2}} + \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^{\frac{2}{d+2}}\right)$. Conclude by taking $C_{d,p} = pC'_d 2^{\frac{6d+2}{d+2}}$. \square

We give a comprehensive full proof of the theorem in the appendix. It follows the usual scheme derived in Rahimi and Recht [41] and Sutherland and Schneider [49] and involves Bernstein concentration inequality for unbounded symmetric matrices (theorem 3.3 in the supplements).

Remark 5.1 (dealing with infinite dimensional operators). We studied the concentration of ORFFs under the assumption that \mathcal{Y} is finite dimensional. This assumption is required in the proof when bounding the Lipschitz constant. The proof require the quantity \tilde{K} to be smooth enough to be able to interchange integral and derivative such that $\mathbf{E} \frac{\partial}{\partial \delta} \tilde{K} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \delta} \mathbf{E} \tilde{K}$. In the proof we show, component-wise, that that is K is twice differentiable, then the interchange is possible. To do the same for infinite dimensional operator-valued kernels, one could use Hille's theorem¹⁸ and could deduce the necessary condition on K to allow the interchange. One could also deduced a bound on the Lipchitz constant without computing the derivative of $\tilde{K} - K$. Additionally one should study whether Koltchinskii [26, theorem 4] could apply to infinite dimensional operators and under which assumption.

¹⁸ See <http://fa.its.tudelft.nl/~neerven/publications/papers/ISEM.pdf>.

5.1.3 Variance of the ORFF approximation

We now provide a bound on the norm of the variance of \tilde{K} , required to apply theorem 5.1.

Proposition 5.1 (Bounding the variance of \tilde{K}). Let K be a \mathcal{Y} -Mercer kernel on \mathcal{C} , a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^d . K is supposed to be translation invariant for the group operation \star on \mathbb{R}^d . Let \tilde{K} be the ORFF approximation of K (as defined in ??) and $\mathcal{C}_\Delta = \{x \star z^{-1} \mid (x, z) \in \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}\}$. Then for all δ in \mathcal{C}_Δ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \|\mathbf{Var}_\mu [\tilde{K}_\epsilon(\delta)]\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \\ & \leq \frac{\|(K_\epsilon(2\delta) + K_\epsilon(0))\mathbf{E}_\mu[A(\omega)] - 2K_\epsilon(\delta)^2\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} + 2\|\mathbf{Var}_\mu[A(\omega)]\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}}}{2D}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof It relies on the *i.i.d.* property of the random vectors ω_j and trigonometric identities (see the proof in ?? of the supplementary material). \square

An empirical illustration of these bounds is shown in ??. We generated a random point in $[-1, 1]^4$ and computed the empirical variance of the estimator (blue line). We also plotted (red line) the theoretical bound in proposition 5.1.

5.1.4 Application on decomposable, curl-free and div-free OVKs

First, the two following example discuss the form of H_ω for the additive group and the skewed-multiplicative group.

Example 5.1 (Additive group). On the additive group, $h_\omega(\delta) = \langle \omega, \delta \rangle$. Hence $H_\omega = \|\omega\|_2$.

Example 5.2 (Skewed-multiplicative group). On the skewed multiplicative group, $h_\omega(\delta) = \langle \omega, \log(\delta + c) \rangle$. Therefore

$$\sup_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}} \|\nabla h_\omega(\delta)\| = \sup_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}} \|\omega / (\delta + c)\|_2.$$

Eventually \mathcal{C} is compact and finite dimensional thus \mathcal{C} is closed and bounded. Thus $H_\omega = \|\omega\|_2 / (\min_{\delta \in \mathcal{C}} \|\delta\|_2 + c)$.

Now we compute upper bounds on the norm of the variance and Orlicz norm of the three ORFFs we took as examples.

decomposable kernel: notice that in the case of the Gaussian decomposable kernel, i.e. $A(\omega) = A$, $e = 0$, $K_o(\delta) = Ak_o(\delta)$, $k_o(\delta) \geq 0$ and $k_o(\delta) = 1$, then we have

$$D \|\text{Var}_\mu [\tilde{K}_o(\delta)]\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq (1 + k_o(2\delta)) \|A\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} / 2 + k_o(\delta)^2.$$

curl-free and div-free kernels: recall that in this case $p = d$. For the (Gaussian) curl-free kernel, $A(\omega) = \omega\omega^*$ where $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^d \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^{-2}I_d)$ thus $E_\mu[A(\omega)] = I_d/\sigma^2$ and $\text{Var}_\mu[A(\omega)] = (d+1)I_d/\sigma^4$. Hence,

$$D \|\text{Var}_\mu [\tilde{K}_o(\delta)]\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left\| \frac{1}{\sigma^2} K_o(2\delta) - 2K_o(\delta)^2 \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} + \frac{(d+1)}{\sigma^4}.$$

This bound is illustrated by figure 5.1 B, for a given datapoint. Eventually for the Gaussian divergence-free kernel, $A(\omega) = I\|\omega\|_2^2 - \omega\omega^*$, thus $E_\mu[A(\omega)] = I_d(d-1)/\sigma^2$ and $\text{Var}_\mu[A(\omega)] = d(4d-3)I_d/\sigma^4$. Hence,

$$D \|\text{Var}_\mu [\tilde{K}_o(\delta)]\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left\| \frac{(d-1)}{\sigma^2} K_o(2\delta) - 2K_o(\delta)^2 \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} + \frac{d(4d-3)}{\sigma^4}.$$

Eventually, we ensure that the random variable $\|A(\omega)\|$ has a finite Orlicz norm with $\psi = \psi_1$ in these three cases.

computing the orlicz norm: for a random variable with strictly monotonic moment generating function (MGF), one can characterize its inverse ψ_1 Orlicz norm by taking the functional inverse of the MGF evaluated at 2 (see ?? of the supplementary material). In other words $\|X\|_{\psi_1}^{-1} = \text{MGF}(x)_X^{-1}(2)$. For the Gaussian curl-free and divergence-free kernel,

$$\left\| A^{div}(\omega) \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} = \left\| A^{curl}(\omega) \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} = \|\omega\|_2^2,$$

where $\omega \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, I_d/\sigma^2)$, hence $\|A(\omega)\|_2 \sim \Gamma(p/2, 2/\sigma^2)$. The MGF of this gamma distribution is $\text{MGF}(x)(t) = (1 - 2t/\sigma^2)^{-(p/2)}$. Eventually

$$\left\| \left\| A^{div}(\omega) \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \right\|_{\psi_1}^{-1} = \left\| \left\| A^{curl}(\omega) \right\|_{\mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}} \right\|_{\psi_1}^{-1} = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \left(1 - 4^{-\frac{1}{p}} \right).$$

6

APPLICATIONS

6.1 introduction

6.2 time series modelling

6.3 functional data analysis

6.3.0.1 *One class SVM revisited*

6.3.0.2 *Many quantile regression*

6.4 neural networks, deep learning

6.5 operalib

6.6 conclusions



Part III

FINAL WORDS AND PERSPECTIVES

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7

CONCLUSIONS

Part IV

APPENDIX



OPERATOR-VALUED FUNCTIONS AND
INTEGRATION

B

PROOFS OF THEOREMS

b.1 proof of



RELEVANT PIECE OF CODE

c.1 python code for figure 1

?? PythonTeX??

c.2 python code for figure 3

?? PythonTeX??

c.3 python code for figure 4

?? PythonTeX??

c.4 python code for figure 5

?? PythonTeX??

c.5 python code for figure 6

?? PythonTeX??

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DECLARATION

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Large-Scale Learning On Structured Input-Output Data With Operator-Valued Kernels

Keywords: Operator-Valued Kernels, Large Scale Learning, Random Fourier Features

Abstract: Many problems in Machine Learning can be cast into vector-valued functions approximation. Operator-Valued Kernels *Operator-Valued Kernels* and vector-valued Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces provide a theoretical and practical framework to address that issue, extending nicely the well-known setting of scalar-valued kernels. However large scale applications are usually not affordable with these tools that require an important computational power along with a large memory capacity. In this thesis, we propose and study scalable methods to perform regression with *Operator-Valued Kernels*. To achieve this goal, we extend Random Fourier Features, an approximation technique originally introduced for scalar-valued kernels, to *Operator-Valued Kernels*. The idea is to take advantage of an approximated operator-valued feature map in order to come up with a linear model in a finite-dimensional space.

This thesis is structured as follows. First we develop a general framework devoted to the approximation of shift-invariant Mercer kernels on Locally Compact Abelian groups and study their properties along with the complexity of the algorithms based on them. Second we show theoretical guarantees by bounding the error due to the approximation, with high probability. Third, we study various applications of Operator Random Fourier Features (ORFF) to different tasks of Machine learning such as multi-class classification, multi-task learning, time series modeling, functional regression and anomaly detection. We also compare the proposed framework with other state of the art methods. Fourth, we conclude by drawing short-term and mid-term perspectives of this work.

Régression À Noyaux À Valeurs Opérateurs Pour Grands Ensembles De Données

Mots clefs: Noyaux à Valeurs Opérateurs, Passage à l'échelle, Random Fourier Features

Résumé: De nombreuses problématiques d'apprentissage artificiel peuvent être modélisées grâce à des fonctions à valeurs vectorielles. Les *noyaux à valeurs opérateurs* et leur espace de Hilbert à noyaux reproduisant à valeurs vectorielles associés donnent un cadre théorique et pratique pour apprendre de telles fonctions, étendant la littérature existante des noyaux scalaires. Cependant, lorsque les données sont nombreuses, ces méthodes sont peu utilisables, ne passant pas à l'échelle, car elle nécessite une quantité de mémoire évoluant quadratiquement et un temps de calcul évoluant cubiquement vis à vis du nombre de données, dans leur implémentation la plus naïve. Afin de faire passer les *noyaux à valeurs opérateurs* à l'échelle, nous étendons une technique d'approximation stochastique introduite dans le cadre des noyaux scalaires. L'idée est de tirer parti d'une fonction de redescription caractérisant le *noyau à valeurs opérateurs*, dont les fonctions associées vivent dans un espace de dimension infinie,

afin d'obtenir un problème d'optimisation linéaire de dimension finie.

Dans cette thèse nous développons dans un premier temps un cadre général afin de permettre l'approximation de noyaux de Mercer définis sur des groupes commutatifs localement compacts et étudions leurs propriétés ainsi que la complexité des algorithmes en découlant. Dans un second temps nous montrons des garanties théoriques en bornant l'erreur comise par l'approximation, avec grande probabilité. Enfin, nous mettons en évidence plusieurs applications des Représentations Opérateurs Aléatoires de Fourier (ORFF) telles que la classification multiple, l'apprentissage multi-tâche, la modélisation de séries temporelles, la régression fonctionnelle et la détection d'anomalies. Nous comparons également ce cadre avec d'autres méthodes de la littérature et concluons par des perspectives à moyen et long terme.