# Self-study: Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space

# Tianpei Xie

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# 1 Hilbert Space and Functional Analysis Basis

### 1.1 Complete Metric Space

- **Definition** A *metric space* is a set M and a real-valued function  $d(\cdot, \cdot): M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$  which satisfies:
  - 1. (Non-Negativity)  $d(x,y) \ge 0$
  - 2. (**Definiteness**) d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
  - 3. (**Symmetric**) d(x,y) = d(y,x)
  - 4. (Triangle Inequality)  $d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$

The function d is called a <u>metric</u> on M. The metric space M equipped with metric d is denoted as (M, d).

• Definition (Cauchy Sequence)

A sequence of elements  $\{x_n\}$  of a metric space (M, d) is called a <u>Cauchy sequence</u> if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , for all  $n, m \geq N$ ,  $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$ .

• Proposition 1.1 Any convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence.

Note that this is the direct result of triangle inequality property of a metric.

 $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{Definition} \ \ (\textbf{\textit{Complete Metric Space}}) \\$ 

A metric space in which all Cauchy sequences converge is called complete.

• Definition (*Denseness*)

A set B in a metric space M is called <u>dense</u> if every  $m \in M$  is a limit of elements in B.

• Definition (Continuity)

A function  $f:(X,d)\to (Y,p)$  is called **continuous** at x if  $f(x_n)\stackrel{p}{\to} f(x)$  whenever  $x_n\stackrel{d}{\to} x$ .

• Definition (*Isometry*)

A **bijection**  $h:(X,d)\to (Y,p)$  which **preserves** the metric, that is,

$$p(h(x), h(y)) = d(x, y)$$

is called an <u>isometry</u>. It is automatically *continuous*. (X,d) and (Y,p) are said to be **isometric** if such an isometry exists.

• Definition (Normed Linear Space)

A <u>normed linear space</u> is a vector space, V, over  $\mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) and a function,  $\|\cdot\|:V\to\mathbb{R}$  which satisfies:

- 1. (*Non-Negativity*):  $||v|| \ge 0$  for all v in V;
- 2. (**Positive Definiteness**): ||v|| = 0 if and only if v = 0;
- 3. (Absolute Homogeneity)  $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$  for all v in V and  $\alpha$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ )
- 4. (Subadditivity / Triangle Inequality)  $||v+w|| \le ||v|| + ||w||$  for all v and w in V

We denote the normed linear space as  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ .

## 1.2 Hilbert Space

- **Definition** An inner product space (pre-Hilbert space) X is an abstract vector space possessing the structure of an inner product that allows length and angle to be measured. An inner product on X is a mapping on  $X \times X$  to a scale field E of X; that is, for every pair  $x, y \in X$ , the associated scalar in E as the inner product, denoted as  $\langle x, y \rangle$  satisfies the following properties
  - 1. Addition  $\langle \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z} \in X$ ;
  - 2. Scalar product  $\langle a\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = a \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$ , for all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in X$ ,  $a \in E$ ;
  - 3. Hermitian  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \overline{\langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle};$
  - 4. Nonegative  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$  with equality holds iff  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$ .
- Remark A norm is induced by inner product via

$$\|oldsymbol{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle oldsymbol{x}\,,\,oldsymbol{x}
angle}$$

and a metric is defined via

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{\langle x - y, x - y \rangle} = ||x - y||.$$

• Definition A <u>complete</u> inner product space is called <u>a Hilbert space</u>.

Inner product spaces are sometimes called pre-Hilbert spaces.

- Remark Consider a *complex* Hilbert space  $F_c$ , where a function  $f_1 + i f_2 \in F_c$  for every  $f_1, f_2 \in F$ , a Hilbert space of real valued functions. Note that  $||f_1 + i f_2||_2^2 = ||f_1||_2^2 + ||f_2||_2^2$ . The following property holds:
  - 1. If  $f \in F_c$ , then  $\overline{f} \in F_c$ ;
  - 2.  $||f|| = ||\overline{f}||$ .
- $\bullet \ \ {\bf Definition} \ \ ({\it Complete} \ \ {\it Orthonormal} \ \ {\it Basis}) \\$

If S is an orthonormal set in a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and no other orthonormal set contains S as a proper subset, then S is called an <u>orthonormal basis</u> (or a **complete orthonormal system**) for  $\mathcal{H}$ .

- Theorem 1.2 (Existence of Orthonormal Basis)
  Every Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  has an orthonormal basis.
- Proposition 1.3 (Orthogonal Representation of Element in Hilbert Space) Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space and  $S = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in A}$  an orthonormal basis. Then for each  $y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$y = \sum_{\alpha \in A} \langle y , x_{\alpha} \rangle x_{\alpha} \tag{1}$$

and

$$||y||_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{\alpha \in A} |\langle y, x_{\alpha} \rangle|^2 \tag{2}$$

The equality in (1) means that the sum on the right-hand side converges (independent of order) to y in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Conversely, if  $\sum_{\alpha \in A} |c_{\alpha}|^2 < \infty$ ,  $c_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\sum_{\alpha \in A} c_{\alpha} x_{\alpha}$  converges to an element of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

- Remark *Orthogonality* is the central concept of Hilbert space. In the presence of closed subspaces, the orthogonality allows us to decompose the Hilbert space into the direct sum of the *subspace* and its *orthogonal complement*.
- Definition (*Direct Sum*)

Suppose that  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  are Hilbert spaces. Then the set of pairs (x, y) with  $x \in \mathcal{H}_1, y \in \mathcal{H}_2$  is a Hilbert space with inner product

$$\langle (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \rangle := \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1} + \langle y_1, y_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_2}$$

This space is called <u>the direct sum</u> of the spaces  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  and is denoted by  $\mathcal{H}_1 \oplus \mathcal{H}_2$ .

• Definition (Orthogonal Complement)

Let  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$  is a **closed** linear subspace of Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  with induced inner product  $\langle , \rangle$  (i.e.  $\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{M}} = \langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{M}$ ).  $\mathcal{M}$  is also a Hilbert space.

We denote by  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  the set of vectors in  $\mathcal{H}$  which are *orthogonal* to  $\mathcal{M}$ ;  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  is called **the orthogonal complement** of  $\mathcal{M}$ . It follows from the linearity of the inner product that  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  is a *linear subspace* of  $\mathcal{H}$  and an elementary argument shows that  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  is closed. So  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  is also a *Hilbert space*.

- Lemma 1.4 Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space,  $\mathcal{M}$  a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{H}$ , and suppose  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . Then there exists in  $\mathcal{M}$  a unique element z closest to x.
- Theorem 1.5 (The Projection Theorem) Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space,  $\mathcal{M}$  a closed subspace. Then every  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  can be uniquely written x = z + w where  $z \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $w \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ .
- Remark The projection theorem sets up a natural isomorphism  $\mathcal{M} \oplus \mathcal{M}^{\perp} \to \mathcal{H}$  given by

$$(z,w)\mapsto z+w$$

We will often suppress the isomorphism and simply write  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{M} \oplus \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ .

• Definition (Separability)

A metric space which has a <u>countable dense subset</u> is said to be **separable**.

- **Remark** Most Hilbert space we have seen is separable.
- Proposition 1.6 (Canonical Hilbert Space)

A Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is **separable** if and only if it has a **countable orthonormal basis** S. If there are  $N < \infty$  elements in S, then  $\mathcal{H}$  is **isomorphic** to  $\mathbb{C}^N$ , If there are **countably many** elements in S, then  $\mathcal{H}$  is **isomorphic** to  $\ell^2$ .

#### 1.3 Bounded Linear Operator and Dual Space

• Definition (Bounded Linear Operator) A bounded linear transformation (or bounded operator) is a mapping  $T:(X,\|\cdot\|_X) \to (Y,\|\cdot\|_Y)$  from a normed linear space X to a normed linear space Y that satisfies

- 1. (*Linearity*)  $T(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha T(x) + \beta T(y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$
- 2. (**Boundedness**)  $||Tx||_Y \leq C ||x||_X$  for small  $C \geq 0$ .

The smallest such C is called the **norm** of T, written ||T|| or  $||T||_{X,Y}$ . Thus

$$||T|| := \sup_{||x||_X = 1} ||Tx||_Y$$

• Remark Denote the space of *all bounded linear operator* between Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  as  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2)$ . The space  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2)$  is linear space with norm

$$||T|| := \sup_{||x||_{\mathcal{H}_1}=1} ||Tx||_{\mathcal{H}_2}, \quad \forall T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2).$$

It can be shown that  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2)$  is a complete normed space (i.e. a Banach space).

- ullet Definition (Dual Space)
  - The space  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathbb{C})$  is called the <u>dual space</u> of  $\mathcal{H}$  and is denoted by  $\mathcal{H}^*$ . The elements of  $\mathcal{H}^*$  are called <u>continuous linear functionals</u>. That is, the dual space  $\mathcal{H}^*$  is the space of continuous linear functionals on  $\mathcal{H}$ .
- Remark The dual space  $\mathcal{H}^*$  is also called **covector space** with respect to a vector space  $\mathcal{H}$  and the linear functionals are called **covectors**. This terms are mostly used in differential geometry when the vector space is the tangent space.
- Theorem 1.7 (The Riesz Representation Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Kreyszig, 1989, Conway, 2019]

For each  $T \in \mathcal{H}^*$ , there is a **unique**  $y_T \in \mathcal{H}$  such that

$$T(x) = \langle x, y_T \rangle$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . In addition  $||y_T||_{\mathcal{H}} = ||T||_{\mathcal{H}^*}$ .

- Remark The the Riesz representation theorem together with the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality defines an <u>isomorphism</u>  $\mathcal{H}^* \to \mathcal{H}$  between a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  and its dual  $\mathcal{H}^*$ . In other words, the bounded linear functional on Hilbert space has a simple form.
- Corollary 1.8 (The Riesz Representation for Sesquilinear Form) Let  $B(\cdot,\cdot)$  be a function from  $\mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$  which satisfies:
  - 1. (Linearity)  $B(\alpha x + \beta y, z) = \alpha B(x, z) + \beta B(y, z)$
  - 2. (Conjugate Linearity)  $B(x, \alpha y + \beta z) = \overline{\alpha}B(x, y) + \overline{\beta}B(x, z)$
  - 3. (Boundedness)  $|B(x,y)| \leq C ||x||_{\mathcal{H}} ||y||_{\mathcal{H}}$

for all  $x, y, z \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then there is a **unique bounded linear transformation**  $A : \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$  so that

$$B(x,y) = \langle Ax, y \rangle$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ . The **norm** of A is the smallest constant C such that (3) holds.

• Remark A bilinear function on  $\mathcal{H}$  obeying (1) and (2) is called a <u>sesquilinear form</u> (as a generalization of **blinear form** in complex vector space).

In terms of this, an inner product in complex vector space is a complex  $\underline{Hermitian\ form}$  (also called a  $symmetric\ sesquilinear\ form$ ).

### 1.4 Hilbert Adjoints and Self Adjoint Operator

• Definition (Hilbert Space Adjoint)

Let  $T: \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$  be a bounded linear operator, where  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  are Hilbert spaces. Then **the Hilbert-adjoint operator**  $T^*$  of T is the operator

$$T^*:\mathcal{H}_2\to\mathcal{H}_1$$

such that for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}_1$  and  $y \in \mathcal{H}_2$ ,

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_2} = \langle x, T^*y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1} \tag{3}$$

• Proposition 1.9 (Existence of Adjoint Operator) [Kreyszig, 1989]

The Hilbert-adjoint operator T\* of T exists, is unique and is a bounded linear operator with norm

$$||T^*|| = ||T||$$
.

• Proposition 1.10 (Properties of Hilbert-adjoint operators). [Reed and Simon, 1980, Kreyszig, 1989]

Let  $\mathcal{H}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{H}_2$  be Hilbert spaces,  $S: \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$  and  $T: \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$  bounded linear operators and  $\alpha$  any scalar. Then we have

- 1.  $\langle T^*y, x \rangle = \langle y, Tx \rangle, (x \in H_1, y \in \mathcal{H}_2)$
- 2.  $(S+T)^* = S^* + T^*$
- 3.  $(\alpha T)^* = \alpha T^*$
- 4.  $(T^*)^* = T$
- 5.  $||T^*T|| = ||TT^*|| = ||T||^2$
- 6.  $T^*T = 0 \Leftrightarrow T = 0$
- 7.  $(ST)^* = T^*S^*$  (assuming  $\mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{H}_1$ )
- 8. If T has a bounded inverse,  $T^{-1}$ , then  $T^*$  has a bounded inverse and  $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$ .
- Definition A bounded linear operator  $T: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$  on a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is said to be
  - 1. self-adjoint or <u>Hermitian</u> if

$$T^* = T \iff \langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle$$

2. unitary if T is bijective and

$$T^* = T^{-1}$$

#### 3. normal if

$$T^*T = TT^*$$

- **Definition** (*Projection Operator*) If  $P \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  and  $P^2 = P$ , then P is called a *projection*. If in addition  $P = P^*$ , then P is called an *orthogonal projection*.
- Remark If T is self-adjoint and unitary, then T is normal.
- Proposition 1.11 (Self-adjointness). [Kreyszig, 1989] Let  $T: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$  be a bounded linear operator on a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then:
  - 1. If T is self-adjoint,  $\langle Tx, x \rangle$  is real for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ .
  - 2. If  $\mathcal{H}$  is complex and  $\langle Tx, x \rangle$  is **real** for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ , the operator T is **self-adjoint**
- Proposition 1.12 (Self-adjointness of product). [Kreyszig, 1989]

  The product of two bounded self-adjoint linear operators S and T on a Hilbert space H is self-adjoint if and only if the operators commute,

$$ST = TS$$
.

• Proposition 1.13 (Sequences of self-adjoint operators). [Kreyszig, 1989] Let  $(T_n)$  be a sequence of bounded self-adjoint linear operators  $T_n : \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$  on a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . Suppose that  $(T_n)$  converges, say,

$$T_n \to T$$
, i.e.  $||T_n - T|| \to 0$ 

where  $\|cdot\|$  is the norm on the space  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H})$ . Then the limit operator T is a **bounded** self-adjoint linear operator on H.

- Proposition 1.14 (Unitary operator). [Kreyszig, 1989]
   Let the operators U: H → H and V: H → H be unitary; here, H is a Hilbert space. Then:
  - 1. U is isometric; thus ||Ux|| = ||x|| for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ ;
  - 2. ||U|| = 1, provided  $\mathcal{H} \neq \{0\}$ ,
  - 3.  $U^{-1} = U^*$  is **unitary**.
  - 4. UV is unitary,
  - 5. U is normal.
  - 6. A bounded linear operator T on a complex Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is unitary if and only if T is isometric and surjective.

#### 1.5 Regular Measure and Duality of $C_0(X)$

• Definition (Subspace of Continuous Functions) Let  $C(X) := C(X, \mathbb{R})$  be the space of continuous real-valued functions on topological space X and  $\mathcal{B}(X) := \mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{R})$  be the space of bounded real-valued functions on X. 1. The intersection of  $\mathcal{B}(X)$  and  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  is the space of all <u>bounded continuous</u> functions

$$\mathcal{BC}(X) := \mathcal{BC}(X, \mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{R}) \cap \mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R})$$

Note that  $\mathcal{BC}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(X)$  is a **closed subspace**.

2. Define the *support* of a function f, supp(f) as the *smallest closed set* outside of which f vanishes. The subset  $C_c(X) \subseteq C(X)$  is the space of all continuous functions with *compact support* 

$$C_c(X) = \{ f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}) : \text{supp } (f) \text{ is compact} \}.$$

Note that by  $Tietze\ Extension\ Theorem$ , the locally compact Hausdorff space X has a rich supply of continuous functions that vanishes outside a compact set.

3. Recall also that  $C_0(X)$  is the space of *continuous functions* on X that *vanishes at infinity*, i.e. for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $|f(x)| < \epsilon$  if  $x \in X \setminus C$  for some *compact subset*  $C \subseteq X$ .

$$C_0(X) = \{ f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}) : f \text{ vanishes at infinity} \}.$$

Note that

$$C_c(X) \subset C_0(X) \subset \mathcal{BC}(X) \subset C(X)$$

- Definition (Radon Measure) [Folland, 2013]
   A Radon measure μ on X is a Borel measure that is
  - 1. *finite* on all compact sets; i.e. for any compact subset  $K \subseteq X$ ,

$$\mu(K) < \infty$$
.

2. outer regular on all Borel sets; i.e. for any Borel set E

$$\mu(E) = \inf \{ \mu(U) : E \subseteq U, U \text{ is open} \}.$$

3. inner regular on all open sets; i.e. for any open set E

$$\mu(E) = \sup \{ \mu(C) : C \subseteq E, C \text{ is compact and Borel} \}.$$

- Definition (Complex Radon Measure)
  - A <u>signed Radon measure</u> is a <u>signed Borel measure</u> whose <u>positive</u> and <u>negative</u> whose <u>real and imaginary parts</u> are <u>signed Radon measure</u> is a <u>complex Borel measure</u> whose <u>real and imaginary parts</u> are <u>signed Radon measures</u>.
- Definition (Space of Complex Radon Measures) On locally compact Hausdorff space X, We denote the space of complex Radon measures on X by  $\mathcal{M}(X)$ . For  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$  we define

$$\|\mu\| = |\mu|(X),$$

where  $|\mu|$  is the **total variation** of  $\mu$ .

• Theorem 1.15 (The Riesz-Markov Theorem, Locally Compact Version) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Folland, 2013]

Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. For any continuous linear functional I on  $C_0(X)$ , (the space of continuous functions on X that vanishes at infinity), there is a unique regular countably additive complex Borel measure  $\mu$  on X such that

$$I(f) = \int_X f d\mu$$
, for all  $f \in \mathcal{C}_0(X)$ .

The <u>norm</u> of I as a linear functional is <u>the total variation</u> of  $\mu$ , that is

$$||I|| = |\mu|(X).$$

Finally, I is **positive** if and only if the measure  $\mu$  is **non-negative**.

• Remark In other word, the map  $\mu \mapsto I_{\mu}$ , is an *isometric isomorphism* from  $\mathcal{M}(X)$  to  $(\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*$ , or

$$\mathcal{M}(X) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*.$$

- Corollary 1.16 [Reed and Simon, 1980, Folland, 2013] Let X be a compact Hausdorff space. Then the <u>dual space  $C(X)^*$ </u> is isometric isomorphism to  $\mathcal{M}(X)$ .
- **Definition** Given  $\mathcal{M}(X) \simeq (\mathcal{C}_0(X))^*$ , we define subspaces of  $\mathcal{M}$ :

$$\mathcal{M}_{+}(X) = \{I \in \mathcal{M}(X) : I \text{ is a positive linear functional}\},$$
  
 $\mathcal{M}_{+,1}(X) = \{I \in \mathcal{M}(X) : ||I|| = 1\}.$ 

Thus  $\mathcal{M}_{+}(X)$  is identified with the space of all positive Randon measures on X.

• Remark (Isometric Embedding of  $L^1(\mu)$  into M(X)) Let  $\mu$  be a fixed positive Radon measure on X. If  $f \in L^1(\mu)$ , the complex measure

$$d\nu_f = f d\mu$$

is easily seen to be **Radon**, and  $\|\nu\| = \int |f| d\mu = \|f\|_1$ . Thus  $f \mapsto \nu_f$  is an **isometric embedding** of  $L^1(\mu)$  into M(X) whose range consists precisely of those  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$  such that  $\nu \ll \mu$ .

- Proposition 1.17 (M(X) is Normed Linear Space) [Folland, 2013]
   If μ is a complex Borel measure, then μ is Radon if and only if |μ| is Radon. Moreover,
   M(X) is a vector space and μ → ||μ|| is a norm on it.
- Remark (Two Perspectives of Measures)
   For regular Borel measure μ or in general, Radon measures on locally compact space X, there are two perspectives:
  - 1. Nonegative set function on the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathscr{A}$ : as a measure of the volume of a subset in X;
  - 2. **Positive linear functional on**  $C_0(X)$ : as a **integral** of compactly supported continuous functions with respect to **given measure**.

In some cases, it is important to think of **measures** not merely as individual objects but instead as elements of  $(C_0(X))^*$ , so that we can employ geometric ideas.

## 1.6 Spectrum of Bounded Linear Operator

• Definition (Resolvent and Spectrum) Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ . A complex number  $\lambda$  is said to be in the resolvent set  $\rho(T)$  of T if

$$\lambda I - T$$

is a bijection with a bounded inverse.

$$R_{\lambda}(T) := (\lambda I - T)^{-1}$$

is called *the resolvent* of T at  $\lambda$ . Note that  $R_{\lambda}(T)$  is defined on Ran  $(\lambda I - T)$ .

If  $\lambda \notin \rho(T)$ , then  $\lambda$  is said to be in the **spectrum**  $\sigma(T)$  **of** T.

- **Remark** The name "*resolvent*" is appropriate, since  $R_{\lambda}(T)$  helps to solve the equation  $(\lambda I T) x = y$ . Thus,  $x = (\lambda I T)^{-1} y = R_{\lambda}(T) y$  provided  $R_{\lambda}(T)$  exists.
- Definition (Point Spectrum, Continuous Spectrum and Residual Spectrum) Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ 
  - 1. **Point Spectrum**: An  $x \neq 0$  which satisfies

$$Tx = \lambda x$$
 or  $(\lambda I - T) x = 0$ , for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ 

is called an eigenvector of T;  $\lambda$  is called the corresponding eigenvalue.

If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue, then  $(\lambda I - T)$  is **not injective** (i.e. Ker  $(\lambda I - T) \neq \{0\}$ ) so  $\lambda$  is in the spectrum of T. The set of all eigenvalues is called the point spectrum of T. It is denoted as  $\sigma_p(T)$ .

- 2. <u>Continuous Spectrum</u>: If  $\lambda$  is not an eigenvalue and if Ran  $(\lambda I T)$  is dense but the resolvent  $R_{\lambda}(T)$  is unbounded, then  $\lambda$  is said to be in <u>the continuous spectrum</u>. It is denoted as  $\sigma_c(T)$ .
- 3. <u>Residual Spectrum</u>: If  $\lambda$  is not an eigenvalue and if Ran  $(\lambda I T)$  is not dense, then  $\lambda$  is said to be in the residual spectrum. It is denoted as  $\sigma_r(T)$ .
- Remark (Pure Point Spectrum for Finite Dimensional Case)
  If X is finite dimensional normed linear space,  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$  then  $\sigma_c(T) = \sigma_r(T) = \emptyset$ .
- Remark If X is a function space, the eigenvectors of linear operator T is called the eigenfunctions of T.
- Definition (Eigenspace of Linear Operator)
   The subspace of domain D(T) consisting of {0} and all eigenvectors of T corresponding to an eigenvalue λ of T is called the eigenspace of T corresponding to that eigenvalue λ.
- Definition (Spectral Radius of Linear Operator)
  Let

$$r(T) = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(T)} |\lambda|$$

r(T) is called the spectral radius of T.

• Proposition 1.18 (Spectral Radius Calculation) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let X be a Hilbert space,  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$  and T is self-adjoint. Then

$$r(T) = ||T||$$

• Theorem 1.19 (Spectrum and Resolvent of Adjoint) (Phillips) [Reed and Simon, 1980]

If X is a **Hilbert space** and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$ , then

$$\sigma(T) = \sigma(T^*)$$
 and  $R_{\lambda}(T^*) = (R_{\lambda}(T))^*$ .

- Proposition 1.20 (Spectrum of Self-Adjoint Operator) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let be a self-adjoint operator on a Hilbert space H. Then,
  - 1. T has no residual spectrum, i.e.  $\sigma_r(T) = \emptyset$ .
  - 2.  $\sigma(T)$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
  - 3. Eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues of T are orthogonal.
- Definition (Positive-Semidefinite Operator) Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. An operator  $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  is called positive-semidefinite if

$$\langle Bx, x \rangle \geq 0$$
 for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ .

We write  $B \succeq 0$  if is positive-semidefinite and  $B \succeq A$  if  $(B - A) \succeq 0$ .

Similarly, B is called **positive-definite** if

$$\langle Bx, x \rangle > 0$$
 for all  $x \neq 0 \in \mathcal{H}$ .

The positive semidefinite operator is sometimes called **positive** operator.

• Proposition 1.21 (Positive Semi-Definiteness ⇒ Self-Adjoint) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Every (bounded) positive semidefinite operator on a complex Hilbert space is self-adjoint.

**Theorem 1.22** (Square Root Lemma) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let  $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  and  $A \succeq 0$ . Then there is a unique  $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  with  $B \succeq 0$  and  $B^2 = A$ . Furthermore, B commutes with every bounded operator which commutes with A.

• **Definition** For  $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ , we can define <u>absolute value</u> of A as the square root of its normal operation

$$|A| := \sqrt{A^*A}$$

#### 1.7 Compact Operator

• Definition (Compact Operator)

Let X and Y be Banach spaces. An operator  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X,Y)$  is called <u>compact</u> (or <u>completely</u> continuous) if T takes bounded sets in X into precompact sets in Y.

Equivalently, T is **compact** if and only if for every **bounded** sequence  $\{x_n\} \subseteq X$ ,  $\{Tx_n\}$  has a **subsequence** convergent in Y.

 $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{Example} \ \ (\textbf{\textit{Finite Rank Operators}})$ 

Suppose that the range of T is finite dimensional. That is, every vector in the range of T can be written

$$Tx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i,$$

for some fixed family  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  in Y. If  $x_n$  is any bounded sequence in X, the corresponding  $\alpha_i^{(n)}$  are bounded since T is bounded. The usual subsequence trick allows one to extract a convergent subsequence from  $\{Tx_n\}$  which proves that T is compact.

• An important property of the compact operator is

Theorem 1.23 (Weakly Convergent + Compact Operator = Uniformly Convergent) [Reed and Simon, 1980]

A compact operator maps weakly convergent sequences into norm convergent sequences; i.e. if  $T \in \mathcal{L}(X)$  is compact, then

$$x_n \stackrel{w}{\to} x \quad \Rightarrow \quad Tx_n \stackrel{norm}{\to} Tx.$$

The converse holds true if X is **reflective**.

• Theorem 1.24 (Compact Operator Approximated by Finite Rank Operator)[Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a **separable Hilbert space**. Then every **compact operator** on  $\mathcal{H}$  is the **norm** limit of a sequence of operators of **finite rank**.

- Theorem 1.25 (Analytic Fredholm Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
   Let D be an open connected subset of C. Let f: D → L(H) be an analytic operator-valued function such that f(z) is compact for each z ∈ D. Then, either
  - 1.  $(I f(z))^{-1}$  exists for  $\mathbf{no} \ z \in D$ ; or
  - 2.  $(I f(z))^{-1}$  exists for all  $z \in D \setminus S$  where S is a discrete subset of D (i.e. S is a set which has no limit points in D.) In this case,  $(I f(z))^{-1}$  is meromorphic in D, analytic in  $D \setminus S$ , the residues at the poles are finite rank operators, and if  $z \in S$  then

$$f(z)\varphi=\varphi$$

has a nonzero solution in H

- Corollary 1.26 (The Fredholm Alternative) [Reed and Simon, 1980] If A is a compact operator on  $\mathcal{H}$ , then either  $(I - A)^{-1}$  exists or  $\varphi = \varphi$  has a solution.
- Theorem 1.27 (Riesz-Schauder Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let A be a compact operator on  $\mathcal{H}$ , then  $\underline{\sigma(A)}$  is a discrete set having no limit points except perhaps  $\lambda = 0$ .

Further, any <u>nonzero</u>  $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$  is an <u>eigenvalue</u> of <u>finite</u> multiplicity (i.e. the corresponding space of eigenvectors is <u>finite</u> dimensional).

• Remark (Compact Operator has only Nonzero Point Spectrum with Finite Dimensional Eigenspace)

Riesz-Schauder Theorem states that the **spectrum** for **compact** operator on **Hilbert** space consists of only the point spectrum besides  $\lambda = 0$ .

Moreover, the eigenspace corresponding to each nonzero eigenvalue is finite dimensional.

• Theorem 1.28 (The Hilbert-Schmidt Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let A be a <u>self-adjoint compact operator</u> on  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then, there is a <u>complete orthonormal</u> basis,  $\{\phi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , for  $\mathcal{H}$  so that

$$A\phi_n = \lambda_n \phi_n$$

and  $\lambda_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

• Remark (Eigendecomposition of Hilbert Space based on Self-Adjoint Compact Operator)

In other word, given a self-adjoint compact operator A on  $\mathcal{H}$ , the HIlbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is the direct sum of eigenspaces of A.

$$\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{\lambda_n \in \sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}} \operatorname{Ker} (\lambda_n I - A)$$

A <u>self-adjoint compact operator</u> on  $\mathcal{H}$  is the closest counterpart of **Hermitian matrix** /  $\overline{Symmetric\ Real\ matrix}$  in infinite dimensional space.

• Theorem 1.29 (Canonical Form for Compact Operators) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let A be a compact operator on  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then there exist (not necessarily complete) orthonormal sets  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=1}^N$  and  $\{\phi_n\}_{n=1}^N$  and positive real numbers  $\{\lambda_n\}_{n=1}^N$  with  $\lambda_n \to 0$ so that

$$A = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \langle \psi_n , \cdot \rangle \phi_n \tag{4}$$

The sum in (4), which may be finite or infinite, converges in norm. The numbers,  $\{\lambda_n\}_{n=1}^N$ , are called the singular values of A.

#### 1.8 Trace Class and Hilbert-Schmidt Operators

• Definition (Trace of Positive Semi-Definite Operator) Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a separable Hilbert space,  $\{\phi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  an orthonormal basis Then for any positive semi-definite operator  $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ , we define

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle A\phi_n, \phi_n \rangle$$

The number tr(A) is called **the trace of** A.

• Remark (Trace of General Linear Operator)
Let  $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  be a bounded linear operator on separable Hilbert space. Instead of considering the trace of A, we consider the trace of absolute value of A,

$$\operatorname{tr}(|A|) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\sqrt{A^*A}\right).$$

• Definition (*Hilbert-Schmidt Operator*) An operator  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  is called *Hilbert-Schmidt* if and only if

$$\operatorname{tr}(T^*T) < \infty.$$

The family of all Hilbert-Schmidt operators is denoted by  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  or  $\mathcal{B}_{HS}(\mathcal{H})$ .

- Proposition 1.30 (Space of Hilbert-Schmidt Operator) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
  - 1. The space of all Hilbert-Schmidt operators  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  is a \*-ideal in  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ ,
  - 2. (Inner Product): If  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$ , then for any orthonormal basis  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle A^* B \varphi_n \,,\, \varphi_n \rangle$$

is absolutely summable, and its limit, denoted by  $\langle A, B \rangle_{HS}$ , is independent of the orthonormal basis chosen, i.e.

$$\langle A, B \rangle_{HS} = \operatorname{tr}(A^*B)$$

- 3.  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  with inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{HS}$  is a **Hilbert space**.
- 4. (Norm): Let  $\|\cdot\|_2$  be defined in  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  by

$$||A||_2 := \sqrt{\langle A, A \rangle}_{HS} = \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}(A^*A)}.$$

Then

$$\|A\| \leq \|A\|_2 \leq \|A\|_1 \,, \quad and \quad \|A\|_2 = \|A^*\|_2$$

5. (Compactness) Every  $A \in \mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  is compact and a compact operator, A, is in  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  if and only if

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n^2 < \infty$$

where  $\{\lambda_n\}$  are the **singular values** of A.

- 6. (Finite Rank Approximation) The finite rank operators are  $\|\cdot\|_2$ -dense in  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$ .
- 7.  $A \in \mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  if and only if

$$\{\|A\varphi_n\|\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \ell^2$$

for **some** orthonormal basis  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

- 8.  $A \in \mathcal{B}_1(\mathcal{H})$  if and only if A = BC with  $B, C \in \mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$ .
- 9.  $\mathcal{B}_2(\mathcal{H})$  is not  $\|\cdot\|$ -closed in  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ .

• Theorem 1.31 (Hilbert-Schmidt Operator of  $L^2$  Space) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let  $(M, \mu)$  be a measure space and  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(M, \mu)$ . Then  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  is Hilbert-Schmidt if and only if there is a function

$$K \in L^2(M \times M, \mu \otimes \mu)$$

with

$$(Tf)(x) = \int_{M} K(x, y) f(y) d\mu(y),$$

Moreover,

$$||T||_2^2 = \int_{M \times M} |K(x, y)|^2 d\mu(x) d\mu(y).$$

• Definition (Kernel of Integral Operator) Consider the simple operator  $T_K$ , defined in  $\mathcal{C}[0,1]$  by

$$(T_K f)(x) = \int_0^1 K(x, y) f(y) dy,$$

where the function K(x,y) is continuous on the square  $0 \le x,y \le 1$ .  $T_K$  is called an *integral kernel operator* and K(x,y) is called the <u>kernel</u> of the integral operator  $T_K$ .

- Remark (*Properties of Integral Kernel Operator*) We summary some important property of the integral kernel operator  $T_K$ :
  - 1.  $T_K$  is **compact operator** on C[0,1].
  - 2. For  $K^*(x,y) := \overline{K(y,x)}$ ,

$$(T_K)^* = T_{K^*}$$

3. Let  $B_M$  denote the functions f in  $\mathcal{C}[0,1]$  such that  $||f||_{\infty} \leq M$ , i.e. closed  $||||_{\infty}$ -ball in  $\mathcal{C}[0,1]$ 

$$B_M := \{ f \in \mathcal{C}[0,1] : ||f||_{\infty} \le M \}$$

The set of functions  $T_K(B_M) := \{T_K f : f \in B_M\}$  is **equicontinuous**.

4. The operator norm of  $T_K$  is bounded above by the  $L^2$  norm of kernel function K

$$||T_K|| \le ||K||_{L^2}$$

5. The eigenfunctions of  $T_K$ ,  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , forms a complete orthonormal basis in  $L^2(M,\mu)$ . Then

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \varphi_n(x) \overline{\varphi_n(y)}$$

where  $\lambda_n$  is the eigenvalue corresponding to eigenfunction  $\varphi_n$ .

#### • Theorem 1.32 (Mercer's Theorem)

Suppose  $\Omega$  is a compact domain and T is a positive Hilbert-Schmidt operator on  $L^2(\Omega)$ . If the integral kernel  $K(\cdot, \cdot)$  is continuous on  $\Omega \times \Omega$ , then the eigenfunction  $\varphi_k$  is continuous on  $\Omega$  if  $\lambda_k > 0$ , and the expansion

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \varphi_n(x) \overline{\varphi_n(y)}$$

converges uniformly on compact sets.

# 2 Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS)

#### 2.1 Definitions

#### • Definition (Evaluation Functional)

Let X be a space,  $\mathcal{H}$  be the *Hilbert space* of complex-valued functions on X, a linear functional  $\delta_x : \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{C}$  is called an *evalution functional* if

$$\delta_x(f) = f(x), \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}$$

That is,  $\delta_x$  evaluates each function  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  at a point x.

#### • Definition (Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space)

A Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is a <u>reproducing kernel Hilbert space</u> (RKHS) if, for all x in X, the evaluation functional  $\delta_x$  is <u>bounded linear operator</u> on  $\mathcal{H}$ , i.e. there exists some  $M_x > 0$  such that

$$|\delta_x(f)| := |f(x)| \le M_x ||f||_{\mathcal{U}} \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Equivalently, for every  $x \in X$ ,  $\delta_x$  is **continuous** at **every** f in  $\mathcal{H}$ 

#### • Remark

$$\mathcal{H}$$
 is a RKHS  $\Leftrightarrow \delta_x \in \mathcal{H}^*, \forall x \in X$ 

# • Remark (Unique Representation of Evaluation Functional at Each Point)

If  $\mathcal{H}$  is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space,  $\delta_x \in \mathcal{H}^*$ , then the Riesz Representation theorem implies that for all  $x \in X$ , there exists a unique function  $k_x \in \mathcal{H}$  so that

$$\delta_x = \langle \cdot , k_x \rangle$$
  
 
$$\Rightarrow f(x) = \delta_x(f) = \langle f , k_x \rangle, \forall f \in \mathcal{H}$$

Note that  $k_x: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is a complex-valued function on X, so

$$k_x(y) := \delta_y(k_x) = \langle k_x, k_y \rangle := K(x, y)$$

where the complex-valued function  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$  is called a **reproducing kernel** 

#### • Definition (Reproducing Kernel)

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a class of functions on X forming a Hilbert space (complex in the latter, but possibly real). A function  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$  is called a **reproducing kernel** (r.k.) of  $\mathcal{H}$ , if

- 1. For every  $x \in X$ , the kernel  $K(x,\cdot)$  as a function belongs to  $\mathcal{H}$ ; i.e.,  $K(x,\cdot) := k_x \in \mathcal{H}$ ;
- 2. The *reproducing property*: for every  $x \in X$  and every  $f \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$f(x) = \delta_x(f) = \langle f, k_x \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle f, K(x, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$
 (5)

• Remark (Reproducing Kernel via Inner Product in RKHS) We can define the reproducing kernel  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$  using the inner product

$$K(x,y) = \langle k_x, k_y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \quad \forall x, y \in X$$

where  $k_x, k_y \in \mathcal{H}$  correspond to evaluation functionals  $\delta_x$  and  $\delta_y$  in RKHS  $\mathcal{H}$ , respectively. Equivalently, we can the following equation:

$$K(x,y) = \langle K(x,\cdot), K(y,\cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

- Remark The following properties hold for reproducing kernels:
  - 1. (*Existence*). The existence of reproducing kernel K is based on the definition of RKHS  $\mathcal{H}$  that  $\delta_x \in \mathcal{H}^*$  for all  $x \in X$ . Then by the Riesz representation theorem (Riesz Lemma), we can find a unique  $k_x$  corresponding to  $\delta_x$  so that  $K(x,y) := \delta_y(k_x) = \langle k_x, k_y \rangle$ .
  - 2. (*Uniqueness*) If a reproducing kernel K(x,y) exists, it is *unique*. This is due to the Riesz representation theorem (Riesz Lemma).
  - 3. (Positive Semi-Definite) K(x,y) is positive semidefinite in X; i.e.,

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{n} K(x_i, x_j) \xi_i \overline{\xi}_j \ge 0$$

for all  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$  and all  $\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n \in \mathbb{C}$ . It follows that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{n} K(x_i, x_j) \xi_i \overline{\xi}_j = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \langle k_{x_i}, k_{x_j} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \xi_i \overline{\xi}_j$$

$$= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_i k_{x_i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} \xi_j k_{x_j} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

$$= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_i k_{x_i} \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \ge 0 \quad \blacksquare$$

4. (**Hermitian**): K(x,y) is Hermitian i.e.

$$K(x,y) = \overline{K(y,x)}$$

This is due to the Hermitian property of inner product.

5. (Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality)

$$|K(x,y)|^2 \le K(x,x)^{1/2}K(y,y)^{1/2}$$
.

## 2.2 Properties

• Proposition 2.1 (Closed Subspace)

A closed linear subspaces  $\mathcal{F}$  of reproducing kernel Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space with the reproducing kernel  $K_{\mathcal{F}} = K|_{\mathcal{F}}$ .

• Proposition 2.2 (Orthorgonal Complements)

If  $\mathcal{H}'$  and  $\mathcal{H}''$  are **complementary** subspaces of  $\mathcal{H}$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}' \oplus \mathcal{H}''$ , then their reproducing kernels satisfy the equation K' + K'' = K.

• Remark (Projection via Reproducing Kernel)

If the class  $\mathcal{F}$  with the reproducing kernel K is a *subspace* of a larger Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , then the formula

$$f(x) = \langle h, K(x, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}},$$

gives the projection f of  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

• **Proposition 2.3** If K is the reproducing kernel of the class F with the norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , and if the linear class  $F_1 \subset F$  forms a Hilbert space with the norm  $\|\cdot\|_1$  such that  $\|f_1\|_1 \ge \|f_1\|$  for every  $f_1 \in F_1$ , then the class  $F_1$  possesses a reproducing kernel  $K_1$  satisfying  $K_1 \preceq K$ ; i.e.,  $K - K_1$  is positive definite.

## 2.3 Convergence Properties

- Remark Recall different convergence:
  - 1. **Definition** (*Pointwise Convergence*). [Kreyszig, 1989]

A sequence  $(f_n)$  in a normed space  $\mathcal{H}$  is said to be <u>pointwise convergent</u> (or <u>convergent in pointwise topology</u>) if there is an  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  such that for every  $x \in X$ 

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = f(x).$$

2. **Definition** (Strong Convergence). [Kreyszig, 1989]

A sequence  $(f_n)$  in a normed space  $\mathcal{H}$  is said to be <u>strongly convergent</u> (or <u>convergent</u> in <u>the norm</u>) if there is an  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} ||f_n - f|| = 0.$$

This is written  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$  or simply  $f_n \to f$  is called the **strong limit** of  $(f_n)$ , and we say that  $(f_n)$  converges **strongly** to f.

3. **Definition** (Weak Convergence). [Kreyszig, 1989]

A sequence  $(f_n)$  in a normed space  $\mathcal{H}$  is said to be <u>weakly convergent</u> if there is an  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  such that for every  $I \in \mathcal{H}^*$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} I(f_n) = I(f).$$

This is written  $f_n \stackrel{w}{\to} f$  or  $f_n \rightharpoonup f$ . The element f is called **the weak limit** of  $(f_n)$ , and we say that  $(f_n)$  converges weakly to f.

• Proposition 2.4 (Convergence in Norm leads to Pointwise Convergence)
If the class  $\mathcal{H}$  possesses a reproducing kernel K(x,y), every sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  which converges strongly to a function f in the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , converges also at every point in the ordinary sense, i.e.

$$||f_n - f||_{\mathcal{H}} \to 0 \implies f_n(x) \to f(x), \text{ for each } x \in X$$

This convergence becomes uniform in every subset of E in which K(x,y) is uniformly bounded.

**Proof:** This follows from

$$|f(x) - f_n(x)| = |\langle f - f_n, K(x, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}|$$

$$\leq ||f - f_n|| ||K(x, \cdot)|| = ||f - f_n|| K(x, x)^{1/2}.$$
(6)

Thus  $||f - f_n|| \to 0$  leads to  $|f(x) - f_n(x)| \to 0$  for every  $x \in X$ .

If  $\{f_n\}$  converges **weakly** to f; i.e.,  $\langle f_n, K(x,\cdot) \rangle \to \langle f, K(x,\cdot) \rangle$  for every  $x \in X$ , we have again  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for every x. That is, in RKHS,

strong convergence  $\Rightarrow$  weak convergence  $\Rightarrow$  pointwise convergence

there exists non-increasing nested sets  $E_1 \subset E_2 ...$  in which  $f_n$  uniformly converges to f. Let  $E = \lim_{n \to \infty} E_n = \bigcup_n E_n$  Moreover, if  $x \mapsto K(x,\cdot)$  is a transformation that is continuous from X to a subset of  $\mathcal{H}$ , then in every **compact**  $E_1 \subset E$ ,  $f_n$  converges **uniformly** to f and it transforms to a **compact subset** of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

To see that, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \subset E_1$  such that for every  $x \in E_1$ , there exists at least one  $x_k$  such that  $||K(x,\cdot) - K(x_k,\cdot)|| \le \epsilon/4$   $||f|| \le \epsilon/4$   $||f|| \le \epsilon/4$  for  $M = \sup_{\boldsymbol{x} \in E} ||f(x)||$ . Further if we choose  $n_0$ , so that  $n > n_0$ ,  $|f(x_k) - f_n(x_k)| \le \epsilon/4$ , then for the selected  $x \in E_1$ , the following holds

$$|f(x) - f(x_k)| \le |f(x_k) - f_n(x_k)| + |\langle f(x) - f_n(x), K(x, y) - K(x_k, y) \rangle|$$

$$\le \frac{\epsilon}{4} + ||f - f_n|| ||K(x, \cdot) - K(x_k, \cdot)||$$

$$\le \frac{\epsilon}{4} + 2M \frac{\epsilon}{4M} < \epsilon.$$

The *continuity* of the correspondence  $x \mapsto K(x, \cdot)$  is equivalent to *equicontinuity* of all functions of  $\mathcal{H}$  with ||f(x)|| < M for any M > 0.

• Remark In reproducing kernel Hilbert space,

strong (norm) convergence  $\Rightarrow$  weak convergence  $\Rightarrow$  pointwise convergence

#### 2.4 Construction from Hermitian Positive Definite Kernel

• **Definition** Let X be a nonempty set. A Hermitian form  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$  is called a **positive-definite** (p.d.) kernel on X if

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_i \bar{c}_j K(x_i, x_j) \ge 0$$

holds for any  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$ , given  $n \in \mathbb{N}, c_1, \ldots, c_n \in \mathbb{C}$ .

• In this section, we show that a RKHS can be constructed from any positive definite kernels:

Theorem 2.5 (RKHS from Positive Definite Kernel) (Moore-Aronszajn)
Suppose K is a symmetric, positive definite kernel on a set X. Then there is a unique
Hilbert space of functions on X for which K is a reproducing kernel.

**Proof:** For all  $x \in X$ , define  $K_x := K(x, \cdot)$ . Let  $\mathcal{H}_0$  be the linear span of  $\{K_x : x \in X\}$ , that is, it is the space of functions of the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \xi_k K_{x_k}$$

where  $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n \in X$  and  $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots \xi_n \in \mathbb{C}$ . Define an inner product on  $\mathcal{H}_0$  by

$$\left\langle \sum_{k=1}^{n} \xi_k K_{x_k}, \sum_{j=1}^{m} \eta_j K_{y_j} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0} := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} K(x_i, y_j) \xi_i \overline{\eta}_j.$$

which implies  $K(x,y) = \langle K_x, K_y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ . It is an inner product due to symmetric and positive definite property of kernel K.

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be the completion of  $\mathcal{H}_0$  with respect to this inner product. Then  $\mathcal{H}$  consists of functions of the form

$$f := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \xi_k K_{x_k}$$

where

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{p \ge 0} \| \sum_{i=n}^{n+p} \xi_i K_{x_i} \|_{\mathcal{H}_0}^2 = 0$$

Now we can check the reproducing property

$$\langle f, K_x \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \left\langle \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \xi_k K_{x_k}, K_x \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \xi_k \left\langle K_{x_k}, K_x \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \xi_k K(x_k, x) = f(x)$$

To prove uniqueness, let  $\mathcal{G}$  be another  $Hilbert\ space$  of functions for which K is a reproducing kernel. For every x and y in X, the reproducing property implies that

$$\langle K_x, K_y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = K(x, y) = \langle K_x, K_y \rangle_{\mathcal{G}}.$$

By linearity,  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{G}}$  on the span of  $\{K_x : x \in X\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$  because  $\mathcal{G}$  is complete and contains  $\mathcal{H}_0$  and hence contains its completion.

Now we need to prove that every element of  $\mathcal{G}$  is in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Let f be an element of  $\mathcal{G}$ . Since  $\mathcal{H}$  is a *closed subspace* of  $\mathcal{G}$ , we can write  $f = f_{\mathcal{H}} + f_{\mathcal{H}^{\perp}}$  where  $f_{\mathcal{H}} \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $f_{\mathcal{H}^{\perp}} \in \mathcal{H}^{\perp}$ . Now if  $x \in X$  then, since K is a reproducing kernel of  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$ :

$$f(x) = \langle K_x, f \rangle_{\mathcal{G}} = \langle K_x, f_{\mathcal{H}} \rangle_{\mathcal{G}} + \langle K_x, f_{\mathcal{H}^{\perp}} \rangle_{\mathcal{G}}$$
$$= \langle K_x, f_{\mathcal{H}} \rangle_{\mathcal{G}}$$
$$= \langle K_x, f_{\mathcal{H}} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = f_{\mathcal{H}}(x)$$

where we have used the fact that  $K_x$  belongs to  $\mathcal{H}$  so that its inner product with  $f_{\mathcal{H}^{\perp}}$  in  $\mathcal{G}$  is zero. This shows that  $f = f_H$  in  $\mathcal{G}$ .

# 2.5 Construction from Integral Kernel Operator on Compact Space

• Remark (Integral Operator)

Let X be a **compact** space equipped with a *strictly positive finite* Borel measure  $\mu$  and  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  a **continuous**, **symmetric**, and **positive definite function**. We can define a linear operator  $T_K$  on  $L^2(X,\mu)$  by

$$(T_K f)(x) := \int_X K(x, y) f(y) d\mu(y),$$

i.e.  $T_K$  is a *integral kernel operator* on  $L^2(X,\mu)$ .

• Remark (*RKHS from Integral Kernel Operator*)
We see that

- 1.  $T_K \in \mathcal{B}_2(L^2(X,\mu))$  is a Hilbert-Schmidt operator, thus
- 2.  $T_K$  is a compact operator.
- 3.  $T_K$  is a **self-adjoint**, **positive semi-definite** operator on  $L^2(X, \mu)$  since K is a symmetric and positive definite kernel.
- 4. By Hilbert-Schmidt theorem, since  $T_K$  is self-adjoint and compact, the Hilbert space  $L^2(X,\mu)$  has a complete orthonormal basis  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  where each  $\varphi_n$  is the eigenfunction of  $T_K$  corresponding to eigenvalue  $\lambda_n \geq 0$  with  $\lambda_n \to 0$ .
- 5.  $T_K$  maps **continuously** into the space of continuous functions C(X).
- 6. By Mercer's Theorem, there exists an orthonormal basis  $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  on  $L^2(X,\mu)$  where each  $\varphi_n$  is a **continuous** eigenfunction of  $T_K$  corresponding to the **eigenvalue**  $\lambda_n \geq 0$  so that the kernel K has an expansion

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \varphi_n(x) \overline{\varphi_n(y)}$$

that converges uniformly on compact set X. This above series representation is referred to as a Mercer kernel or Mercer representation of K. Thus any function f in  $L^2(X,\mu)$  can be represented as

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n \varphi_n(x).$$

7. Finally, a *reproducing kernel Hilbert space*  $\mathcal{H} \subseteq L^2(X,\mu)$  based on spectral decomposition of  $T_K$  is given by

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ f \in L^2(X, \mu) : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\left| \langle f, \varphi_n \rangle_{L^2} \right|^2}{\lambda_n} < \infty \right\}$$

where the inner product of  $\mathcal{H}$  given by

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle f, \varphi_n \rangle_{L^2} \langle g, \varphi_n \rangle_{L^2}}{\lambda_n}.$$

The kernel K is the reproducing kernel of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

### 2.6 Construction from Feature Map

• **Definition** (Feature Map) [Scholkopf and Smola, 2001] A <u>feature map</u> is a map  $\Phi: X \to \mathcal{F}$ , where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a *Hilbert space* such that the image of X under  $\Phi$ ,  $\mathcal{H} := \Phi(X) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space with kernel function

$$K(x,y) := \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(y) \rangle_{\mathcal{F}}.$$

#### • Remark (Feature Map via Kernel Function)

We can think of  $\Phi$  as a vector-valued function with possibly *infinite-dimensional* output. Moreover, given kernel function K, let  $K_x := K(x, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}$ , we can define the feature map as

$$\Phi: x \to K_x = K(x, \cdot)$$

• Remark (*Feature Map via Eigenfunction of Integral Operator*) [Scholkopf and Smola, 2001, Rasmussen and Williams, 2005]

Any symmetric positive definite kernel K induces a integral kernel operator  $T_K$  that is self-adjoint and compact.  $T_K$  has discrete real spectrum  $\sigma(T_K) \subset \mathbb{R}$  with eigenfunctions  $\{\varphi_n\}$  that spans the entire space  $\mathcal{F}$ .

Use the Mercer's theorem. Given the kernel function  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$ , the eigenfunction  $\varphi_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$  associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda_n \geq 0$  is defined by the integral equation

$$\lambda_n \varphi_n(x) = \int_X K(x, y) \varphi_n(y) d\mu(y).$$
 where  $K(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \varphi_n(x) \overline{\varphi_n(y)}$ 

And we can define the feature map  $\Phi$  via

$$\Phi: x \mapsto \left(\sqrt{\lambda_n}\varphi_n(x)\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}.$$

Note that the output dimension of  $\Phi$  is determined by the Mercer representation of K. It can be finite dimensional if the kernel K is simple. In this way, we have

$$K(x,y) := \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(y) \rangle_{\mathcal{F}}.$$

#### • Remark (*Equivalence of Two Representations*)

The kernel map and the Mercer's feature map are equivalent in that there exists an **isometric isomorphism** between them so that the inner product is preserved. In specific,  $\Phi: x \mapsto K(x,\cdot)$  maps a feature to a function in  $\mathcal{F}$  and the Mercer's kernel  $\Phi: X \mapsto (\sqrt{\lambda_n}\varphi_n(x))_{j=1}^{\infty}$  maps a feature vector to a **vector representation** of  $K(x,\cdot)$  under a set of orthonormal basis  $\{\sqrt{\lambda_n}\varphi_n(\cdot)\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{F}$ .

Note, however,  $\{K(x,\cdot)\}_{n\in S}$  for a set of features  $\{x_n\}_{n\in S}$  are not orthonormal.  $\{K(x,\cdot)\}_{n\in S}\not\subset \{\sqrt{\lambda_n}\varphi_n(\cdot)\}_{n=1}^\infty$ .

# 3 Equivalent Definition of Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space

We summarize four different ways to construct a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS):

#### 1. (Bounded Evaluation Functional)

A RKHS  $\mathcal{H}$  is a *Hilbert space* of functions on X such that **the evalution functional**  $\delta_x \in \mathcal{H}^*$  is **bounded linear functional** for all  $x \in X$ .

• This implies that

$$f(x) := \delta_x(f) = \langle f, K_x \rangle$$

for some unique  $K_x \in \mathcal{H}$  for each  $x \in X$ ;

• Define the reproducing kernel as function  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$K(x,y) = \langle K_x, K_y \rangle = K_x(y).$$

Thus K(x, y) satisfies the reproducing property:

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

#### 2. (Hermitian Positive Definite Kernel)

Given a *Hermitian positive definite kernel*,  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$ , there exists a *unique*  $RKHS \mathcal{H}$  that admits K as its reproducing kernel.

• From the subspace  $\mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span}\{K_x : x \in X\}$  where  $K_x := K(x, \cdot)$ :

$$f \in \mathcal{H}_0 \Rightarrow f = \sum_{k=1}^n \xi_k K_{x_k}, \ \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \subset X, \ \{\xi_i\} \subset \mathbb{C}$$

• Define the inner product on  $\mathcal{H}_0$  as

$$\left\langle \sum_{k=1}^{n} \xi_k K_{x_k}, \sum_{j=1}^{m} \eta_j K_{y_j} \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0} := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} K(x_i, y_j) \xi_i \overline{\eta}_j.$$

Due to Hermitian and positive definite property of K, the inner product above is well-defined.

- $K(x,y) = \langle K_x, K_y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_0}$  by definition. The reproducing property holds as well.
- Construct the RKHS  $\mathcal{H}$  by the **completion** of  $\mathcal{H}_0$ .

#### 3. (Integral Kernel Operator)

Consider a measure space  $(X, \mu)$  where X is a **compact** space and  $\mu$  is a Borel measure. Given  $K: X \times X \to \mathbb{C}$  as a **continuous Hermitian positive definite kernel** on X, we can define a **integral kernel operator**  $T_K$  on  $L^2(X, \mu)$  by

$$(T_K f)(x) := \int_X K(x, y) f(y) d\mu(y).$$

•  $T_K$  is a self-adjoint, positive and compact operator on separable Hilbert space.

- The **spectrum** of  $T_K$  is **discrete** and is of **real nonnegative value**  $\lambda_n \geq 0$  such that  $\lambda_n \rightarrow 0$ .
- There exists a *complete orthonormal basis* in  $L^2(X, \mu)$  that are *eigenfunctions*  $\{\varphi_n(x)\}\$  of  $T_K$ .
- There exists a *orthonormal basis* formed by continuous eigenfunctions  $\{\varphi_n(x)\}$  and their eigenvalues  $\{\lambda_n\}$  so that the expansion

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \varphi_n(x) \overline{\varphi_n(y)}$$

converges uniformly on compact set X.

• The RKHS  $\mathcal{H} \subseteq L^2(X,\mu)$  based on spectral decomposition of  $T_K$  is given by

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ f \in L^2(X, \mu) : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\left| \langle f, \varphi_n \rangle_{L^2} \right|^2}{\lambda_n} < \infty \right\}$$

where the inner product of  $\mathcal{H}$  given by

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle f, \varphi_n \rangle_{L^2} \langle g, \varphi_n \rangle_{L^2}}{\lambda_n}.$$

The kernel K is the reproducing kernel of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

#### 4. (Feature Map)

Define **feature map**  $\Phi: X \to \mathcal{F}$  from X to a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{F}$  so that  $\mathcal{H} := \Phi(X)$  is a RKHS with the reproducing kernel

$$K(x,y) := \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(y) \rangle_{\mathcal{T}}, \quad \forall x, y \in X$$

• We can define

$$\Phi: x \to K_x = K(x, \cdot)$$

• We can also define

$$\Phi: x \mapsto \left(\sqrt{\lambda_n}\varphi_n(x)\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

where the eigenfunctions  $\{\varphi_n(x)\}$  and their eigenvalues  $\{\lambda_n\}$  form expansion of kernel K

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \varphi_n(x) \overline{\varphi_n(y)}$$

• These two definitions are equivalent based on Mercer's theorem.

# 4 Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space in Machine Learning

### 4.1 Empirical Feature Map

• **Definition** (*Empirical Feature Map*) [Scholkopf and Smola, 2001] Given a set of samples  $S := (z_1, \ldots, z_m) \subset X$ , the *empirical feature map*  $\Phi_m : X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is the empirical estimate of the feature map  $\Phi : x \mapsto K(x, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}$  under S. That is

$$\Phi_m : x \mapsto K(x, \cdot)|_{(z_1, \dots, z_m)} \equiv (K(x, z_n))_{n=1}^m.$$

- Remark Note that the image of empirical feature map  $\Phi_m(X) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  does not necessarily form a closed linear subspace. Also the inner product defined in the linear span of  $\{\Phi_m(z_i), 1 \leq i \leq m\}$  is not canonical, since  $\Phi_m(x_i)$  are not orthogonal in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  in general.
- Remark (Induced Inner Product on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  from Empirical Feature Map)

  The empirical feature map that is associated with kernel K should be defined by inducing an inner product of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  into  $\Phi_m(X)$  as

$$\langle \Phi_m(x), \Phi_m(y) \rangle_m = K(x, y),$$

where  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_m \equiv \langle M \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^m}$  for **positive definite matrix** M. Enforcing  $x, y \in S := (z_1, \ldots, z_m)$  be in training set, we can obtain the equation

$$K = K M K,$$
  
 $\Rightarrow M = K^{\dagger} = K^{-1}.$ 

where  $K = [K(z_i, z_j)]_{i,j=1}^m \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is the matrix representation of  $T_K$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

• Remark (*Explict Form of Empirical Feature Map*) [Scholkopf and Smola, 2001] Therefore, we could define *empirical feature map that is associated with kernel K* as

$$\Phi_m : x \mapsto \mathbf{K}^{-\frac{1}{2}} (K(x, z_n))_{n=1}^m.$$

The above is equivalent to the Kernel PCA whitening.

• Remark (Empirical Feature Map as Finite Dimensional Approximation)
This  $\Phi_m$  maps X to a m-dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^m$  as opposed to the original  $\Phi$  that maps to  $\mathcal{H}$ , a Hilbert space of functions with high or infinite dimensionality. Moreover, the induced inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  has representation

$$\langle \Phi_m(x), \Phi_m(y) \rangle_m \equiv \boldsymbol{k}_x^T \boldsymbol{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{k}_y$$

where  $\mathbf{K} = [K(z_i, z_j)]_{i,j}^m$ , and  $\mathbf{k}_x = ((K(x, z_i))_{i=1}^m)^T$ .

#### 4.2 Representer Theorem

 $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{Definition} \ \ (\boldsymbol{Loss} \ \boldsymbol{Function}) \\$ 

Denote by  $(x, y, f(x)) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y}$  the triplet consisting of a **pattern** x, an **observation** y and a **prediction** f(x). Then the map

$$c: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \to [0, \infty)$$

with the property c(x, y, y) = 0 for all  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  will be called **a loss function**.

• Definition (Expected Risk)

Let  $((\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}), \mathscr{F}, \mathcal{P})$  be a probability space on domain  $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$  and  $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  be a measurable function on  $\mathcal{X}$ . The expected risk of f with respect to  $\mathcal{P}$  and c is defined as

$$\mathcal{R}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{P}}\left[c(x, y, f(x))\right] = \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} c(x, y, f(x)) \ d\mathcal{P}(x, y)$$

• Definition (Empirical Risk)

Since  $\mathcal{P}$  is unknown, given a set of samples  $\mathcal{D} := \{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^m \subset \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ , we replace  $\mathcal{P}$  by **the** empirical probability measure

$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}_m = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{n=1}^m \delta_{(x_n, y_n)}.$$

Then we define **the empirical risk** of f with respect to  $\widehat{\mathcal{P}}_m$  and c as

$$\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\widehat{\mathcal{P}}_m}\left[c(x, y, f(x))\right] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{n=1}^m c(x_n, y_n, f(x_n))$$

- Remark We assume the *empirical risk functional*  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$  is *continuous* with respect to f.
- Remark (Regularization)

The key idea in **regularization** is to restrict the class of possible minimizers  $\mathcal{F}$  (with  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ) of the empirical risk functional  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$  such that  $\mathcal{F}$  becomes a **compact set**.

We do not directly specify a compact set  $\mathcal{F}$ , since this leads to a constrained optimization problem, which can be cumbersome in practice. Instead, we add a stabilization (regularization) term  $\Omega(f)$  to the original objective function; the latter could be  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$ , for instance. This, too, leads to better conditioning of the problem. We consider the following class of regularized risk functionals:

$$\mathcal{R}_{reg}(f) := \mathcal{R}_{emp}(f) + \lambda \Omega(f)$$

Here  $\lambda > 0$  is the so-called **regularization parameter** which specifies the **tradeoff** between minimization of  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$  and the **smoothness** or **simplicity** which is enforced by small  $\Omega(f)$ . Usually one chooses  $\Omega(f)$  to be **convex**, since this ensures that there exists only one global minimum, provided  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$  is also convex

• Definition (Regularized Risk in Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space) Suppose that  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  where  $\mathcal{H}$  is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space on X.  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$  is the empirical risk functional. The regularized risk functionals on  $\mathcal{H}$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{R}_{reg}(f) := \mathcal{R}_{emp}(f) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$$

Lemma 4.1 (Operator Inversion Lemma) [Scholkopf and Smola, 2001]
 Let X be a compact set and let the map f: X → Y be continuous. Then there exists an inverse map f<sup>-1</sup>: f(X) → X that is also continuous.

• Theorem 4.2 (Representer Theorem) [Scholkopf and Smola, 2001] Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a set, and  $c: (\mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})^m \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$  be an arbitrary loss function,  $\mathcal{H}$  be the reproducing kernel Hilbert space associated with kernel K on X. Denote  $\Omega: [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  as a strictly monotonic increasing function. Then each minimizer  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  of the regularized risk

$$c((x_1, y_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_m, y_m, f(x_m))) + \Omega(\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}})$$
 (7)

admits a representation of the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, x).$$

**Proof:** For convenience we will assume that we are dealing with  $\bar{\Omega}(\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2) := \Omega(\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}})$  rather than  $\Omega(\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}})$ . This is no restriction at all, since the quadratic function is strictly monotonic on  $[0,\infty)$ , and therefore  $\bar{\Omega}$  is strictly monotonic on  $[0,\infty)$  if and only if  $\Omega$  also satisfies this requirement.

We may decompose any  $f \in \mathcal{H}$  into a part contained  $\mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span}\{K(x_i,\cdot), i = 1, \dots, m\}$  and one in the **orthogonal complement**  $\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}$ ;

$$f(x) = f_{\mathcal{H}_0}(x) + f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}}(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, x) + f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}}(x)$$

Here  $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}} \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $\langle f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}}, K(x_n, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$  for all  $n \in [m] := \{1, \ldots, m\}$ . By reproducing property of K we may write  $f(x_i)$  (for all  $i \in [m]$ ) as

$$f(x_i) = \langle f, K(x_i, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, x_i) + \langle f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}}, K(x_i, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, x_i)$$

Second, for all  $f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}}$ , by Pythagorean theorem and the monotonicity of  $\Omega$ ,

$$\Omega(\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}) := \bar{\Omega}\left(\left\|\sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, \cdot)\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 + \left\|f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}}\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2\right) \ge \bar{\Omega}\left(\left\|\sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, \cdot)\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2\right)$$

Thus for any fixed  $\alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$  the risk functional (7) is minimized for  $f_{\mathcal{H}_0^{\perp}} = 0$ . Since this also has to hold for the solution, the theorem holds.

• Remark (Monotonicity of Regularizer Functional  $\Omega(\cdot)$  is Required) Monotonicity of  $\Omega$  is necessary to ensure that the theorem holds. It does not prevent the regularized risk functional from having multiple local minima. To ensure a single minimum, we would need to require convexity. If we discard the strictness of the monotonicity, then it no longer follows that each minimizer of the regularized risk admits an expansion; it still follows, however, that there is always another solution that is as good, and that does admit the expansion. • Remark (Function Space Minimizer Lies in Finite Dimensional Subspace)

The significance of the Representer Theorem is that although we might be trying to solve an optimization problem in an infinite-dimensional space  $\mathcal{H}$ , containing linear combinations of kernels centered on arbitrary points of X, it states that the solution lies in the span of m particular kernels – those centered on the training points.

In the Support Vector community,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{m} \alpha_n K(x_n, x)$$

is called **the Support Vector expansion**. For suitable choices of loss functions, it has empirically been found that many of the  $\alpha_n$  often equal 0.

# 5 Example and Computation

• K as an operator is self-adjoint, i.e.

$$\langle f, Kg \rangle = \langle Kf, g \rangle$$
.

• The inner product in Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS)  $\mathcal{H}$  is given by [Ramm, 1998]:

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \equiv \langle K^{-1}f, g \rangle_{r} \tag{8}$$

where  $K^{-1}$  is inverse to the linear operator  $K: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$  given by

$$(Kf)(\boldsymbol{z}) = \int_{E} K(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) f(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}.$$

Note that the reproducing property holds

$$\langle f, K(\cdot, \boldsymbol{y}) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle K^{-1}f, K(\cdot, \boldsymbol{y}) \rangle_{\boldsymbol{x}} = \langle f, K^{-1}K(\cdot, \boldsymbol{y}) \rangle_{\boldsymbol{x}} = \langle f, \delta_{\boldsymbol{y}} \rangle_{\boldsymbol{x}}$$
  
=  $f(\boldsymbol{y})$ .

• The Gaussian kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'\|_{2}^{2}}{2\lambda}\right), \lambda > 0$$
(9)

The Gaussian kernel has universally bounded norm  $|K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x})|^{1/2} = ||\Phi(\boldsymbol{x})|| = 1$ . Moreover,  $K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') > 0$  for  $\boldsymbol{x} \neq \boldsymbol{x}'$ ; i.e., all points lies in the same orthant

$$\cos(\angle x, x') = \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(x') \rangle = K(x, x') > 0.$$

This indicates that in the Gaussian case, the mapped data lie in a fairly restricted area of feature space. However, in another sense, they occupy a space which is as large as possible: given distinct points  $(\boldsymbol{x}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{x}_m)\subset E$ ,  $\{\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_1),\ldots,\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_m)\}$  are linearly independent and  $[K_{i,j}]=[K(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{x}_j)]$  has full rank.

 $\{\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, \Phi(\mathbf{x}_m)\}$  span an *m*-dimensional subspace of F. Therefore a Gaussian kernel defined on a domain of infinite cardinality, with no a priori restriction on the number of training examples, produces a feature space of *infinite*-dimension.

The eigenfunction of Gaussian kernel can be found using Fourier transformation; i.e.,  $K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = f(\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'\|) \equiv G(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}')$ 

$$\lambda \psi(\boldsymbol{x}) = \int G(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}') \psi(\boldsymbol{x}') d\mu(\boldsymbol{x}') = G \otimes \psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda \mathcal{F} \{\psi\} (\boldsymbol{s}) = \mathcal{F} \{G\} \mathcal{F} \{\psi\} = G(\boldsymbol{s}) \mathcal{F} \{\psi\} (\boldsymbol{s})$$

$$\psi \in \mathcal{F}^{-1} \{N (\lambda I - G(\boldsymbol{s}))\},$$
where  $N (\lambda I - G(\boldsymbol{s})) = \{F(\boldsymbol{s}) : (\lambda I - G(\boldsymbol{s})) F(\boldsymbol{s}) = 0\}$ 

Note that  $\mathcal{F}\{G\}$  of Gaussian is also Gaussian which is rescaled in mass and variance from the original one by some constants. Since the spheres centered at 0 are the sets on which the multiplier equality  $\lambda = G(s)$  can hold,  $\psi \equiv 0$  for  $s \in$  the complementary of a sphere centered at 0.

Thus, the eigenfunctions will be inverse Fourier transforms of *tempered distributions* [Grafakos, 2008] supported in spheres centered at the origin. There are a lot of them, for example, the most familiar ones are the *Bessel functions*, which correspond to uniform surface measure on a nondegenerate sphere.

• The homogeneous polynomial kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \rangle^{d}, d > 0$$
(10)

and inhomogeneous polynomial kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = (\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \rangle + c)^{d}, d > 0$$
(11)

• The  $B_n$ -spline kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = B_{2p+1}(\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'\|), p > 0$$
(12)

where  $B_n = \bigotimes_{i=1}^n I[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$  and  $f \otimes g = \int f(t)g(\tau - t)dt$ .

• All the kernel above (w/o inhomogeneous one) is invariant under the unitary transformation U, i.e.

$$K(Ux, Ux') = \langle \Phi(Ux), \Phi(Ux') \rangle$$
  
=  $\langle \Phi(x), \Phi(x') \rangle = K(x, x')$ 

• The Radial basis function (RBF) kernels are kernels that can be written in the form

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = f\left(d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}')\right) \tag{13}$$

for d(x, x') is the metric on E.

The RBF kernels are unitary invariant, too. In addition, they are translation invariant.

By Bochner's theorem, if a kernel K can be written in terms of ||x - y||, i.e. K(x, y) = f(||x - y||) for some f, then K is a kernel iff the Fourier transform of f is non-negative.

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} S(\boldsymbol{s}) \exp\left(-i\,\boldsymbol{s}^T(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}')\right) d\boldsymbol{s}$$

In terms of this, for RBF kernel, the eigenfunctions can be obtained by Fourier analysis; in particular, it could be Bessel functions etc.

The RBF kernel is sometimes called a convolutional kernel, with the feature map

$$egin{aligned} \Phi_{m{u}} : E \mapsto L^2 \ m{x} \mapsto rac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\sqrt{S})(m{x} - m{u}) \end{aligned}$$

So that

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} \Phi_{\boldsymbol{u}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \Phi_{\boldsymbol{u}}(\boldsymbol{x}') d\boldsymbol{u}$$

For example, for Gaussian kernel

$$\exp\left(-\frac{\left\|\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{x}'\right\|^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}\right) = \left(\frac{4}{\sigma^{2}\pi}\right)^{n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{D}} \exp\left(-\frac{2\left\|\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{u}\right\|^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{2\left\|\boldsymbol{x}'-\boldsymbol{u}\right\|^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}\right) d\boldsymbol{u}$$

with the convolutional feature map

$$\Phi_{\boldsymbol{u}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \left(\frac{2}{\sigma\sqrt{\pi}}\right)^{n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{2\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{u}\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right).$$

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