

Domain Generalization by Marginal Transfer Learning

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Abstract

In the problem of domain generalization (DG), there are labeled training data sets from several related prediction problems, and the goal is to make accurate predictions on future unlabeled data sets that are not known to the learner. This problem arises in several applications where data distributions fluctuate because of environmental, technical, or other sources of variation. We introduce a formal framework for DG, and argue that it can be viewed as a kind of supervised learning problem by augmenting the original feature space with the marginal distribution of feature vectors. While our framework has several connections to conventional analysis of supervised learning algorithms, several unique aspects of DG require new methods of analysis.

This work lays the learning theoretic foundations of domain generalization, building on our earlier conference paper where the problem of DG was introduced (Blanchard et al., 2011). We present two formal models of data generation, corresponding notions of risk, and distribution-free generalization error analysis. By focusing our attention on kernel methods, we also provide more quantitative results and a universally consistent algorithm. An efficient implementation is provided for this algorithm, which is experimentally compared to a pooling strategy on one synthetic and three real-world data sets.

Keywords: Domain Generalization, Generalization Error Bounds, Kernel Methods, Universal Consistency, Kernel Approximation

1. Introduction

Domain generalization (DG) is a machine learning problem where the learner has access to labeled training data sets from several related prediction problems, and must generalize to a future prediction problem for which no labeled data are available. In more detail, there are N labeled training data sets $S_i = (X_{ij}, Y_{ij})_{1 \leq j \leq n_i}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, that describe similar but possibly distinct prediction tasks. The objective is to learn a rule that takes as input

a previously unseen *unlabeled* test data set $X_1^T, \dots, X_{n_T}^T$, and accurately predicts outcomes for these or possibly other unlabeled points from the associated learning task.

DG arises in several applications. One prominent example is precision medicine, where a common objective is to design a patient-specific classifier (e.g., of health status) based on clinical measurements, such as an electrocardiogram or electroencephalogram. In such measurements, patient-to-patient variation is common, arising from biological variations between patients, or technical or environmental factors influencing data acquisition. Because of patient-to-patient variation, a classifier that is trained on data from one patient may not be well matched to another patient. In this context, domain generalization enables the transfer of knowledge from historical patients (for whom labeled data are available) to a new patient without the need to acquire training labels for that patient. A detailed example in the context of flow cytometry is given below.

We view domain generalization as a conventional supervised learning problem where the original feature space is augmented to include the marginal distribution generating the features. We refer to this reframing of DG as “marginal transfer learning,” because it reflects the fact that in DG, information about the test task must be drawn from that task’s marginal feature distribution. Leveraging this perspective, we formulate two statistical frameworks for analyzing DG. The first framework allows the observations within each data set to have arbitrary dependency structure, and makes connections to the literature on Campbell measures and structured prediction. The second framework is a special case of the first, assuming the data points are drawn iid within each task, and allows for a more refined risk analysis.

We further develop a distribution-free kernel machine that employs a kernel on the aforementioned augmented feature space. Our methodology is shown to yield a universally consistent learning procedure under both statistical frameworks, meaning that the domain generalization risk tends to the best possible value as the relevant sample sizes tend infinity, with no assumptions on the data generating distributions. Although DG may be viewed as a conventional supervised learning problem on an augmented feature space, the analysis is nontrivial owing to unique aspects of the sampling plans and risks. We offer a computationally efficient and freely available¹ implementation of our algorithm, and present a thorough experimental study validating the proposed approach on one synthetic and three real-world data sets, including comparisons to a simple pooling approach.

To our knowledge, the problem of domain generalization was first proposed and studied by our earlier conference publication (Blanchard et al., 2011) which this work extends in several ways. It adds (1) a new statistical framework, the agnostic generative model described below; (2) generalization error and consistency results for the new statistical model; (3) an extensive literature review; (4) an extension to the regression setting in both theory and experiments; (5) a more general statistical analysis, in particular, we no longer assume a bounded loss, and therefore accommodate common convex losses such as the hinge and logistic losses; (6) extensive experiments (the conference paper considered a single small dataset); (7) a scalable implementation based on a novel extension of random Fourier features; and (8) error analysis for the random Fourier features approximation.

1. <https://github.com/aniketde/DomainGeneralizationMarginal>

2. Motivating Application: Automatic Gating of Flow Cytometry Data

Flow cytometry is a high-throughput measurement platform that is an important clinical tool for the diagnosis of blood-related pathologies. This technology allows for quantitative analysis of individual cells from a given cell population, derived for example from a blood sample from a patient. We may think of a flow cytometry data set as a set of d -dimensional attribute vectors $(X_j)_{1 \leq j \leq n}$, where n is the number of cells analyzed, and d is the number of attributes recorded per cell. These attributes pertain to various physical and chemical properties of the cell. Thus, a flow cytometry data set may be viewed as a random sample from a patient-specific distribution.

Now suppose a pathologist needs to analyze a new (test) patient with data $(X_j^T)_{1 \leq j \leq n_T}$. Before proceeding, the pathologist first needs the data set to be “purified” so that only cells of a certain type are present. For example, lymphocytes are known to be relevant for the diagnosis of leukemia, whereas non-lymphocytes may potentially confound the analysis. In other words, it is necessary to determine the label $Y_j^T \in \{-1, 1\}$ associated to each cell, where $Y_j^T = 1$ indicates that the j -th cell is of the desired type.

In clinical practice this is accomplished through a manual process known as “gating.” The data are visualized through a sequence of two-dimensional scatter plots, where at each stage a line segment or polygon is manually drawn to eliminate a portion of the unwanted cells. Because of the variability in flow cytometry data, this process is difficult to quantify in terms of a small subset of simple rules. Instead, it requires domain-specific knowledge and iterative refinement. Modern clinical laboratories routinely see dozens of cases per day, so it would be desirable to automate this process.

Since clinical laboratories maintain historical databases, we can assume access to a number (N) of historical (training) patients that have already been expert-gated. Because of biological and technical variations in flow cytometry data, the distributions $P_{XY}^{(i)}$ of the historical patients will vary. To illustrate the flow cytometry gating problem, we use the NDD data set from the FlowCap-I challenge.² For example, Fig. 1 shows exemplary two-dimensional scatter plots for two different patients – see caption for details. Despite differences in the two distributions, there are also general trends that hold for all patients. Virtually every cell type of interest has a known tendency (e.g., high or low) for most measured attributes. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that there is an underlying distribution (on distributions) governing flow cytometry data sets, that produces roughly similar distributions thereby making possible the automation of the gating process.

3. Formal Setting and General Results

In this section we formally define domain generalization via two possible data generation models together with associated notions of risk. We also provide a basic generalization error bound for the first of these data generation models.

Let \mathcal{X} denote the observation space (assumed to be a Radon space) and $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ the output space. Let $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ and $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$ denote the set of probability distributions on \mathcal{X} and $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, respectively. The spaces $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ and $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$ are endowed with the topology of weak convergence and the associated Borel σ -algebras. The symbol \otimes indicates a product measure.

2. We will revisit this data set in Section 8.5 where details are given.

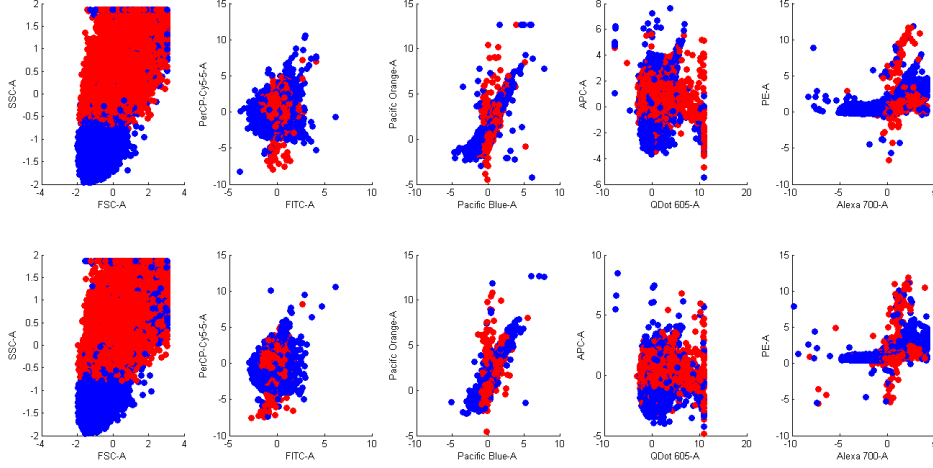


Figure 1: Two-dimensional projections of multi-dimensional flow cytometry data. Each row corresponds to a single patient, and each column to a particular two-dimensional projection. The distribution of cells differs from patient to patient. The colors indicate the results of gating, where a particular type of cell, marked dark (blue), is separated from all other cells, marked bright (red). Labels were manually selected by a domain expert.

The disintegration theorem for joint probability distributions (see for instance Kallenberg, 2002, Theorem 6.4) tells us that (under suitable regularity properties, satisfied if \mathcal{X} is a Radon space) any element $P_{XY} \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$ can be written as a Markov semi-direct product $P_{XY} = P_X \bullet P_{Y|X}$, with $P_X \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$, $P_{Y|X} \in \mathfrak{P}_{Y|X}$, where $\mathfrak{P}_{Y|X}$ is the space of conditional probability distributions of Y given X , also called Markov transition kernels from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{Y} . This specifically means that

$$\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P_{XY}} [h(X, Y)] = \int \left(\int h(x, y) P_{Y|X}(dy|X = x) \right) P_X(dx), \quad (1)$$

for any integrable function $h : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Following common terminology in the statistical learning literature, we will also call $P_{Y|X}$ the *posterior* distribution (of Y given X).

We assume that N training samples $S_i = (X_{ij}, Y_{ij})_{1 \leq j \leq n_i}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, are observed. To allow for possibly unequal sample sizes n_i , it is convenient to formally identify each sample S_i with its associated empirical distribution $\hat{P}_{XY}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \delta_{(X_{ij}, Y_{ij})} \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$. We assume that the ordering of the observations inside a given sample S_i is arbitrary and does not contain any relevant information. We also denote by $\hat{P}_X^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \delta_{X_{ij}} \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ the i th training sample without labels. Similarly, a test sample is denoted by $S^T = (X_j^T, Y_j^T)_{1 \leq j \leq n_T}$, and the empirical distribution of the unlabeled data by \hat{P}_X^T .

3.1 Data Generation Models

We propose two data generation models. The first is most general, and includes the second as a special case.

Assumption 1 (AGM) *There exists a distribution P_S on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$ such that S_1, \dots, S_N are i.i.d. realizations from P_S .*

We call this the *agnostic generative model*. This is a quite general model in which samples are assumed to be identically distributed and independent of each other, but nothing particular is assumed about the generation mechanism for observations inside a given sample, nor for the (random) sample size.

We also introduce a more specific generative mechanism, where observations (X_{ij}, Y_{ij}) inside the sample S_i are themselves i.i.d. from $P_{XY}^{(i)}$, a latent unobserved random distribution, as follows.

Assumption 2 (2SGM) *There exists a distribution μ on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$ and a distribution ν on \mathbb{N} , such that $(P_{XY}^{(1)}, n_1), \dots, (P_{XY}^{(N)}, n_N)$ are i.i.d. realizations from $\mu \otimes \nu$, and conditional to $(P_{XY}^{(i)}, n_i)$ the sample S_i is made of n_i i.i.d. realizations of (X, Y) following the distribution $P_{XY}^{(i)}$.*

This model, called the *2-stage generative model*, is a subcase of **(AGM)**: since the $(P_{XY}^{(i)}, n_i)$ are i.i.d., the samples S_i also are. It has been considered in the distinct but related context of “learning to learn” (Baxter, 2000; see also a more detailed discussion below, Section 4.2). Many of our results will hold for the agnostic generative model, but the two-stage generative model allows for additional developments, as will be discussed further below. This model was the one studied in our conference paper (Blanchard et al., 2011).

3.2 Decision Functions and Augmented Feature Space

In domain generalization, the learner’s goal is to infer from the training data a general rule that takes an arbitrary, previously unseen, unlabeled dataset corresponding to a new prediction task, and produces a classifier for that prediction task that could be applied to any x (possibly outside the unlabeled data set). In other words, the learner should output a mapping $g : \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow (\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$. Equivalently, the learner should output a function $f : \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where the two notations are related via $g(P_X)(x) = f(P_X, x)$. In the latter viewpoint, f may be viewed as a standard decision function on the “augmented” or “extended” feature space $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$, which facilitates connections to standard supervised learning. We refer to this view of DG as *marginal transfer learning*, because the information that facilitates generalization to a new task is conveyed entirely through the marginal distribution. In the next two subsections, we present two definitions of the risk of a decision function f , one associated to each of the two data generation models.

3.3 Risk and Generalization Error Bound under the Agnostic Generative Model

Now consider a test sample $S^T = (X_j^T, Y_j^T)_{1 \leq j \leq n_T}$, whose labels are not observed by the learner. If $\ell : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$ is a loss function for a single prediction, and predictions of a fixed decision function f on the test sample are given by $\hat{Y}_j^T = f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_j^T)$, then the empirical

average loss incurred on the test sample is

$$\mathcal{L}(S^T, f) := \frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{j=1}^{n_T} \ell(\hat{Y}_j^T, Y_j^T).$$

Based on this, we define the risk of a decision function as the average of the above quantity when test samples are drawn according to the same mechanism as the training samples:

$$\mathcal{E}(f) := \mathbb{E}_{S^T \sim P_S} [\mathcal{L}(S^T, f)] = \mathbb{E}_{S^T \sim P_S} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right].$$

In a similar way, we define the empirical risk of a decision function as its average prediction error over the training samples:

$$\hat{\mathcal{E}}(f, N) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(S_i, f) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_{ij}), Y_{ij}). \quad (2)$$

Remark 3 *It is possible to understand the above setting as a particular instance of a structured output learning problem (Tsochantaridis et al., 2005; Bakır et al., 2007), in which the input variable X^* is \hat{P}_X^T , and the “structured output” Y^* is the collection of labels $(Y_i^T)_{1 \leq i \leq n_T}$ (matched to their respective input points). As is generally the case for structured output learning, the nature of the problem and the “structure” of the outputs is very much encoded in the particular form of the loss function. In our setting the loss function is additive over the labels forming the collection Y^* , and we will exploit this particular form for our method and analysis.*

Remark 4 *The risk $\mathcal{E}(f)$ defined above can be described in the following way: consider the random variable $\xi := (\hat{P}_{XY}, (X, Y))$ obtained by first drawing \hat{P}_{XY} according to P_S , then, conditional to this, drawing (X, Y) according to \hat{P}_{XY} . The risk is then the expectation of a certain function of ξ (namely $F_f(\xi) = \ell(f(\hat{P}_X, X), Y)$). In probability theory literature, the distribution of the variable ξ is known as the Campbell measure associated to the distribution P_S over the measure space $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$; this object is in particular of fundamental use in point process theory (see, e.g., Daley and Vere-Jones (2008), Section 13.1). We will denote it by $\mathcal{C}(P_S)$ here. This intriguing connection suggests that more elaborate tools of point process literature may find their use to analyze DG when various classical point processes are considered for the generating distribution. The Campbell measure will also appear in the Rademacher analysis below.*

The next result establishes an analogue of classical Rademacher analysis under the agnostic generative model.

Theorem 5 (Uniform estimation error control under (AGM)) *Let \mathcal{F} be a class of decision functions $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Assume the following boundedness condition holds:*

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \sup_{P_X \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}} \sup_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} \ell(f(P_X, x), y) \leq B_\ell. \quad (3)$$

Under **(AGM)**, if S_1, \dots, S_N are i.i.d. realizations from P_S , then with probability at least $1 - \delta$ with respect to the draws of the training samples:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \widehat{\mathcal{E}}(f, N) - \mathcal{E}(f) \right| \\ & \leq \frac{2}{N} \mathbb{E}_{(\widehat{P}_{XY}^{(i)}; (X_i, Y_i)) \sim \mathcal{C}(P_S) \otimes N} \mathbb{E}_{(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^N \varepsilon_i \ell(f(\widehat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_i), Y_i) \right| \right] + B_\ell \sqrt{\frac{\log(\delta^{-1})}{2N}}, \quad (4) \end{aligned}$$

where $(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ are i.i.d. Rademacher variables, independent from $(\widehat{P}_{XY}^{(i)}, (X_i, Y_i))_{1 \leq i \leq N}$.

Proof Since the $(S_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ are i.i.d., $\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \widehat{\mathcal{E}}(f, N) - \mathcal{E}(f) \right|$ takes the form of a uniform deviation between average and expected loss over the function class \mathcal{F} . We can therefore apply standard analysis (Azuma-McDiarmid inequality followed by Rademacher complexity analysis for a nonnegative bounded loss; see, e.g., Koltchinskii, 2001; Bartlett and Mendelson, 2002, Theorem 8) to obtain that with probability at least $1 - \delta$ with respect to the draw of the training samples $(S_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$:

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \widehat{\mathcal{E}}(f, N) - \mathcal{E}(f) \right| \leq \frac{2}{N} \mathbb{E}_{(S_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \mathbb{E}_{(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^N \varepsilon_i \mathcal{L}(S_i, f) \right| \right] + B_\ell \sqrt{\frac{\log(\delta^{-1})}{2N}},$$

where $(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ are i.i.d. Rademacher variables, independent of $(S_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$.

We may write

$$\mathcal{L}(S_i, f) = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \ell(f(\widehat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_{ij}), Y_{ij}) = \mathbb{E}_{(X, Y) \sim \widehat{P}_{XY}^{(i)}} \left[\ell(f(\widehat{P}_X^{(i)}, X), Y) \right];$$

thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_{(S_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \mathbb{E}_{(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^N \varepsilon_i \mathcal{L}(S_i, f) \right| \right] \\ & = \mathbb{E}_{(\widehat{P}_{XY}^{(i)})_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \mathbb{E}_{(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^N \varepsilon_i \mathbb{E}_{(X_i, Y_i) \sim \widehat{P}_{XY}^{(i)}} \left[\ell(f(\widehat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_i), Y_i) \right] \right| \right] \\ & \leq \mathbb{E}_{(\widehat{P}_{XY}^{(i)})_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \mathbb{E}_{(X_1, Y_1) \sim \widehat{P}_{XY}^{(1)}, \dots, (X_N, Y_N) \sim \widehat{P}_{XY}^{(N)}} \mathbb{E}_{(\varepsilon_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \sum_{i=1}^N \varepsilon_i \ell(f(\widehat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_i), Y_i) \right| \right]. \end{aligned}$$

In the above inequality, the inner expectation on the (X_i, Y_i) is pulled outwards by Jensen's inequality and convexity of the supremum.

To obtain the announced estimate, notice that the above expectation is the same as the expectation w.r.t. to the N -fold Campbell measure $\mathcal{C}(P_S)$ (see Remark 4). \blacksquare

Remark 6 The main term in the theorem is just the conventional Rademacher complexity for the augmented feature space $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$ endowed with the Campbell measure $\mathcal{C}(P_S)$. It could also be thought of as the Rademacher complexity for the meta-distribution P_S .

3.4 Risk under the 2-stage generative model

While we will state more results holding under **(AGM)** below, one advantage of the more specific **(2SGM)** is to allow us to study the effect of the sample sizes n_i . In particular, for the purpose of reducing computational complexity, we can analyze the effect of subsampling observations inside a given sample. Such an analysis would not be possible under **(AGM)**.

For the test sample, parallel to the training data generating mechanism, under **(2SGM)** we assume that (P_{XY}^T, n^T) is drawn according to $\mu \otimes \nu$, and conditional to this the test sample S^T is drawn from n_T i.i.d. realizations of P_{XY}^T .

Observe that under **(2SGM)**, the distribution $P_{XY}^{(i)}$ is not observed and is therefore a latent variable at training time as well as at test time. Still, by the law of large numbers, if n_T becomes large, \widehat{P}_X^T will converge to P_X^T (in the sense of weak convergence). This motivates the introduction of the following risk which assumes access to an infinite test sample, and thus the true marginal P_X^T :

$$\mathcal{E}^\infty(f) := \mathbb{E}_{P_{XY}^T \sim \mu} \mathbb{E}_{(X^T, Y^T) \sim P_{XY}^T} [\ell(f(P_X^T, X^T), Y^T)]. \quad (5)$$

This quantity only makes sense under **(2SGM)**. The following proposition makes the above motivating observation more precise. First, under **(2SGM)**, introduce the following risk conditional to a finite test sample size n_T :

$$\mathcal{E}(f|n_T) = \mathbb{E}_{P_{XY}^T \sim \mu} \mathbb{E}_{(X_i^T, Y_i^T)_{1 \leq i \leq n_T} \sim (P_{XY}^T)^{\otimes n_T}} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\widehat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right]. \quad (6)$$

Proposition 7 *Assume ℓ is a bounded, L -Lipschitz loss function and $f : \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a fixed decision function which is continuous with respect to both its arguments (recalling $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ is endowed with the weak convergence topology). Then it holds under **(2SGM)**:*

$$\lim_{n_T \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{E}(f|n_T) = \mathcal{E}^\infty(f).$$

Remark 8 *This result provides one setting where the risk \mathcal{E}^∞ is clearly motivated as the goal of asymptotic analysis when $n_T \rightarrow \infty$. Although Proposition 7 is not used elsewhere in this work, a more quantitative version of this result is stated below for kernels (see Theorem 15), where convergence holds uniformly and the assumption of a bounded loss is dropped.*

To gain more insight into the risk \mathcal{E}^∞ , recalling the standard decomposition (1) of P_{XY} into the marginal P_X and the posterior $P_{Y|X}$, we observe that we can apply the disintegration theorem not only to any P_{XY} , but also to μ , and thus decompose it into two parts, μ_X which generates the marginal distribution P_X , and $\mu_{Y|X}$ which, conditioned on P_X , generates the posterior $P_{Y|X}$. (More precise notation might be μ_{P_X} instead of μ_X and $\mu_{P_{Y|X}|P_X}$ instead of $\mu_{Y|X}$, but this is rather cumbersome.) Denote $\widetilde{X} = (P_X, X)$. We then have, using Fubini's theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}^\infty(f) &= \mathbb{E}_{P_X \sim \mu_X} \mathbb{E}_{P_{Y|X} \sim \mu_{Y|X}} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_X} \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim P_{Y|X}} [\ell(f(\widetilde{X}), Y)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{P_X \sim \mu_X} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_X} \mathbb{E}_{P_{Y|X} \sim \mu_{Y|X}} \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim P_{Y|X}} [\ell(f(\widetilde{X}), Y)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{(\widetilde{X}, Y) \sim Q^\mu} [\ell(f(\widetilde{X}), Y)]. \end{aligned}$$

Here Q^μ is the distribution that generates \tilde{X} by first drawing P_X according to μ_X , and then drawing X according to P_X ; similarly, Y is generated, conditioned on \tilde{X} , by first drawing $P_{Y|X}$ according to $\mu_{Y|X}$, and then drawing Y from $P_{Y|X}$. (The distribution of \tilde{X} again takes the form of a Campbell measure, see Remark 4.)

From the previous expression, we see that the risk \mathcal{E}^∞ is like a standard supervised learning risk based on $(\tilde{X}, Y) \sim Q^\mu$. Thus, we can deduce properties that are known to hold for supervised learning risks. For example, in the binary classification setting, if the loss is the 0/1 loss, then $f^*(\tilde{X}) = 2\tilde{\eta}(\tilde{X}) - 1$ is an optimal predictor, where $\tilde{\eta}(\tilde{X}) = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim Q_{Y|\tilde{X}}^\mu} [\mathbf{1}_{\{Y=1\}}]$, and

$$\mathcal{E}^\infty(f) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f^*) = \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{X} \sim Q_{\tilde{X}}^\mu} \left[\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{sign}(f(\tilde{X})) \neq \text{sign}(f^*(\tilde{X}))\}} |2\tilde{\eta}(\tilde{X}) - 1| \right].$$

Furthermore, consistency in the sense of \mathcal{E}^∞ with respect to a general loss ℓ (thought of as a surrogate) will imply consistency for the 0/1 loss, provided ℓ is classification calibrated (Bartlett et al., 2006).

For a given loss ℓ , the optimal or Bayes \mathcal{E}^∞ -risk in DG is in general larger than the expected Bayes risk under the (random) test sample generating distribution P_{XY}^T , because it is typically not possible to fully determine the Bayes-optimal predictor from only the marginal P_X^T . There is, however, a condition where for μ -almost all test distributions P_{XY}^T , the decision function $f^*(P_X^T, \cdot)$ (where f^* is a global minimizer of (5)) coincides with an optimal Bayes decision function for P_{XY}^T . This condition is simply that the posterior $P_{Y|X}$ is (μ -almost surely) a function of P_X (in other terms: that with the notation introduced above, $\mu_{Y|X}(P_X)$ is a Dirac measure for μ -almost all P_X). Although we will *not* be assuming this condition throughout the paper under **(2SGM)**, observe that it is implicitly assumed in the motivating application presented in Section 2, where an expert labels the data points by just looking at their marginal distribution.

Lemma 9 *For a fixed distribution P_{XY} , and a decision function $g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, let us denote $\mathcal{R}(g, P_{XY}) = \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P_{XY}} [\ell(g(X), Y)]$ and*

$$\mathcal{R}^*(P_{XY}) := \min_{g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \mathcal{R}(g, P_{XY}) = \min_{g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P_{XY}} [\ell(g(X), Y)]$$

*the corresponding optimal (Bayes) risk for the loss function ℓ under data distribution P_{XY} . Then under **(2SGM)**:*

$$\mathcal{E}^\infty(f^*) \geq \mathbb{E}_{P_{XY} \sim \mu} [\mathcal{R}^*(P_{XY})],$$

where $f^ : \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a minimizer of the idealized DG risk \mathcal{E}^∞ defined in (5).*

Furthermore, if μ is a distribution on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$ such that μ -a.s. it holds $P_{Y|X} = F(P_X)$ for some deterministic mapping F , then for μ -almost all P_{XY} :

$$\mathcal{R}(f^*(P_X, \cdot), P_{XY}) = \mathcal{R}^*(P_{XY})$$

and

$$\mathcal{E}^\infty(f^*) = \mathbb{E}_{P_{XY} \sim \mu} [\mathcal{R}^*(P_{XY})].$$

Proof For any $f : \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, one has for all P_{XY} : $\mathcal{R}(f(P_X, \cdot), P_{XY}) \geq \mathcal{R}^*(P_{XY})$. Taking expectation with respect to P_{XY} establishes the first claim. Now for any fixed $P_X \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$, consider $P_{XY} := P_X \bullet F(P_X)$ and $g^*(P_X)$ a Bayes decision function for this joint distribution. Pose $f(P_X, x) := g^*(P_X)(x)$. Then f coincides for μ -almost all P_{XY} with a Bayes decision function for P_{XY} , achieving equality in the above inequality. The second equality follows by taking expectation over $P_{XY} \sim \mu$. ■

Under **(2SGM)**, we will establish that our proposed learning algorithm is \mathcal{E}^∞ -consistent, provided the average sample size grows to infinity as well as the total number of samples. Thus, the above result provides a condition on μ under which it is possible to asymptotically attain the Bayes risk on any test distribution although *no labels from this test distribution are observed*.

More generally, and speaking informally, if μ is such that $P_{Y|X}$ is close to being a function of P_X in some sense, we can expect the Bayes \mathcal{E}^∞ risk for domain generalization to be close to the expected Bayes risk for a random test distribution. We reiterate, however, that we make no assumptions on μ in this work so that the two quantities may be far apart. In the worst case, the posterior may be independent of the marginal, in which case a method for domain generalization will do no better than the naïve pooling strategy. For further discussion, see the comparison of domain adaptation and domain generalization in the next section.

4. Related Work

Since at least the 1990s, machine learning researchers have investigated the possibility of solving one learning problem by leveraging data from one or more related problems. In this section, we provide an overview of such problems and their relation to domain generalization, while also reviewing prior work on DG.

Two critical terms are *domain* and *task*. Use of these terms is not consistent throughout the literature, but at a minimum, the domain of a learning problem describes the input (feature) space \mathcal{X} and marginal distribution of X , while the task describes the output space \mathcal{Y} and the conditional distribution of Y given X (also called posterior). In many settings, however, the sets \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are the same for all learning problems, and the terms “domain” and “task” are used interchangeably to refer to a joint distribution P_{XY} on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. This is the perspective adopted in this work, as well as in much of the work on multi-task learning, domain adaptation (DA), and domain generalization.

Multi-task learning is similar to DG, except only the training tasks are of interest, and the goal is to leverage the similarity among distributions to improve the learning of individual predictors for each task (Caruana, 1997; Evgeniou et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2009). In contrast, in DG, we are concerned with generalization to a new task.

Domain adaptation refers to the setting in which there is a specific target task and one or more source tasks. The goal is to design a predictor for the target task, for which there are typically few to no labeled training examples, by leveraging labeled training data from the source task(s). DA is reviewed below, and contrasted with DG.

4.1 Domain Generalization vs. Domain Adaptation

Formulations of domain adaptation may take several forms, depending on the number of sources and whether there are any labeled examples from the target to supplement the unlabeled examples. In multi-source, unsupervised domain adaptation, the learner is presented with labeled training data from several source distributions, and unlabeled data from a target marginal distribution (see Zhang et al. (2015) and references therein). Thus, the available data are the same as in domain generalization, and algorithms for one of these problems may be applied to the other. In this section we illuminate the difference between DA and DG.

In all forms of DA, the goal is to attain optimal performance with respect to the joint distribution of the target domain. For example, if the performance measure is a risk, the goal is to attain the Bayes risk for the target domain. To achieve this goal, it is necessary to make assumptions about how the source and target distributions are related (Quionero-Candela et al., 2009). For example, several works adopt the covariate shift assumption, which requires the source and target domains to have the same posterior, allowing the marginals to differ arbitrarily (Zadrozny, 2004; Huang et al., 2007; Cortes et al., 2008; Sugiyama et al., 2008; Bickel et al., 2009; Kanamori et al., 2009; Yu and Szepesvari, 2012; Ben-David and Urner, 2012). Another common assumption is target shift, which stipulates that the source and target have the same class-conditional distributions, allowing the prior class probability to change (Hall, 1981; Titterton, 1983; Latinne et al., 2001; Storkey, 2009; Du Plessis and Sugiyama, 2012; Sanderson and Scott, 2014; Azizzadenesheli et al., 2019). Mansour et al. (2009b); Zhang et al. (2015) assume that the target posterior is a weighted combination of source posteriors, while Zhang et al. (2013); Gong et al. (2016) extend target shift by also allowing the class-conditional distributions to undergo a location-scale shift, and Tasche (2017) assumes the ratio of class-conditional distributions is unchanged. Work on classification with label noise assumes the source data are obtained from the target distribution but the labels have been corrupted in either a label-dependent (Blanchard et al., 2016; Natarajan et al., 2018; van Rooyen and Williamson, 2018) or feature-dependent (Menon et al., 2018; Cannings et al., 2018; Scott, 2019) way. Finally, there are several works that assume the existence of a predictor that achieves good performance on both source and target domains (Ben-David et al., 2007, 2010; Blitzer et al., 2008; Mansour et al., 2009a; Cortes et al., 2015; Germain et al., 2016).

The key difference between DG and DA may be found in the performance measures optimized. In DG, the goal is to design a single predictor $f(P_X, x)$ that can apply to any future task, and risk is assessed with respect to the draw of both a new task, and (under **2SGM**) a new data point from that task. This is in contrast to DA, where the target distribution is typically considered fixed, and the goal is to design a predictor $f(x)$ where, in assessing the risk, the only randomness is in the draw of a new sample from the target task. This difference in performance measures for DG and DA has an interesting consequence for analysis. As we will show, it is possible to attain optimal risk (asymptotically) in DG without making any distributional assumptions like those described above for DA. Of course, this optimal risk is typically larger than the Bayes risk for any particular target domain (see Lemma 9). An interesting question for future research is whether it is possible to

close or eliminate this gap (between DG and expected DA risks) by imposing distributional assumptions like those for DA.

Another difference between DA and DG lies in whether the learning algorithm must be rerun for each new test data set. Most unsupervised DA methods employ the unlabeled target data for training and thus, when a new unlabeled target data set is presented, the learning algorithm must be rerun. In contrast, most existing DG methods do not assume access to the unlabeled test data at learning time, and are capable of making predictions as new unlabeled data sets arrive without any further training.

4.2 Domain Generalization vs. Learning to Learn

In the problem of learning to learn (LTL, Thrun, 1996), which has also been called bias learning, meta-learning, and (typically in an online setting) lifelong learning, there are labeled datasets for several tasks, as in DG. There is also a given family of learning algorithms, and the objective is to design a meta-learner that selects the learning algorithm that will perform best on future tasks. The learning theoretic study of LTL traces to the work of Baxter (2000), who was the first to propose a distribution on tasks, which he calls an “environment,” and which coincides with our μ . Given this setting, the performance of the learning algorithm selected by a meta-learner is obtained by drawing a new task at random, drawing a labeled training dataset from that task, running the selected algorithm, drawing a test point, and evaluating the expected loss, where the expectation is with respect to all sources of randomness (new task, training data from new task, test point from new task).

Baxter analyzes learning algorithms given by usual empirical risk minimization over a hypothesis (prediction function) class, and the goal of the meta-learner is then to select a hypothesis class from a family of such classes. He shows that it is possible to find a good trade-off between the complexity of a hypothesis class and its approximation capabilities for tasks sampled from μ , in an average sense. In particular, the information gained by finding a well-adapted hypothesis class can lead to significantly improved sample efficiency when learning a new task. See Maurer (2009) for a discussion of the performance measure studied by Baxter (2000), which is slightly different from the one described above.

Later work on LTL establishes similar results that quantify the ability of a meta-learner to transfer knowledge to a new task. These meta-learners all optimize a particular structure that defines a learning algorithm, such as a feature representation (Maurer, 2009; Maurer et al., 2016; Denevi et al., 2018a), a prior on predictors in a PAC-Bayesian setting (Pentina and Lampert, 2014), a dictionary (Maurer et al., 2013), the bias of a regularizer (Denevi et al., 2018b), and a pretrained neural network (Finn et al., 2017). It is also worth noting that some algorithms on multi-task learning extract structures that characterize an environment and can be applied to LTL.

Although DG and LTL both involve generalization to a new task, they are clearly different problems because LTL assumes access to labeled data from the new task, whereas DG only sees unlabeled data and requires no additional learning. In LTL, the learner can achieve the Bayes risk for the new task, the only issue is the sample complexity. DG is thus a more challenging problem, but also potentially more useful since in many transfer learning settings, labeled data for the new task are unavailable.

4.3 Prior Work on Domain Generalization

To our knowledge, the first paper to consider domain generalization (as formulated in Section 3.2) was our earlier conference paper (Blanchard et al., 2011). The term “domain generalization” was coined by Muandet et al. (2013), who study the same setting and build upon our work by extracting features that facilitate DG. Carbonell et al. (2013) study an active learning variant of DG in the realizable setting, and directly learn the task sampling distribution.

Other methods for DG were studied by Khosla et al. (2012); Xu et al. (2014); Grubinger et al. (2015); Ghifary et al. (2015); Gan et al. (2016); Ghifary et al. (2017); Motiian et al. (2017); Li et al. (2017, 2018a,b,c,d); Balaji et al. (2018); Ding and Fu (2018); Shankar et al. (2018); Hu et al. (2019); Dou et al. (2019); Carlucci et al. (2019); Wang et al. (2019); Akuzawa et al. (2019). Many of these methods learn a common feature space for all tasks. Such methods are complementary to the method that we study. Indeed, our kernel-based learning algorithm may be applied after having learned a feature representation by another method, as was done by Muandet et al. (2013). Since our interest is primarily theoretical, we restrict our experimental comparison to another algorithm that also operates directly on the original input space, namely, a simple pooling algorithm that lumps all training tasks into a single data set and trains a single support vector machine.

5. Learning Algorithm

In this section, we introduce a concrete algorithm to tackle the learning problem exposed in Section 3, using an approach based on kernels. The function $k : \Omega \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a *kernel* on Ω if the matrix $(k(x_i, x_j))_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ is symmetric and positive semi-definite for all positive integers n and all $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \Omega$. It is well known that every kernel k on Ω is associated to a space of functions $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ called the reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) \mathcal{H}_k with kernel k . One way to envision \mathcal{H}_k is as follows. Define $\Phi(x) := k(\cdot, x)$, which is called the *canonical feature map* associated with k . Then the span of $\{\Phi(x) : x \in \Omega\}$, endowed with the inner product $\langle \Phi(x), \Phi(x') \rangle = k(x, x')$, is dense in \mathcal{H}_k . We also recall the *reproducing property*, which states that $\langle f, \Phi(x) \rangle = f(x)$ for all $f \in \mathcal{H}_k$ and $x \in \Omega$.

For later use, we introduce the notion of a *universal* kernel. A kernel k on a compact metric space Ω is said to be *universal* when its RKHS is dense in $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$, the set of continuous functions on Ω , with respect to the supremum norm. Universal kernels are important for establishing universal consistency of many learning algorithms. See Steinwart and Christmann (2008) for background on kernels and reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces.

Several well-known learning algorithms, such as support vector machines and kernel ridge regression, may be viewed as minimizers of a norm-regularized empirical risk over the RKHS of a kernel. A similar development has also been made for multi-task learning (Evgeniou et al., 2005). Inspired by this framework, we consider a general kernel-based algorithm as follows.

Consider the loss function $\ell : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. Let \bar{k} be a kernel on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$, and let $\mathcal{H}_{\bar{k}}$ be the associated RKHS. For the sample S_i , recall that $\hat{P}_X^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \delta_{X_{ij}}$ denotes the corresponding empirical X distribution. Also consider the extended input space $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$ and the extended data $\tilde{X}_{ij} = (\hat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_{ij})$. Note that $\hat{P}_X^{(i)}$ plays a role analogous to the task

index in multi-task learning. Now define

$$\hat{f}_\lambda = \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_{\bar{k}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \ell(f(\tilde{X}_{ij}), Y_{ij}) + \lambda \|f\|^2. \quad (7)$$

Algorithms for solving (7) will be discussed in Section 7.

5.1 Specifying the Kernels

In the rest of the paper we will consider a kernel \bar{k} on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$ of the product form

$$\bar{k}((P_1, x_1), (P_2, x_2)) = k_P(P_1, P_2) k_X(x_1, x_2), \quad (8)$$

where k_P is a kernel on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ and k_X a kernel on \mathcal{X} .

Furthermore, we will consider kernels on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ of a particular form. Let k'_X denote a kernel on \mathcal{X} (which might be different from k_X) that is measurable and bounded. We define the *kernel mean embedding* $\Psi : \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$:

$$P_X \mapsto \Psi(P_X) := \int_{\mathcal{X}} k'_X(x, \cdot) dP_X(x). \quad (9)$$

This mapping has been studied in the framework of “characteristic kernels” (Gretton et al., 2007a), and it has been proved that universality of k'_X implies injectivity of Ψ (Gretton et al., 2007b; Sriperumbudur et al., 2010).

Note that the mapping Ψ is linear. Therefore, if we consider the kernel $k_P(P_X, P'_X) = \langle \Psi(P_X), \Psi(P'_X) \rangle$, it is a linear kernel on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ and cannot be a universal kernel. For this reason, we introduce yet another kernel \mathfrak{K} on $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$ and consider the kernel on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ given by

$$k_P(P_X, P'_X) = \mathfrak{K}(\Psi(P_X), \Psi(P'_X)). \quad (10)$$

Note that particular kernels inspired by the finite dimensional case are of the form

$$\mathfrak{K}(v, v') = F(\|v - v'\|), \quad (11)$$

or

$$\mathfrak{K}(v, v') = G(\langle v, v' \rangle), \quad (12)$$

where F, G are real functions of a real variable such that they define a kernel. For example, $F(t) = \exp(-t^2/(2\sigma^2))$ yields a Gaussian-like kernel, while $G(t) = (1 + t)^d$ yields a polynomial-like kernel. Kernels of the above form on the space of probability distributions over a compact space \mathcal{X} have been introduced and studied in Christmann and Steinwart (2010). Below we apply their results to deduce that \bar{k} is a universal kernel for certain choices of k_X, k'_X , and \mathfrak{K} .

5.2 Relation to Other Kernel Methods

By choosing \bar{k} differently, one can recover other existing kernel methods. In particular, consider the class of kernels of the same product form as above, but where

$$k_P(P_X, P'_X) = \begin{cases} 1 & P_X = P'_X \\ \tau & P_X \neq P'_X \end{cases}$$

If $\tau = 0$, the algorithm (7) corresponds to training N kernel machines $f(\hat{P}_X^{(i)}, \cdot)$ using kernel k_X (e.g., support vector machines in the case of the hinge loss) on each training data set, independently of the others (note that this does not offer any generalization ability to a new data set). If $\tau = 1$, we have a “pooling” strategy that, in the case of equal sample sizes n_i , is equivalent to pooling all training data sets together in a single data set, and running a conventional supervised learning algorithm with kernel k_X (*i.e.*, this corresponds to trying to find a single “one-fits-all” prediction function which does not depend on the marginal). In the intermediate case $0 < \tau < 1$, the resulting kernel is a “multi-task kernel,” and the algorithm recovers a multitask learning algorithm like that of Evgeniou et al. (2005). We compare to the pooling strategy below in our experiments. We also examined the multi-task kernel with $\tau < 1$, but found that, as far as generalization to a new unlabeled task is concerned, it was always outperformed by pooling, and so those results are not reported. This fits the observation that the choice $\tau = 0$ does not provide any generalization to a new task, while $\tau = 1$ at least offers some form of generalization, if only by fitting the same predictor to all data sets.

In the special case where all labels Y_{ij} are the same value for a given task, and k_X is taken to be the constant kernel, the problem we consider reduces to “distributional” classification or regression, which is essentially standard supervised learning where a distribution (observed through a sample) plays the role of the feature vector. Many of our analysis techniques specialize to this setting.

6. Learning Theoretic Study

This section presents generalization error and consistency analysis for the proposed kernel method under the agnostic and 2-stage generative models. Although the regularized estimation formula (7) defining \hat{f}_λ is standard, the generalization error analysis is not, owing to the particular sampling structures and risks under **(AGM)** and **(2SGM)**.

6.1 Universal Consistency under the Agnostic Generative Model

We will consider the following assumptions on the loss function and kernels:

(LB) The loss function $\ell : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ is L_ℓ -Lipschitz in its first variable and satisfies $B_0 := \sup_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \ell(0, y) < \infty$.

(K-Bounded) The kernels k_X, k'_X and \mathfrak{K} are bounded respectively by constants $B_k^2, B_{k'}^2 \geq 1$, and $B_{\mathfrak{K}}^2$.

The condition $B_0 < \infty$ always holds for classification, as well as certain regression settings. The boundedness assumptions are clearly satisfied for Gaussian kernels, and can be enforced by normalizing the kernel (discussed further below).

We begin with a generalization error bound that establishes uniform estimation error control over functions belonging to a ball of $\mathcal{H}_{\bar{k}}$. We then discuss universal kernels, and finally deduce universal consistency of the algorithm.

Let $\mathcal{B}_k(r)$ denote the closed ball of radius r , centered at the origin, in the RKHS of the kernel k . We start with the following simple result allowing us to bound the loss on a RKHS ball.

Lemma 10 Suppose k is a kernel on a set Ω , bounded by B^2 . Let $\ell : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ be a loss satisfying **(LB)**. Then for any $R > 0$ and $f \in B_k(R)$, and any $z \in \Omega$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$|\ell(f(z), y)| \leq B_0 + L_\ell R B \quad (13)$$

Proof By the Lipschitz continuity of ℓ , the reproducing property, and Cauchy-Schwarz, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\ell(f(z), y)| &\leq \ell(0, y) + |\ell(f(z), y) - \ell(0, y)| \\ &\leq B_0 + L_\ell |f(z) - 0| \\ &= B_0 + L_\ell |\langle f, k(z, \cdot) \rangle| \\ &\leq B_0 + L_\ell \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_k} B \\ &\leq B_0 + L_\ell R B. \end{aligned}$$

■

The expression in (13) serves to replace the boundedness assumption (3) in Theorem 5. We now state the following, which is a specialization of Theorem 5 to the kernel setting.

Theorem 11 (Uniform estimation error control over RKHS balls) Assume **(LB)** and **(K-Bounded)** hold, and data generation follows **(AGM)**. Then for any $R > 0$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$ (with respect to the draws of the samples $S_i, i = 1, \dots, N$)

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \widehat{\mathcal{E}}(f, N) - \mathcal{E}(f) \right| \leq (B_0 + L_\ell R B_{\bar{\mathcal{R}}} B_k) \frac{(\sqrt{\log \delta^{-1}} + 2)}{\sqrt{N}}. \quad (14)$$

Proof This is a direct consequence of Theorem 5 and of Lemma 10, the kernel \bar{k} on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$ being bounded by $B_k^2 B_{\bar{\mathcal{R}}}^2$. As noted there, the main term in the upper bound (4) is a standard Rademacher complexity on the augmented input space $\mathfrak{P} \times \mathcal{X}$, endowed with the Campbell measure $\mathcal{C}(P_S)$.

In the kernel learning context, we can bound the Rademacher complexity term using a standard bound for the Rademacher complexity of a Lipschitz loss function on the ball of radius R of $\mathcal{H}_{\bar{k}}$ (Koltchinskii, 2001; Bartlett and Mendelson, 2002, e.g., Theorems 8, 12 and Lemma 22 there), using again the bound $B_k^2 B_{\bar{\mathcal{R}}}^2$ on the kernel \bar{k} , giving the conclusion. ■

Next, we turn our attention to universal kernels (see Section 5 for the definition). A relevant notion for our purposes is that of a normalized kernel. If k is a kernel on Ω , then

$$k^*(x, x') := \frac{k(x, x')}{\sqrt{k(x, x)k(x', x')}}$$

is the associated *normalized* kernel. If a kernel is universal, then so is its associated normalized kernel. For example, the exponential kernel $k(x, x') = \exp(\kappa \langle x, x' \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^d})$, $\kappa > 0$, can be shown to be universal on \mathbb{R}^d through a Taylor series argument. Consequently, the Gaussian kernel

$$k_\sigma(x, x') := \frac{\exp(\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \langle x, x' \rangle)}{\exp(\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|x\|^2) \exp(\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|x'\|^2)}$$

is universal, being the normalized kernel associated with the exponential kernel with $\kappa = 1/\sigma^2$. See Steinwart and Christmann (2008) for additional details and discussion.

To establish that \bar{k} is universal on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$, the following lemma is useful.

Lemma 12 *Let Ω, Ω' be two compact spaces and k, k' be kernels on Ω, Ω' , respectively. If k, k' are both universal, then the product kernel*

$$\bar{k}((x, x'), (y, y')) := k(x, y)k'(x', y')$$

is universal on $\Omega \times \Omega'$.

Several examples of universal kernels are known on Euclidean space. For our purposes, we also need universal kernels on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$. Fortunately, this was studied by Christmann and Steinwart (2010). Some additional assumptions on the kernels and feature space are required:

(K-Univ) k_X, k'_X, \mathfrak{K} , and \mathcal{X} satisfy the following:

- \mathcal{X} is a compact metric space
- k_X is universal on \mathcal{X}
- k'_X is continuous and universal on \mathcal{X}
- \mathfrak{K} is universal on any compact subset of $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$.

Adapting the results of Christmann and Steinwart (2010), we have the following.

Theorem 13 (Universal kernel) *Assume condition (K-Univ) holds. Then, for k_P defined as in (10), the product kernel \bar{k} in (8) is universal on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$.*

Furthermore, the assumption on \mathfrak{K} is fulfilled if \mathfrak{K} is of the form (12), where G is an analytical function with positive Taylor series coefficients, or if \mathfrak{K} is the normalized kernel associated to such a kernel.

Proof By Lemma 12, it suffices to show $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$ is a compact metric space, and that $k_P(P_X, P'_X)$ is universal on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$. The former statement follows from Theorem 6.4 of Parthasarathy (1967), where the metric is the Prohorov metric. We will deduce the latter statement from Theorem 2.2 of Christmann and Steinwart (2010). The statement of Theorem 2.2 there is apparently restricted to kernels of the form (12), but the proof actually only uses that the kernel \mathfrak{K} is universal on any compact set of $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$. To apply Theorem 2.2, it remains to show that $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$ is a separable Hilbert space, and that Ψ is injective and continuous. Injectivity of Ψ is equivalent to k'_X being a characteristic kernel, and follows from the assumed universality of k'_X (Sriperumbudur et al., 2010). The continuity of k'_X implies separability of $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$ (Steinwart and Christmann (2008), Lemma 4.33) as well as continuity of Ψ (Christmann and Steinwart (2010), Lemma 2.3 and preceding discussion). Now Theorem 2.2 of Christmann and Steinwart (2010) may be applied, and the results follows.

The fact that kernels of the form (12), where G is analytic with positive Taylor coefficients, are universal on any compact set of $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$ was established in the proof of Theorem 2.2 of the same work (Christmann and Steinwart, 2010). ■

As an example, suppose that \mathcal{X} is a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^d . Let k_X and k'_X be Gaussian kernels on \mathcal{X} . Taking $G(t) = \exp(t)$, it follows that $\mathfrak{K}(P_X, P'_X) = \exp(\langle \Psi(P_X), \Psi(P'_X) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}})$ is universal on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$. By similar reasoning as in the finite dimensional case, the Gaussian-like kernel $\mathfrak{K}(P_X, P'_X) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\Psi(P_X) - \Psi(P'_X)\|_{\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}}^2)$ is also universal on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$. Thus the product kernel is universal on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$.

From Theorems 11 and 13, we may deduce universal consistency of the learning algorithm.

Corollary 14 (Universal consistency) *Assume that conditions **(LB)**, **(K-Bounded)** and **(K-Univ)** are satisfied. Let $\lambda = \lambda(N)$ be a sequence such that as $N \rightarrow \infty$: $\lambda(N) \rightarrow 0$ and $\lambda(N)N/\log N \rightarrow \infty$. Then*

$$\mathcal{E}(\hat{f}_{\lambda(N)}) \rightarrow \inf_{f: \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \mathcal{E}(f) \text{ a.s., as } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

The proof of the corollary relies on the bound established in Theorem 11, the universality of \bar{k} established in Theorem 13, and otherwise relatively standard arguments.

One notable feature of this result is that we have established consistency where only N is required to diverge. In particular, the training sample sizes n_i may remain bounded. In the next subsection, we consider the role of the n_i under the 2-stage generative model.

6.2 Role of the Individual Sample Sizes under the 2-Stage Generative Model

In this section, we are concerned with the role of the individual sample sizes $(n_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$. More precisely, in some applications the number of training points per task is large, which can give rise to a high computational burden at the learning stage (and also for storing the learned model in computer memory). We investigate to which extent reducing the number of training points per task (by random subsampling) in order to reduce computational burden can be done without suffering a significant loss in statistical performance. For this we need a more specific model for the generating model of points in each task, and we therefore assume here that the **(2SGM)**, introduced in Section 3.1, holds.

We will consider the following additional assumption.

(K-Hölder) The canonical feature map $\Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}: \mathcal{H}_{k'_X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{\mathfrak{K}}$ associated to \mathfrak{K} satisfies a Hölder condition of order $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ with constant $\tilde{L}_{\mathfrak{K}}$, on $\mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'})$:

$$\forall v, w \in \mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'}): \quad \|\Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(v) - \Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(w)\| \leq L_{\mathfrak{K}} \|v - w\|^\alpha. \quad (15)$$

Sufficient conditions for (15) are described in Section A.4. As an example, the condition is shown to hold with $\alpha = 1$ when \mathfrak{K} is the Gaussian-like kernel on $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$.

Since we are interested in the influence of the number of training points per task, it is helpful to introduce notations for the **(2SGM)** risks that are conditioned on a fixed task P_{XY} . Thus, we introduce the following notation, in analogy to (5)–(6) introduced in

Section 3.4, for risk at sample size n , and risk at infinite sample size, conditional to P_{XY} :

$$\mathcal{E}(f|P_{XY}, n) := \mathbb{E}_{S^T \sim (P_{XY})^{\otimes n}} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(\hat{P}_X, X_i), Y_i) \right]; \quad (16)$$

$$\mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY}) := \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P_{XY}} [\ell(f(P_X, X), Y)]. \quad (17)$$

The following proposition gives an upper bound on the discrepancy between these risks. It can be seen as a quantitative version of Proposition 7 in the kernel setting, which is furthermore uniform over an RKHS ball.

Theorem 15 *Assume conditions **(LB)**, **(K-Bounded)**, and **(K-Hölder)** hold. If the sample $S = (X_j, Y_j)_{1 \leq j \leq n}$ is made of n i.i.d. realizations from P_{XY} , with P_{XY} and n fixed, then for any $R > 0$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$:*

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} |\mathcal{L}(S, f) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY})| \leq (B_0 + 3L_\ell R B_k (B_{k'}^\alpha L_{\mathfrak{R}} + B_{\mathfrak{R}})) \left(\frac{\log(3\delta^{-1})}{n} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}}. \quad (18)$$

Averaging over the draw of S , again with P_{XY} and n fixed, it holds for any $R > 0$:

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} |\mathcal{E}(f|P_{XY}, n) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY})| \leq 2L_\ell R B_k L_{\mathfrak{R}} B_{k'}^\alpha n^{-\alpha/2}. \quad (19)$$

As a consequence, for the unconditional risks when (P_{XY}, n) is drawn from $\mu \otimes \nu$ under **(2SGM)**, for any $R > 0$:

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} |\mathcal{E}(f) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f)| \leq 2RL_\ell B_k L_{\mathfrak{R}} B_{k'}^\alpha \mathbb{E} \left[n^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}} \right]. \quad (20)$$

The above results are useful in a number of ways. First, under **(2SGM)**, we can consider the goal of asymptotically achieving the optimal risk $\inf_f \mathcal{E}^\infty(f)$, where we recall that $\mathcal{E}^\infty(f)$ is the expected loss of a decision function f over a random test task P_{XY}^T in the case where P_X^T would be perfectly observed (this can be thought of as observing as an infinite sample from the marginal). Equation (20) bounds the risk under **(2SGM)** in terms of the risk under **(AGM)**, for which we have already established consistency. Thus, consistency under **(2SGM)** will be possible if the number of examples n_i per training task also grows together with the number of training tasks N . The following result formalizes this intuition.

Corollary 16 *Assume **(LB)**, **(K-Bounded)**, and **(K-Hölder)** hold, and let n be fixed. If $P_{XY}^{(1)}, \dots, P_{XY}^{(N)}$ are drawn i.i.d. from μ , and the corresponding samples S_1, \dots, S_N are i.i.d. all of size n from their respective distributions, then for any $R > 0$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$ with respect to the draws of the training tasks and training samples*

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(S_i, f) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f) \right| \\ \leq (B_0 + L_\ell R B_{\mathfrak{R}} B_k) \frac{(\sqrt{\log \delta^{-1}} + 2)}{\sqrt{N}} + 2RL_\ell B_k L_{\mathfrak{R}} B_{k'}^\alpha n^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}}. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Furthermore, if assumption **(K-Univ)** is satisfied and, as the number of training tasks $N \rightarrow \infty$, the sample size $n = n(N) \rightarrow \infty$, and the regularization parameter $\lambda(N)$ is such that $\lambda(N) \rightarrow 0$ and $\lambda(N) \min(N, n^\alpha) \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$\mathcal{E}(\hat{f}_{\lambda(N)}) \rightarrow \inf_{f: \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \mathcal{E}^\infty(f) \text{ in probability, as } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof The setting is that of the **(2GSM)** model, where the sample size is fixed at n (i.e. the sample size distribution ν is the Dirac δ_n). This is a particular case of **(AGM)**, so we can apply Theorem 11 and combine with (20) (wherein the test sample is also of size n) to get the announced bound. The consistency statement follows the same argument as in the proof of Corollary 14, with $\mathcal{E}(f)$ replaced by $\mathcal{E}^\infty(f)$, and $\varepsilon(N)$ there replaced by the RHS in (21). We consider only consistency in probability this time, since a.s. consistency does not appear of relevance in a setting where the individual training task sample size grows with the number of tasks. ■

Remark 17 Our conference paper (Blanchard et al., 2011) also established a generalization error bound and consistency for \mathcal{E}^∞ under **(2SGM)**. That bound had a different form for two main reasons. First, it assumed the loss to be bounded, whereas the present analysis avoids that assumption via Lemma 10. Second, that analysis did not leverage a connection to **(AGM)**, which led to a $\log N$ in the second term. This required the two sample sizes to be coupled asymptotically to achieve consistency. In the present analysis, the two sample sizes N and n may diverge at arbitrary rates.

Remark 18 It is possible to obtain a result similar to Corollary 16 when the training task sample sizes $(n_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ are unequal and possibly arbitrary. In this case we would follow a slightly different argument, using (18) for all training tasks together with a union bound, and applying Theorem 11 to the idealized situation with an infinite number of samples per training task. This way, the order $n^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ is replaced by $\log(N)N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N n_i^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$. We eschew an exact statement for brevity.

Coming back to our initial motivation of possibly reducing computational burden by subsampling, using (21) we can compare under **(2SGM)** the two settings where we have the same task generating distribution μ but different individual training task sample sizes n versus $n' < n$. Under the **(2SGM)** model, the setting $n' < n$ can be obtained by simple random subsampling of the original data. We see that the statistical risk bound in (21) is unchanged up to a small factor if $n' \geq \min(N^\alpha, n)$. Assuming $\alpha = 1$ to simplify, in the case where the original sample sizes n are much larger than the number of training tasks N , this suggests that we can subsample to $n' \approx N$ without taking a significant hit to generalization performance. This applies equally well to subsampling the tasks used for prediction or testing. The most precise statement in this regard is (18), since it bounds the deviations of the observed prediction loss for a fixed task P_{XY} and i.i.d. sample from that task.

The minimal subsampling size n' can be interpreted as an optimal efficiency/accuracy tradeoff, since it reduces computational complexity as much as possible without sacrificing statistical accuracy. Similar considerations appear in the context of distribution regression (Szabó et al., 2016, Remark 6). In that reference, a sharp analysis giving rise to fast

convergence rates is presented, resulting in a more involved optimal balance between N and n . In the present work, we have focused on *slow rates* based on a uniform control of the estimation error over RKHS balls; we leave for future work sharper convergence bounds (under additional regularity conditions), which would also give rise to more refined balancing conditions between n and N .

7. Implementation

Implementation³ of the algorithm in (7) relies on techniques that are similar to those used for other kernel methods, but with some variations. The first subsection illustrates how, for the case of hinge loss, the optimization problem corresponds to a certain cost-sensitive support vector machine. Subsequent subsections focus on more scalable implementations based on approximate feature mappings.

7.1 Representer Theorem and Hinge loss

For a particular loss ℓ , existing algorithms for optimizing an empirical risk based on that loss can be adapted to the setting of marginal transfer learning. We now illustrate this idea for the case of the hinge loss, $\ell(t, y) = \max(0, 1 - yt)$. To make the presentation more concise, we will employ the extended feature representation $\tilde{X}_{ij} = (\hat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_{ij})$, and we will also “vectorize” the indices (i, j) so as to employ a single index on these variables and on the labels. Thus the training data are $(\tilde{X}_i, Y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq M}$, where $M = \sum_{i=1}^N n_i$, and we seek a solution to

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}_{\bar{k}}} \sum_{i=1}^M c_i \max(0, 1 - Y_i f(\tilde{X}_i)) + \frac{1}{2} \|f\|^2.$$

Here $c_i = \frac{1}{\lambda N n_m}$, where m is the smallest positive integer such that $i \leq n_1 + \dots + n_m$. By the representer theorem (Steinwart and Christmann, 2008), the solution of (7) has the form

$$\hat{f}_\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^M r_i \bar{k}(\tilde{X}_i, \cdot)$$

for real numbers r_i . Plugging this expression into the objective function of (7), and introducing the auxiliary variables ξ_i , we have the quadratic program

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{r, \xi} \quad & \frac{1}{2} r^T \bar{K} r + \sum_{i=1}^M c_i \xi_i \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & Y_i \sum_{j=1}^M r_j \bar{k}(\tilde{X}_i, \tilde{X}_j) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad \forall i \\ & \xi_i \geq 0, \quad \forall i, \end{aligned}$$

3. Software available at <https://github.com/aniketde/DomainGeneralizationMarginal>

where $\bar{K} := (\bar{k}(\tilde{X}_i, \tilde{X}_j))_{1 \leq i, j \leq M}$. Using Lagrange multiplier theory, the dual quadratic program is

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha} \quad & -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^M \alpha_i \alpha_j Y_i Y_j \bar{k}(\tilde{X}_i, \tilde{X}_j) + \sum_{i=1}^M \alpha_i \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq c_i \quad \forall i, \end{aligned}$$

and the optimal function is

$$\hat{f}_{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^M \alpha_i Y_i \bar{k}(\tilde{X}_i, \cdot).$$

This is equivalent to the dual of a cost-sensitive support vector machine, without offset, where the costs are given by c_i . Therefore we can learn the weights α_i using any existing software package for SVMs that accepts example-dependent costs and a user-specified kernel matrix, and allows for no offset. Returning to the original notation, the final predictor given a test X -sample S^T has the form

$$\hat{f}_{\lambda}(\hat{P}_X^T, x) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \alpha_{ij} Y_{ij} \bar{k}((\hat{P}_X^{(i)}, X_{ij}), (\hat{P}_X^T, x))$$

where the α_{ij} are nonnegative. Like the SVM, the solution is often sparse, meaning most α_{ij} are zero.

Finally, we remark on the computation of $k_P(\hat{P}_X, \hat{P}_X')$. When \mathfrak{K} has the form of (11) or (12), the calculation of k_P may be reduced to computations of the form $\langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}_X') \rangle$. If \hat{P}_X and \hat{P}_X' are empirical distributions based on the samples X_1, \dots, X_n and $X'_1, \dots, X'_{n'}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}_X') \rangle &= \left\langle \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k'_X(X_i, \cdot), \frac{1}{n'} \sum_{j=1}^{n'} k'_X(X'_j, \cdot) \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{nn'} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{n'} k'_X(X_i, X'_j). \end{aligned}$$

Note that when k'_X is a (normalized) Gaussian kernel, $\Psi(\hat{P}_X)$ coincides (as a function) with a smoothing kernel density estimate for P_X .

7.2 Approximate Feature Mapping for Scalable Implementation

Assuming $n_i = n$, for all i , the computational complexity of a nonlinear SVM solver (in our context) is between $O(N^2 n^2)$ and $O(N^3 n^3)$ (Joachims, 1999; Chang and Lin, 2011). Thus, standard nonlinear SVM solvers may be insufficient when N or n are very large.

One approach to scaling up kernel methods is to employ approximate feature mappings together with linear solvers. This is based on the idea that kernel methods are solving for a linear predictor after first nonlinearly transforming the data. Since this nonlinear transformation can have an extremely high- or even infinite-dimensional output, classical kernel

methods avoid computing it explicitly. However, if the feature mapping can be approximated by a finite dimensional transformation with a relatively low-dimensional output, one can directly solve for the linear predictor, which can be accomplished in $O(Nn)$ time (Hsieh et al., 2008).

In particular, given a kernel \bar{k} , the goal is to find an approximate feature mapping $\bar{z}(\tilde{x})$ such that $\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') \approx \bar{z}(\tilde{x})^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x}')$. Given such a mapping \bar{z} , one then applies an efficient linear solver, such as Liblinear (Fan et al., 2008), to the training data $(\bar{z}(\tilde{X}_{ij}), Y_{ij})_{ij}$ to obtain a weight vector w . The final prediction on a test point \tilde{x} is then $w^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x})$. As described in the previous subsection, the linear solver may need to be tweaked, as in the case of unequal sample sizes n_i , but this is usually straightforward.

Recently, such low-dimensional approximate feature mappings $z(x)$ have been developed for several kernels. We examine two such techniques in the context of marginal transfer learning, the Nyström approximation (Williams and Seeger, 2001; Drineas and Mahoney, 2005) and random Fourier features. The Nyström approximation applies to any kernel method, and therefore extends to the marginal transfer setting without additional work. On the other hand, we give a novel extension of random Fourier features to the marginal transfer learning setting (for the case of all Gaussian kernels), together with performance analysis. Our approach is similar to the one in Jitkrittum et al. (2015) which proposes a two-stage approximation for the mean embedding. Note that Jitkrittum et al. (2015) does not give an error bound.

7.2.1 RANDOM FOURIER FEATURES

The approximation of Rahimi and Recht (2007) is based on Bochner’s theorem, which characterizes shift invariant kernels.

Theorem 19 *A continuous kernel $k(x, y) = k(x - y)$ on \mathbb{R}^d is positive definite iff $k(x - y)$ is the Fourier transform of a finite positive measure $p(w)$, i.e.,*

$$k(x - y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p(w) e^{jw^T(x-y)} dw. \quad (22)$$

If a shift invariant kernel $k(x - y)$ is properly scaled then Theorem 19 guarantees that $p(w)$ in (22) is a proper probability distribution.

Random Fourier features (RFFs) approximate the integral in (22) using samples drawn from $p(w)$. If w_1, w_2, \dots, w_L are i.i.d. draws from $p(w)$,

$$\begin{aligned}
k(x - y) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p(w) e^{jw^T(x-y)} dw \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p(w) \cos(w^T x - w^T y) dw \\
&\approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L \cos(w_i^T x - w_i^T y) \\
&= \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L \cos(w_i^T x) \cos(w_i^T y) + \sin(w_i^T x) \sin(w_i^T y) \\
&= \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^L [\cos(w_i^T x), \sin(w_i^T x)]^T [\cos(w_i^T y), \sin(w_i^T y)] \\
&= z_w(x)^T z_w(y), \tag{23}
\end{aligned}$$

where $z_w(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}}[\cos(w_1^T x), \sin(w_1^T x), \dots, \cos(w_L^T x), \sin(w_L^T x)] \in \mathbb{R}^{2L}$ is an approximate nonlinear feature mapping of dimensionality $2L$. In the following, we extend the RFF methodology to the kernel \bar{k} on the extended feature space $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$. Let X_1, \dots, X_{n_1} and X'_1, \dots, X'_{n_2} be i.i.d. realizations of P_X and P'_X respectively, and let \hat{P}_X and \hat{P}'_X denote the corresponding empirical distributions. Given $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$, denote $\tilde{x} = (\hat{P}_X, x)$ and $\tilde{x}' = (\hat{P}'_X, x')$. The goal is to find an approximate feature mapping $\bar{z}(\tilde{x})$ such that $\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') \approx \bar{z}(\tilde{x})^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x}')$. Recall that

$$\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') = k_P(\hat{P}_X, \hat{P}'_X) k_X(x, x');$$

specifically, we consider k_X and k'_X to be Gaussian kernels and the kernel on distributions k_P to have the Gaussian-like form

$$k_P(\hat{P}_X, \hat{P}'_X) = \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|_{H_{k'_X}}^2 \right\}.$$

As noted earlier in this section, the calculation of $k_P(\hat{P}_X, \hat{P}'_X)$ reduces to the computation of

$$\langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle = \frac{1}{n_1 n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} k'_X(X_i, X'_j). \tag{24}$$

We use Theorem 19 to approximate k'_X and thus $\langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle$. Let w_1, w_2, \dots, w_L be i.i.d. draws from $p'(w)$, the inverse Fourier transform of k'_X . Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle &= \frac{1}{n_1 n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} k'_X(X_i, X'_j) \\
&\approx \frac{1}{L n_1 n_2} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \cos(w_l^T X_i - w_l^T X'_j) \\
&= \frac{1}{L n_1 n_2} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} [\cos(w_l^T X_i) \cos(w_l^T X'_j) + \sin(w_l^T X_i) \sin(w_l^T X'_j)] \\
&= \frac{1}{L n_1 n_2} \sum_{l=1}^L \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} [\cos(w_l^T X_i), \sin(w_l^T X_i)]^T \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} [\cos(w_l^T X'_j), \sin(w_l^T X'_j)] \right\} \\
&= Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X),
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$Z_P(\hat{P}_X) = \frac{1}{n_1 \sqrt{L}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \left[\cos(w_1^T X_i), \sin(w_1^T X_i), \dots, \cos(w_L^T X_i), \sin(w_L^T X_i) \right], \quad (25)$$

and $Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)$ is defined analogously with n_1 replaced by n_2 . For the proof of Theorem 20, let z'_X denote the approximate feature map corresponding to k'_X , which satisfies $Z_P(\hat{P}_X) = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} z'_X(X_i)$.

Note that the lengths of the vectors $Z_P(\hat{P}_X)$ and $Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)$ are $2L$. To approximate \bar{k} we may write

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') &\approx \exp \frac{-\|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2L}}^2}{2\sigma_P^2} \cdot \exp \frac{-\|x - x'\|_{\mathbb{R}^d}^2}{2\sigma_X^2} \\
&= \exp \frac{-(\sigma_X^2 \|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2L}}^2 + \sigma_P^2 \|x - x'\|_{\mathbb{R}^d}^2)}{2\sigma_P^2 \sigma_X^2} \\
&= \exp \frac{-(\|\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - \sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2L}}^2 + \|\sigma_P x - \sigma_P x'\|_{\mathbb{R}^d}^2)}{2\sigma_P^2 \sigma_X^2} \\
&= \exp \frac{-\|(\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}_X), \sigma_P x) - (\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}'_X), \sigma_P x')\|_{\mathbb{R}^{2L+d}}^2}{2\sigma_P^2 \sigma_X^2}.
\end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

This is also a Gaussian kernel, now on \mathbb{R}^{2L+d} . Again by applying Theorem 19, we have

$$\bar{k}(\hat{P}_X, X), (\hat{P}'_X, X')) \approx \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2L+d}} p(v) e^{jv^T ((\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}_X), \sigma_P X) - (\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}'_X), \sigma_P X'))} dv.$$

Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_q be drawn i.i.d. from $p(v)$, the inverse Fourier transform of the Gaussian kernel with bandwidth $\sigma_P \sigma_X$. Let $u = (\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}_X), \sigma_P X)$ and $u' = (\sigma_X Z_P(\hat{P}'_X), \sigma_P X')$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') &\approx \frac{1}{Q} \sum_{q=1}^Q \cos(v_q^T(u - u')) \\ &= \bar{z}(\tilde{x})^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x}'),\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\bar{z}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{Q}} [\cos(v_1^T u), \sin(v_1^T u), \dots, \cos(v_Q^T u), \sin(v_Q^T u)] \in \mathbb{R}^{2Q} \quad (27)$$

and $\bar{z}(\tilde{x}')$ is defined similarly.

This completes the construction of the approximate feature map. The following result, which uses Hoeffding's inequality and generalizes a result of Rahimi and Recht (2007), says that the approximation achieves any desired approximation error with very high probability as $L, Q \rightarrow \infty$.

Theorem 20 *Let L be the number of random features to approximate the kernel on distributions and Q be the number of features to approximate the final product kernel. For any $\epsilon_l > 0$, $\epsilon_q > 0$, $\tilde{x} = (\hat{P}_X, x)$, $\tilde{x}' = (\hat{P}'_X, x')$,*

$$P(|\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') - \bar{z}(\tilde{x})^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x}')| \geq \epsilon_l + \epsilon_q) \leq 2 \exp\left(-\frac{Q\epsilon_q^2}{2}\right) + 6n_1 n_2 \exp\left(-\frac{L\epsilon_l^2}{2}\right), \quad (28)$$

where $\epsilon = \frac{\sigma_P^2}{2} \log(1 + \epsilon_l)$, σ_P is the bandwidth parameter of the Gaussian-like kernel k_P , and n_1 and n_2 are the sizes of the empirical distributions \hat{P}_X and \hat{P}'_X , respectively.

The above results holds for fixed \tilde{x} and \tilde{x}' . Following again Rahimi and Recht (2007), one can use an ϵ -net argument to prove a stronger statement for every pair of points in the input space simultaneously. They show

Lemma 21 *Let \mathcal{M} be a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^d with diameter $r = \text{diam}(\mathcal{M})$ and let D be the number of random Fourier features used. Then for the mapping defined in (23), we have*

$$P\left(\sup_{x, y \in \mathcal{M}} |z_w(x)^T z_w(y) - k(x - y)| \geq \epsilon\right) \leq 2^8 \left(\frac{\sigma r}{\epsilon}\right)^2 \exp\left(\frac{-D\epsilon^2}{2(d+2)}\right),$$

where $\sigma = \mathbb{E}[w^T w]$ is the second moment of the Fourier transform of k .

Our RFF approximation of \bar{k} is grounded on Gaussian RFF approximations on Euclidean spaces, and thus, the following result holds by invoking Lemma 21, and otherwise following the argument of Theorem 20.

Theorem 22 *Using the same notations as in Theorem 20 and Lemma 21,*

$$\begin{aligned}P\left(\sup_{x, x' \in \mathcal{M}} |\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') - \bar{z}(\tilde{x})^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x}')| \geq \epsilon_l + \epsilon_q\right) \\ \leq 2^8 \left(\frac{\sigma'_X r}{\epsilon_q}\right)^2 \exp\left(\frac{-Q\epsilon_q^2}{2(d+2)}\right) + 2^9 3n_1 n_2 \left(\frac{\sigma_P \sigma_X r}{\epsilon_l}\right)^2 \exp\left(\frac{-L\epsilon_l^2}{2(d+2)}\right) \quad (29)\end{aligned}$$

where σ'_X is the width of kernel k'_X in Eqn. (24) and σ_P and σ_X are the widths of kernels k_P and k_X respectively.

There are recent developments that give faster rates for approximation quality of random Fourier features and could potentially be combined with our analysis (Sriperumbudur and Szabó, 2015; Sutherland and Schneider, 2015). For example, approximation quality for the kernel mean map is discussed in Sutherland and Schneider (2015), and these ideas could be extended to Theorem 22 by combining with the two-stage approach presented in this paper. We also note that our analysis of random Fourier features is separate from our analysis of the kernel learning algorithm. We have not presented a generalization error bound for the learning algorithm using random Fourier features (Rudi and Rosasco, 2017).

7.2.2 NYSTRÖM APPROXIMATION

Like random Fourier features, the Nyström approximation is a technique to approximate kernel matrices (Williams and Seeger, 2001; Drineas and Mahoney, 2005). Unlike random Fourier features, for the Nyström approximation, the feature maps are data-dependent. Also, in the last subsection, all kernels were assumed to be shift invariant. With the Nyström approximation there is no such assumption.

For a general kernel k , the goal is to find a feature mapping $z : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^L$, where $L > d$, such that $k(x, x') \approx z(x)^T z(x')$. Let r be the target rank of the final approximated kernel matrix, and m be the number of selected columns of the original kernel matrix. In general $r \leq m \ll n$.

Given data points x_1, \dots, x_n , the Nyström method approximates the kernel matrix by first sampling m data points x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_m without replacement from the original sample, and then constructing a low rank matrix by $\hat{K}_r = K_b \hat{K}^{-1} K_b^T$, where $K_b = [k(x_i, x'_j)]_{n \times m}$, and $\hat{K} = [k(x'_i, x'_j)]_{m \times m}$. Hence, the final approximate feature mapping is

$$z_n(x) = \hat{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \hat{V}^T [k(x, x'_1), \dots, k(x, x'_m)], \quad (30)$$

where \hat{D} is the eigenvalue matrix of \hat{K} and \hat{V} is the corresponding eigenvector matrix.

The Nyström approximation holds for any positive definite kernel, but random Fourier features can be used only for shift invariant kernels. On the other hand, random Fourier features are very easy to implement and the Nyström method has additional time complexity due to an eigenvalue decomposition. Moreover, the Nyström method is useful only when the kernel matrix has low rank. For additional comparison of various kernel approximation approaches we refer the reader to Le et al. (2013). In our experiments, we use random Fourier features when all kernels are Gaussian and the Nyström method otherwise.

8. Experiments

This section empirically compares our marginal transfer learning method with pooling.⁴ One implementation of the pooling algorithm was mentioned in Section 5.2, where k_P is taken to be a constant kernel. Another implementation is to put all the training data sets together and train a single conventional kernel method. The only difference between the two implementations is that in the former, weights of $1/n_i$ are used for examples from training task i . In almost all of our experiments below, the various training tasks have the same

4. Software available at <https://github.com/aniketde/DomainGeneralizationMarginal>

sample sizes, in which case the two implementations coincide. The only exception is the fourth experiment when we use all training data, in which case we use the second of the two implementations mentioned above.

We consider three classification problems ($\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, 1\}$), for which the hinge loss is employed, and one regression problem ($\mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}$), where the ϵ -insensitive loss is employed. Thus, the algorithms implemented are natural extensions of support vector classification and regression to domain generalization. Performance of a learning strategy is assessed by holding out several data sets $S_1^T, \dots, S_{N_T}^T$, learning a decision function \hat{f} on the remaining data sets, and reporting the average empirical risk $\frac{1}{N_T} \sum_{i=1}^{N_T} \mathcal{L}(S_i^T, \hat{f})$. In some cases, this value is again averaged over several randomized versions of the experiment.

8.1 Model Selection

The various experiments use different combinations of kernels. In all experiments, linear kernels $k(x_1, x_2) = x_1^T x_2$ and Gaussian kernels $k_\sigma(x_1, x_2) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_1 - x_2\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ were used.

The bandwidth σ of each Gaussian kernel and the regularization parameter λ of the machines were selected by grid search. For model selection, five-fold cross-validation was used. In order to stabilize the cross-validation procedure, it was repeated 5 times over independent random splits into folds (Kohavi et al., 1995). Thus, candidate parameter values were evaluated on the 5×5 validation sets and the configuration yielding the best average performance was selected. If any of the chosen hyper-parameters was at the grid boundary, the grid was extended accordingly, i.e., the same grid size has been used, however, the center of grid has been assigned to the previously selected point. The grid used for kernels was $\sigma \in (10^{-2}, 10^4)$ with logarithmic spacing, and the grid used for the regularization parameter was $\lambda \in (10^{-1}, 10^1)$ with logarithmic spacing.

8.2 Synthetic Data Experiment

To illustrate the proposed method, a synthetic problem was constructed. The synthetic data generation algorithm is given in Algorithm 1. In brief, for each classification task, the data are uniformly supported on an ellipse, with the major axis determining the labels, and the rotation of the major axis randomly generated in a 90 degree range for each task. One random realization of this synthetic data is shown in Figure 2. This synthetic data set is an ideal candidate for marginal transfer learning, because the Bayes classifier for a task is uniquely determined by the marginal distribution of the features, i.e. Lemma 9 applies (and the optimal error $\inf_f \mathcal{E}^\infty(f)$ is zero). On the other hand, observe that the expectation of each X distribution is the same regardless of the task and thus does not provide any relevant information, so that taking into account at least second order information is needed to perform domain generalization.

To analyse the effects of number of examples per task (n) and number of tasks (N), we constructed 12 synthetic data sets by taking combinations $N \times n$ where $N \in \{16, 64, 256\}$ and $n \in \{8, 16, 32, 256\}$. For each synthetic data set, the test set contains 10 tasks and each task contains one million data points. All kernels are taken to be Gaussian, and the random Fourier features speedup is used. The results are shown in Figure 3 and Tables 1 and 2 (see appendix). The marginal transfer learning (MTL) method significantly outperforms the baseline pooling method. Furthermore, the performance of MTL improves as N and n

increase, as expected. The pooling method, however, does no better than random guessing regardless of N and n .

In the remaining experiments, the marginal distribution does not perfectly characterize the optimal decision function, but still provides some information to offer improvements over pooling.

Algorithm 1: Synthetic Data Generation

input : N : Number of tasks, n : Number of training examples per task

output: Realization of synthetic data set for N tasks

for $i = 1$ **to** N **do**

- sample rotation α_i uniformly in $\left[\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4}\right]$;
- Take an ellipse whose major axis is aligned with the horizontal axis, and rotate it by an angle of α_i about its center;
- Sample n points X_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, n$ uniformly at random from the rotated ellipse;
- Label the points according to their position with respect to the major axis i.e. the points that are on the right of the major axis are considered as class 1 and the points on the left of the major axis are considered as class -1 .

end

8.3 Parkinson’s Disease Telemonitoring

We test our method in the regression setting using the Parkinson’s disease telemonitoring data set, which is composed of a range of biomedical voice measurements using a telemonitoring device from 42 people with early-stage Parkinson’s. The recordings were automatically captured in the patients’ homes. The aim is to predict the clinician’s Parkinson’s disease symptom score for each recording on the unified Parkinson’s disease rating scale (UPDRS) (Tsanas et al., 2010). Thus we are in a regression setting, and employ the ϵ -insensitive loss from support vector regression. All kernels are taken to be Gaussian, and the random Fourier features speedup is used.

There are around 200 recordings per patient. We randomly select 7 test users and then vary the number of training users N from 10 to 35 in steps of 5, and we also vary the number of training examples n per user from 20 to 100. We repeat this process several times to get the average errors which are shown in Fig 4 and Tables 3 and 4 (see appendix). The marginal transfer learning method clearly outperforms pooling, especially as N and n increase.

8.4 Satellite Classification

Microsatellites are increasingly deployed in space missions for a variety of scientific and technological purposes. Because of randomness in the launch process, the orbit of a microsatellite is random, and must be determined after the launch. One recently proposed

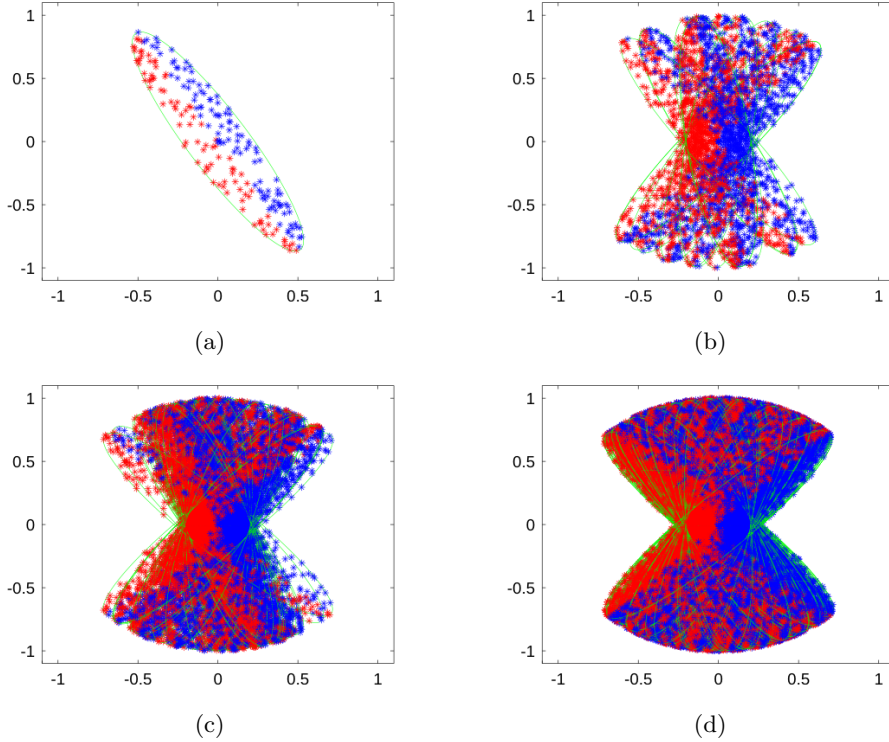


Figure 2: Plots of synthetic data sets (red and blue points represent negative and positive classes) for different settings: (a) Random realization of a single task with 256 training examples per task. Plots (b), (c) and (d) are random realizations of synthetic data with 256 training examples for 16, 64 and 256 tasks.

approach is to estimate the orbit of a satellite based on radiofrequency (RF) signals as measured in a ground sensor network. However, microsattellites are often launched in bunches, and for this approach to be successful, it is necessary to associate each RF measurement vector with a particular satellite. Furthermore, the ground antennae are not able to decode unique identifier signals transmitted by the microsattellites, because (a) of constraints on the satellite/ground antennae links, including transmission power, atmospheric attenuation, scattering, and thermal noise, and (b) ground antennae must have low gain and low directional specificity owing to uncertainty in satellite position and dynamics. To address this problem, recent work has proposed to apply our marginal transfer learning methodology (Sharma and Cutler, 2015).

As a concrete instance of this problem, suppose two microsattellites are launched together. Each launch is a random phenomenon and may be viewed as a task in our framework. For each launch i , training data (X_{ij}, Y_{ij}) , $j = 1, \dots, n_i$, are generated using a highly realistic simulation model, where X_{ij} is a feature vector of RF measurements across a particular sensor network and at a particular time, and Y_{ij} is a binary label identifying which of the two microsattellites produced a given measurement. By applying our methodology, we can classify unlabeled measurements X_j^T from a new launch with high accuracy. Given these labels, orbits can subsequently be estimated using the observed RF measurements.

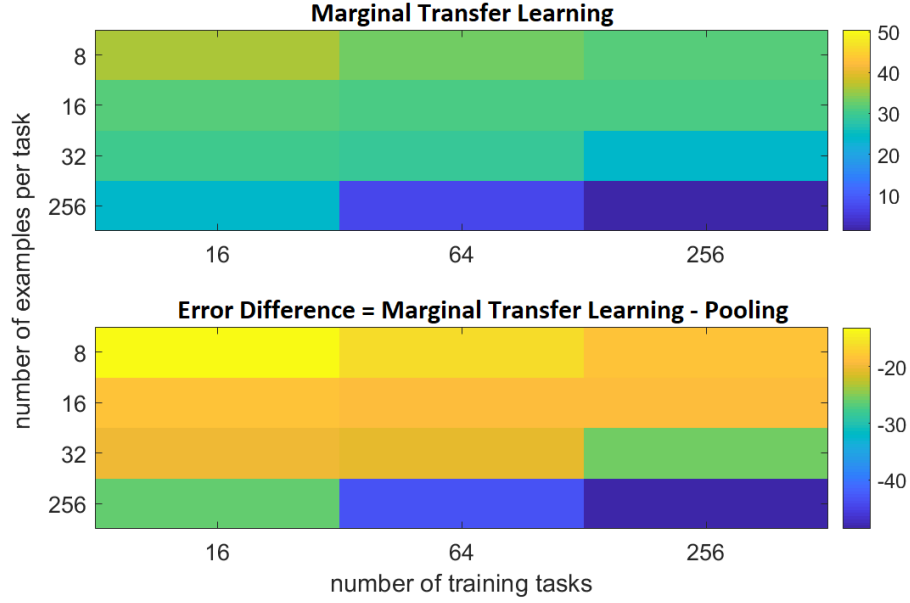


Figure 3: Synthetic data set: Classification error rates for proposed method and difference with baseline for different experimental settings, i.e., number of examples per task and number of tasks.

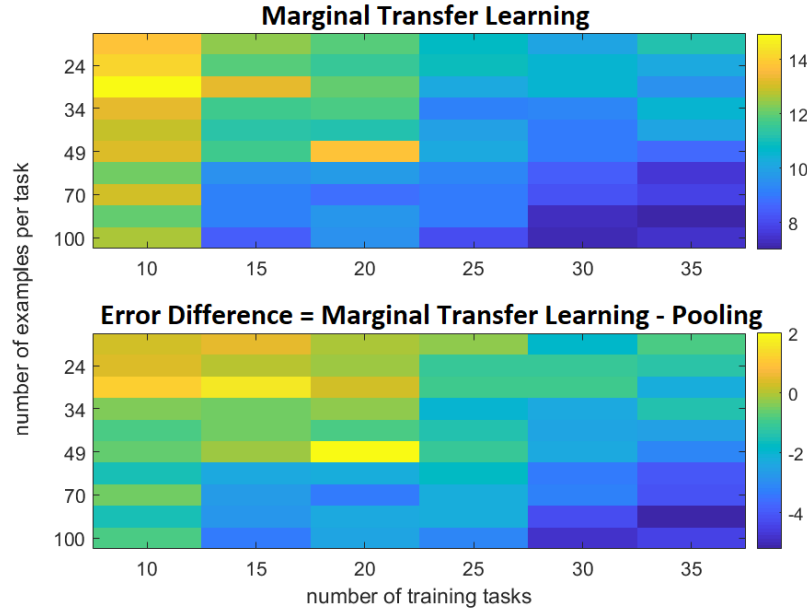


Figure 4: Parkinson's disease telemonitoring data set: Root mean square error rates for proposed method and difference with baseline for different experimental settings, i.e., number of examples per task and number of tasks.

We thank Srinagesh Sharma and James Cutler for providing us with their simulated data, and refer the reader to their paper for more details on the application (Sharma and Cutler, 2015).

To demonstrate this idea, we analyzed the data from Sharma and Cutler (2015) for $T = 50$ launches, viewing up to 40 as training data and 10 as testing. We use Gaussian kernels and the RFF kernel approximation technique to speed up the algorithm. Results are shown in Fig 5 (tables given in the appendix). As expected, the error for the proposed method is much lower than for pooling, especially as N and n increase.

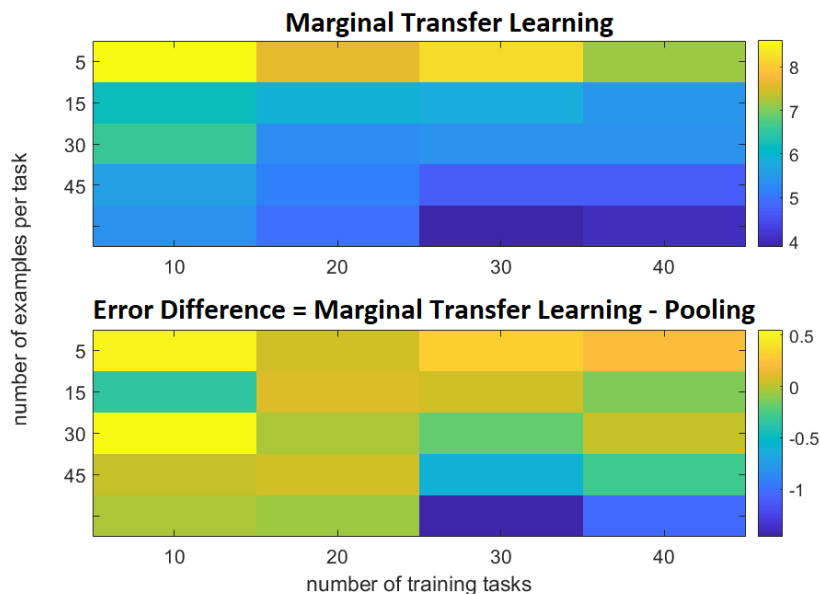


Figure 5: Satellite data set: Classification error rates for proposed method and difference with baseline for different experimental settings, i.e., number of examples per task and number of tasks.

8.5 Flow Cytometry Experiments

We demonstrate the proposed methodology for the flow cytometry auto-gating problem, described in Sec. 2. The pooling approach has been previously investigated in this context by Toedling et al. (2006). We used a data set that is a part of the FlowCAP Challenges where the ground truth labels have been supplied by human experts (Aghaeepour et al., 2013). We used the so-called “Normal Donors” data set. The data set contains 8 different classes and 30 subjects. Only two classes (0 and 2) have consistent class ratios, so we have restricted our attention to these two.

The corresponding flow cytometry data sets have sample sizes ranging from 18,641 to 59,411, and the proportion of class 0 in each data set ranges from 25.59 to 38.44%. We randomly selected 10 tasks to serve as the test tasks. These tasks were removed from the pool of eligible training tasks. We varied the number of training tasks from 5 to 20 with an additive step size of 5, and the number of training examples per task from 1024 to 16384

with a multiplicative step size of 2. We repeated this process 10 times to get the average classification errors which are shown in Fig. 6 and Tables 7 and 8 (see appendix). The kernel k_P was Gaussian, and the other two were linear. The Nyström approximation was used to achieve an efficient implementation.

For nearly all settings the proposed method has a smaller error rate than the baseline. Furthermore, for the marginal transfer learning method, when one fixes the number of training examples and increases the number of tasks then the classification error rate drops.

On the other hand, we observe on Table 7 that the number n of training points per task hardly affects the final performance when $n \geq 10^3$. This is in contrast with the previous experimental examples (synthetic, Parkinson’s disease telemonitoring, and satellite classification), for which increasing n led to better performance, but where the values of n remained somewhat modest ($n \leq 256$). This is qualitatively in line with the theoretical results under **(2SGM)** in Section 6.2 (see in particular the concluding discussion there), suggesting that the influence of increasing n on the performance should eventually taper off, in particular if $n \gg N$.

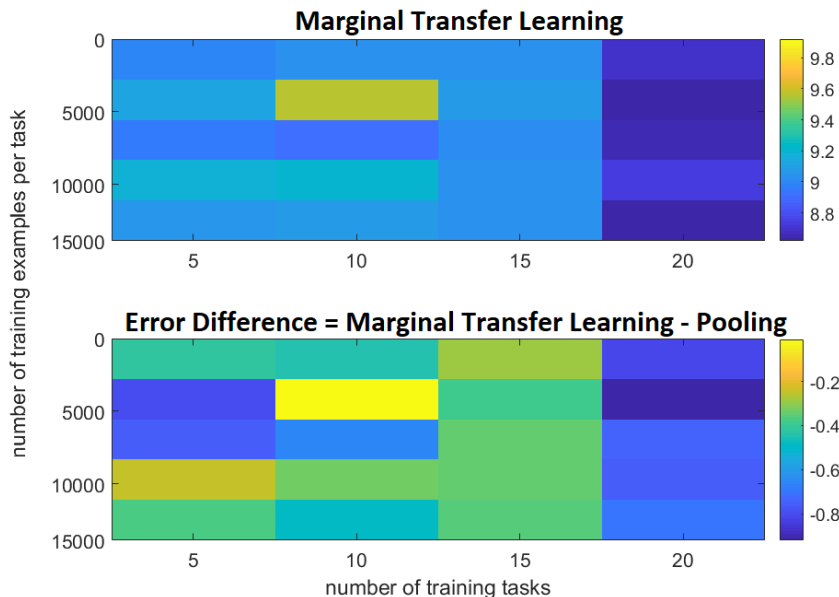


Figure 6: Flow Cytometry Data set: Percentage Classification error rates for proposed method and difference with baseline for different experimental settings, i.e., number of examples per task and number of tasks.

9. Discussion

Our approach to domain generalization relies on the extended input pattern $\tilde{X} = (P_X, X)$. Thus, we study the natural algorithm of minimizing a regularized empirical loss over a reproducing kernel Hilbert space associated with the extended input domain $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$. We also establish universal consistency under two sampling plans. To achieve this, we present

novel generalization error analyses, and construct a universal kernel on $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$. A detailed implementation based on novel approximate feature mappings is also presented.

On one synthetic and three real-world data sets, the marginal transfer learning approach consistently outperforms a pooling baseline. On some data sets, however, the difference between the two methods is small. This is because the utility of transfer learning varies from one DG problem to another. As an extreme example, if all of the task are the same, then pooling should do just as well as our method.

Several future directions exist. From an application perspective, the need for adaptive classifiers arises in many applications, especially in biomedical applications involving biological and/or technical variation in patient data. Examples include brain computer interfaces and patient monitoring. For example, when electrocardiograms are used to continuously monitor cardiac patients, it is desirable to classify each heartbeat as irregular or not. Given the extraordinary amount of data involved, automation of this process is essential. However, irregularities in a test patient’s heartbeat will differ from irregularities of historical patients, hence the need to adapt to the test distribution (Wiens, 2010).

From a theoretical and methodological perspective, several questions are of interest. We would like to specify conditions on the meta-distributions P_S or μ under which the DG risk is close to the expected Bayes risk of the test distribution (beyond the simple condition discussed in Lemma 9). We would also like to develop fast learning rates under suitable distributional assumptions. Furthermore, given the close connections with supervised learning, many common variants of supervised learning can also be investigated in the DG context, including multiclass classification, class probability estimation, and robustness to various forms of noise.

We can also ask how the methodology and analysis can be extended to the context where a small number of labels are available for the test distribution (additionally to a larger number of unlabeled data from the same distribution); this situation appears to be common in practice, and can be seen as intermediary between the DG and learning to learn (LTL, see Section 4.2) settings (one could dub it “semi-supervised domain generalization”). In this setting, two approaches appear promising to take advantage of the labeled data. The simplest one is to use the same optimization problem (7), where we include additionally the labeled examples of the test distribution. However, if several test samples are to be treated in succession, and we want to avoid a full, resource-consuming re-training using all the training samples each time, an interesting alternative is the following: learn once a function $f_0(P_X, x)$ using the available training samples via (7); then, given a partially labeled test sample, learn a decision function on this sample only via the usual kernel (k_X) norm regularized empirical loss minimization method, but replace the usual regularizer term $\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ by $\left\|f - f_0(\hat{P}_X^T, \cdot)\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ (note that $f_0(\hat{P}_X^T, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}_{k_X}$). In this sense, the marginal-adaptive decision function learned from the training samples would serve as a “prior” or “informed guess” for learning on the test data. This can be also interpreted as learning an adequate complexity penalty to improve learning on new samples, thus connecting to the general principles of LTL (see Section 4.2). An interesting difference with underlying existing LTL approaches is that those tend to adapt the hypothesis class or the “shape” of the regularization penalty to the problem at hand, while the approach delineated above would

modify the “origin” of the penalty, using the marginal distribution information. These two principles could also be combined.

Appendix A. Proofs, Technical Details, and Experimental Details

This section contains technical details for the proofs of the announced results.

A.1 Proof of Proposition 7

Let P_{XY}^T be a fixed probability distribution on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{R}$, and $\varepsilon > 0$ a fixed number. Since \mathcal{X} is a Radon space, by definition any Borel probability measure on it, in particular P_X^T (the X -marginal of P_{XY}^T), is inner regular, so that there exists a compact set $K \subset \mathcal{X}$ such that $P_X^T(K^c) \leq \varepsilon$.

For all $x \in K$, by the assumed continuity of the decision function f at point (P_X^T, x) there exists an open neighborhood $U_x \times V_x \subset \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{X}$ of this point such that $|f(u, v) - f(P_X^T, x)| \leq \varepsilon$ for all $(u, v) \in U_x \times V_x$. Since the family $(V_x)_{x \in K}$ is an open covering of the compact K , there exists a finite subfamily $(V_{x_i})_{i \in I}$ covering K . Denoting $U_0 := \bigcap_{i \in I} U_{x_i}$ which is an open neighborhood of P_X^T in $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$, it therefore holds for any $P \in U_0$ and uniformly over $x \in K$ that $|f(P, x) - f(P_X^T, x)| \leq |f(P, x) - f(P, x_{i_0})| + |f(P_X^T, x) - f(P, x_{i_0})| \leq 2\varepsilon$, where $i_0 \in I$ is such that $x \in V_{x_{i_0}}$.

Denote $S^T = (X_i^T, Y_i^T)_{1 \leq i \leq n_T}$ a sample of size n_T drawn i.i.d. from P_{XY}^T , and A the event $\{\hat{P}_X^T \in U_0\}$. By the law of large numbers, \hat{P}_X^T weakly converges to P_X^T in probability, so that $\mathbb{P}[A^c] \leq \varepsilon$ holds for n_T large enough. We have (denoting B a bound on the loss function):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right] &\leq B\varepsilon + \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \mathbf{1}_{\{X_i^T \in K\}} \right] \\ &\leq B(\varepsilon + \mathbb{P}[A^c]) + \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\mathbf{1}_{\{\hat{P}_X^T \in U_0\}} \frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \mathbf{1}_{\{X_i^T \in K\}} \right] \\ &\leq 2B\varepsilon + 2L\varepsilon + \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(P_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right] \\ &\leq 2(B + L)\varepsilon + \mathbb{E}_{(X^T, Y^T) \sim P_{XY}^T} [\ell(f(P_X^T, X^T), Y^T)]. \end{aligned}$$

Conversely,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right] &\geq \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\mathbf{1}_{\{\hat{P}_X^T \in U_0\}} \frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \mathbf{1}_{\{X_i^T \in K\}} \right] \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}_{S^T} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(P_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right] - 2B\varepsilon - 2L\varepsilon \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}_{(X^T, Y^T) \sim P_{XY}^T} [\ell(f(P_X^T, X^T), Y^T)] - 2(B + L)\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Since the above inequalities hold for any $\varepsilon > 0$ provided n_T is large enough, this yields that for any fixed P_{XY}^T , we have

$$\lim_{n_T \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{S^T \sim (P_{XY}^T)^{\otimes n_T}} \left[\frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^{n_T} \ell(f(\hat{P}_X^T, X_i^T), Y_i^T) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{(X^T, Y^T) \sim P_{XY}^T} [\ell(f(P_X^T, X^T), Y^T)].$$

Finally, since the above right-hand side is bounded by B , applying dominated convergence to integrate over $P_{XY}^T \sim \mu$ yields the desired conclusion.

A.2 Proof of Corollary 14

Proof Denote $\mathcal{E}^* = \inf_{f: \mathfrak{P}_X \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \mathcal{E}(f)$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since \bar{k} is a universal kernel on $\mathfrak{P}_X \times \mathcal{X}$ and ℓ is Lipschitz, there exists $f_0 \in \mathcal{H}_{\bar{k}}$ such that $\mathcal{E}(f_0) \leq \mathcal{E}^* + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ (Steinwart and Christmann, 2008).

By comparing the objective function in (7) at the minimizer \hat{f}_λ and at the null function, using assumption **(LB)** we deduce that we must have $\|\hat{f}_\lambda\| \leq \sqrt{B_0/\lambda}$. Applying Theorem 11 for $R = R_\lambda = \sqrt{B_0/\lambda}$, and $\delta = 1/N^2$, gives that with probability at least $1 - 1/N^2$,

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \hat{\mathcal{E}}(f, N) - \mathcal{E}(f) \right| \leq \varepsilon(N) := (B_0 + L_\ell B_{\mathfrak{R}} B_k \sqrt{B_0/\lambda}) \frac{(\sqrt{\log N} + 2)}{\sqrt{N}}.$$

Let N be large enough so that $\|f_0\| \leq R_\lambda$. We can now deduce that with probability at least $1 - 1/N^2$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}(\hat{f}_\lambda) &\leq \hat{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{f}_\lambda, N) + \varepsilon(N) \\ &= \hat{\mathcal{E}}(\hat{f}_\lambda, N) + \lambda \|\hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 - \lambda \|\hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 + \varepsilon(N) \\ &\leq \hat{\mathcal{E}}(f_0, N) + \lambda \|f_0\|^2 - \lambda \|\hat{f}_\lambda\|^2 + \varepsilon(N) \\ &\leq \hat{\mathcal{E}}(f_0, N) + \lambda \|f_0\|^2 + \varepsilon(N) \\ &\leq \mathcal{E}(f_0) + \lambda \|f_0\|^2 + 2\varepsilon(N) \\ &\leq \mathcal{E}^* + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \lambda \|f_0\|^2 + 2\varepsilon(N). \end{aligned}$$

The last two terms become less than $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ for N sufficiently large by the assumptions on the growth of $\lambda = \lambda(N)$. This establishes that for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists N_0 such that

$$\sum_{N \geq N_0} \Pr(\mathcal{E}(\hat{f}_\lambda) \geq \mathcal{E}^* + \varepsilon) \leq \sum_{N \geq N_0} \frac{1}{N^2} < \infty,$$

and so the result follows by the Borel-Cantelli lemma. ■

A.3 Proof of Theorem 15

We control the difference between the training loss and the conditional risk at infinite sample size via the following decomposition:

$$\begin{aligned}
\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} |\mathcal{L}(S, f) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY})| &= \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(\hat{P}_X, X_i), Y_i) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY}) \right| \\
&\leq \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\ell(f(\hat{P}_X, X_i), Y_i) - \ell(f(P_X, X_i), Y_i) \right) \right| \\
&\quad + \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(P_X, X_i), Y_i) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY}) \right| \\
&=: (I) + (II). \tag{31}
\end{aligned}$$

A.3.1 CONTROL OF TERM (I)

Using the assumption that the loss ℓ is L_ℓ -Lipschitz in its first coordinate, we can bound the first term as follows:

$$(I) \leq L_\ell \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| f(\hat{P}_X, X_i) - f(P_X, X_i) \right| \leq L_\ell \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left\| f(\hat{P}_X, \cdot) - f(P_X, \cdot) \right\|_\infty. \tag{32}$$

This can now be controlled using the first part of the following result:

Lemma 23 *Assume (K-Bounded) holds. Let P_X be an arbitrary distribution on \mathcal{X} and \hat{P}_X denote an empirical distribution on \mathcal{X} based on an iid sample of size n from P_X . Then with probability at least $1 - \delta$ over the draw of this sample, it holds that*

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left\| f(\hat{P}_X, \cdot) - f(P_X, \cdot) \right\|_\infty \leq 3RB_k L_{\mathfrak{R}} B_{k'}^\alpha \left(\frac{\log 2\delta^{-1}}{n} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{2}}. \tag{33}$$

In expectation, it holds

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left\| f(\hat{P}_X, \cdot) - f(P_X, \cdot) \right\|_\infty \right] \leq 2RB_k L_{\mathfrak{R}} B_{k'}^\alpha n^{-\alpha/2}. \tag{34}$$

Proof Let X_1, \dots, X_n denote the n -sample from P_X . Let us denote by Φ'_X the canonical feature mapping $x \mapsto k'_X(x, \cdot)$ from \mathcal{X} into $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$. We have for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\|\Phi'_X(x)\| \leq B_{k'}$, and so, as a consequence of Hoeffding's inequality in a Hilbert space (see, e.g., Pinelis and Sakhanenko, 1985), it holds with probability at least $1 - \delta$:

$$\left\| \Psi(P_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}_X) \right\| = \left\| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \Phi'_X(X_i) - \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_X} [\Phi'_X(X)] \right\| \leq 3B_{k'} \sqrt{\frac{\log 2\delta^{-1}}{n}}. \tag{35}$$

Furthermore, using the reproducing property of the kernel \bar{k} , we have for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)$:

$$\begin{aligned}
|f(\hat{P}_X, x) - f(P_X, x)| &= \left| \left\langle \bar{k}((\hat{P}_X, x), \cdot) - \bar{k}((P_X, x), \cdot), f \right\rangle \right| \\
&\leq \|f\| \left\| \bar{k}((\hat{P}_X, x), \cdot) - \bar{k}((P_X, x), \cdot) \right\| \\
&\leq Rk_X(x, x)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\mathfrak{K}(\Psi(P_X), \Psi(P_X)) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \mathfrak{K}(\Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}_X)) - 2\mathfrak{K}(\Psi(P_X), \Psi(\hat{P}_X)) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
&\leq RB_k \left\| \Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(\Psi(P_X)) - \Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(\Psi(\hat{P}_X)) \right\| \\
&\leq RB_k L_{\mathfrak{K}} \left\| \Psi(P_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}_X) \right\|^{\alpha},
\end{aligned}$$

where in the last step we have used property **(K-Hölder)** together with the fact that for all $P \in \mathfrak{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$, $\|\Psi(P)\| \leq \int_{\mathcal{X}} \|k'_X(x, \cdot)\| dP_X(x) \leq B_{k'}$, so that $\Psi(P) \in \mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'})$. Combining with (35) gives (33).

For the bound in expectation, we use the inequality above, and can bound further (using Jensen's inequality, since $\alpha \leq 1$)

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \Psi(P_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}_X) \right\|^{\alpha} \right] &\leq \mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \Psi(P_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}_X) \right\|^2 \right]^{\alpha/2} \\
&= \left(\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \mathbb{E} \left[\langle \Phi'_X(X_i) - \mathbb{E}[\Phi'_X(X)], \Phi'_X(X_j) - \mathbb{E}[\Phi'_X(X)] \rangle \right] \right)^{\alpha/2} \\
&= \left(\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \Phi'_X(X_i) - \mathbb{E}[\Phi'_X(X)] \right\|^2 \right] \right)^{\alpha/2} \\
&\leq \left(\frac{4B_{k'}^2}{n} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{2}},
\end{aligned}$$

which yields (34) in combination with the above. ■

A.3.2 CONTROL OF TERM (II)

Term (II) takes the form of a uniform deviation over a RKHS ball of an empirical loss for the data (\tilde{X}_i, Y_i) , where $\tilde{X}_i := (P_X, X_i)$. Since P_X is fixed (in contrast with term (I) where \hat{P}_X depended on the whole sample), these data are i.i.d. Similar to the proofs of Theorems 5 and 11, we can therefore apply again standard Rademacher analysis, this time at the level of one specific task (Azuma-McDiarmid inequality followed by Rademacher complexity analysis for a Lipschitz, bounded loss over a RKHS ball; see Koltchinskii, 2001; Bartlett and Mendelson, 2002, Theorems 8, 12 and Lemma 22 there). The kernel \bar{k} is bounded by $B_k^2 B_{\mathfrak{K}}^2$ by assumption **(K-Bounded)**; by Lemma 10 and assumption **(LB)**, the

loss is bounded by $B_0 + L_\ell R B_k B_{\mathfrak{K}}$, and is L_ℓ -Lipschitz. Therefore, with probability at least $1 - \delta$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} (II) &\leq (B_0 + 3L_\ell R B_k B_{\mathfrak{K}}) \min \left(\sqrt{\frac{\log(\delta^{-1})}{2n}}, 1 \right) \\ &\leq (B_0 + 3L_\ell R B_k B_{\mathfrak{K}}) \min \left(\left(\frac{\log(\delta^{-1})}{2n} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{2}}, 1 \right). \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

Observe that we can cap the second factor at 1 since (II) is upper bounded by the bound on the loss in all cases; the second inequality then uses $\alpha \leq 1$. Combining with a union bound the probabilistic controls (32), (33) of term (I) and (36) of (II) yields (18).

To establish the bound (19) we use a similar argument. We use the decomposition

$$\begin{aligned} &\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} |\mathcal{E}(f|P_{XY}, n) - \mathcal{E}^\infty(f|P_{XY})| \\ &\leq \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \mathbb{E}_{S_n \sim (P_{XY})^{\otimes n}} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\ell(f(\hat{P}_X, X_i^T), Y_i) - \ell(f(P_X, X_i), Y_i) \right) \right] \right| \\ &\quad + \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left| \mathbb{E}_{S \sim (P_{XY})^{\otimes n}} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\ell(f(P_X, X_i^T), Y_i) \right) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim P_{XY}} [\ell(f(P_X, X), Y)] \right| \\ &=: (I') + (II'). \end{aligned}$$

It is easily seen that the second term vanishes: for any fixed $f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)$ and P_{XY} , the difference of the expectations is zero. For the first term, using Lipschitzness of the loss, then (34), we obtain

$$(I') \leq L_\ell \mathbb{E} \left[\sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}_{\bar{k}}(R)} \left\| f(\hat{P}_X, \cdot) - f(P_X, \cdot) \right\|_\infty \right] \leq 2L_\ell R B_k L_{\mathfrak{K}} B_k^\alpha n^{-\alpha/2},$$

yielding (19). The bound (20) is obtained as a direct consequence by taking expectation over $P_{XY} \sim \mu$ and using Jensen's inequality to pull out the absolute value.

A.4 Regularity conditions for the kernel on distributions

We investigate sufficient conditions on the kernel \mathfrak{K} to ensure the regularity condition **(K-Hölder)** (15). Roughly speaking, the regularity of the feature mapping of a reproducing kernel is “one half” of the regularity of the kernel in each of its variables. The next result considers the situation where \mathfrak{K} is itself simply a Hölder continuous function of its variables.

Lemma 24 *Let $\alpha \in (0, \frac{1}{2}]$. Assume that the kernel \mathfrak{K} is Hölder continuous of order 2α and constant $L_{\mathfrak{K}}^2/2$ in each of its two variables on $\mathcal{B}_{k'}(B_{k'})$. Then **(K-Hölder)** is satisfied.*

Proof For any $v, w \in \mathcal{B}_{k'}(B_{k'})$:

$$\|\Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(v) - \Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(w)\| = (\mathfrak{K}(v, v) + \mathfrak{K}(w, w) - 2\mathfrak{K}(v, w))^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq L_{\mathfrak{K}} \|v - w\|^\alpha.$$

■

The above type of regularity only leads to a Hölder feature mapping of order at most $\frac{1}{2}$ (when the kernel function is Lipschitz continuous in each variable). Since this order plays an important role in the rate of convergence of the upper bound in the main error control theorem, it is desirable to study conditions ensuring more regularity, in particular a feature mapping which has at least Lipschitz continuity. For this, we consider the following stronger condition, namely that the kernel function is twice differentiable in a specific sense:

Lemma 25 *Assume that, for any $u, v \in \mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'})$ and unit norm vector e of $\mathcal{H}_{k'_X}$, the function $h_{u,v,e} : (\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathfrak{K}(u + \lambda e, v + \mu e)$ admits a mixed partial derivative $\partial_1 \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}$ at the point $(\lambda, \mu) = (0, 0)$ which is bounded in absolute value by a constant $C_{\mathfrak{K}}^2$ independent of (u, v, e) . Then (15) is satisfied with $\alpha = 1$ and $L_{\mathfrak{K}} = C_{\mathfrak{K}}$, that is, the canonical feature mapping of \mathfrak{K} is Lipschitz continuous on $\mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'})$.*

Proof The argument is along the same lines as Steinwart and Christmann (2008), Lemma 4.34. Observe that, since $h_{u,v,e}(\lambda + \lambda', \mu + \mu') = h_{u+\lambda e, v+\mu e, e}(\lambda', \mu')$, the function $h_{u,v,e}$ actually admits a uniformly bounded mixed partial derivative in any point $(\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ such that $(u + \lambda e, v + \mu e) \in \mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'})$. Let us denote $\Delta_1 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \mu) := h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \mu) - h_{u,v,e}(0, \mu)$. For any $u, v \in \mathcal{B}_{k'_X}(B_{k'})$, $u \neq v$, let us set $\lambda := \|v - u\|$ and the unit vector $e := \lambda^{-1}(v - u)$; we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(u) - \Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(v)\|^2 &= \mathfrak{K}(u, u) + \mathfrak{K}(u + \lambda e, u + \lambda e) - \mathfrak{K}(u, u + \lambda e) - \mathfrak{K}(u + \lambda e, u) \\ &= \Delta_1 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \lambda) - \Delta_1 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, 0) \\ &= \lambda \partial_2 \Delta_1 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \lambda'), \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the mean value theorem, yielding existence of $\lambda' \in [0, \lambda]$ such that the last equality holds. Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_2 \Delta_1 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \lambda') &= \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \lambda') - \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}(0, \lambda') \\ &= \lambda \partial_1 \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda'', \lambda'), \end{aligned}$$

using again the mean value theorem, yielding existence of $\lambda'' \in [0, \lambda]$ in the last equality. Finally, we get

$$\|\Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(u) - \Phi_{\mathfrak{K}}(v)\|^2 = \lambda^2 \partial_1 \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}(\lambda', \lambda'') \leq C_{\mathfrak{K}}^2 \|v - u\|^2.$$

■

Lemma 26 *Assume that the kernel \mathfrak{K} takes the form of either (a) $\mathfrak{K}(u, v) = g(\|u - v\|^2)$ or (b) $\mathfrak{K}(u, v) = g(\langle u, v \rangle)$, where g is a twice differentiable real function of a real variable defined on $[0, 4B_{k'}^2]$ in case (a), and on $[-B_{k'}^2, B_{k'}^2]$ in case (b). Assume $\|g'\|_{\infty} \leq C_1$ and $\|g''\|_{\infty} \leq C_2$. Then \mathfrak{K} satisfies the assumption of Lemma 25 with $C_{\mathfrak{K}} := 2C_1 + 16C_2B_{k'}^2$ in case (a), and $C_{\mathfrak{K}} := C_1 + C_2B_{k'}^2$ for case (b).*

Proof In case (a), we have $h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \mu) = g(\|u - v + (\lambda - \mu)e\|^2)$. It follows

$$\begin{aligned} |\partial_1 \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}(0, 0)| &= \left| -2g'(\|u - v\|^2) \|e\|^2 - 4g''(\|u - v\|^2) \langle u - v, e \rangle^2 \right| \\ &\leq 2C_1 + 16C_2 B_{k'}^2. \end{aligned}$$

In case (b), we have $h_{u,v,e}(\lambda, \mu) = g(\langle u + \lambda e, v + \mu e \rangle)$. It follows

$$\begin{aligned} |\partial_1 \partial_2 h_{u,v,e}(0, 0)| &= \left| g'(\langle u, v \rangle) \|e\|^2 + g''(\langle u, v \rangle) \langle u, e \rangle \langle v, e \rangle \right| \\ &\leq C_1 + C_2 B_{k'}^2. \end{aligned}$$

■

A.5 Proof of Lemma 12

Proof Let $\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H}'$ the RKHS associated to k, k' with the associated feature mappings Φ, Φ' . Then it can be checked that $(x, x') \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}' \mapsto \Phi(x) \otimes \Phi'(x')$ is a feature mapping for \bar{k} into the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}'$. Using (Steinwart and Christmann, 2008), Th. 4.21, we deduce that the RKHS $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$ of \bar{k} contains precisely all functions of the form $(x, x') \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}' \mapsto F_w(x, x') = \langle w, \Phi(x) \otimes \Phi'(x') \rangle$, where w ranges over $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}'$. Taking w of the form $w = g \otimes g'$, $g \in \mathcal{H}, g' \in \mathcal{H}'$, we deduce that $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$ contains in particular all functions of the form $f(x, x') = g(x)g'(x')$, and further

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{H}} := \text{span} \{ (x, x') \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}' \mapsto g(x)g'(x'); g \in \mathcal{H}, g' \in \mathcal{H}' \} \subset \overline{\mathcal{H}}.$$

Denote $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}), \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}'), \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}')$ the set of real-valued continuous functions on the respective spaces. Let

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}') := \text{span} \{ (x, x') \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}' \mapsto f(x)f'(x'); f \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}), f' \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}') \}.$$

Let $G(x, x')$ be an arbitrary element of $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}')$, $G(x, x') = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i g_i(x) g'_i(x')$ with $g_i \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}), g'_i \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}')$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$. For $\varepsilon > 0$, by universality of k and k' , there exist $f_i \in \mathcal{H}, f'_i \in \mathcal{H}'$ so that $\|f_i - g_i\|_\infty \leq \varepsilon, \|f'_i - g'_i\|_\infty \leq \varepsilon$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$. Let $F(x, x') := \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i f_i(x) f'_i(x') \in \widetilde{\mathcal{H}}$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \|F(x, x') - G(x, x')\|_\infty &\leq \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i (g_i(x) g'_i(x) - f_i(x) f'_i(x)) \right\|_\infty \\ &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \left[(f_i(x) - g_i(x))(g'_i(x') - f'_i(x')) \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. + g_i(x)(g'_i(x) - f'_i(x')) + (g_i(x) - f_i(x))g'_i(x') \right] \right\|_\infty \\ &\leq \varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^k |\lambda_i| (\varepsilon + \|g_i\|_\infty + \|g'_i\|_\infty). \end{aligned}$$

This establishes that $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ is dense in $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}')$ for the supremum norm. It can be easily checked that $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X}')$ is an algebra of functions which does not vanish and separates points on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}'$. By the Stone-Weierstrass theorem, it is therefore dense in $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}')$ for the supremum norm. We deduce that $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ (and thus also $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$) is dense in $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}')$, so that \bar{k} is universal. \blacksquare

A.6 Proof of Theorem 20

Proof Observe:

$$\bar{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') = \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_X^2} \|x - x'\|^2 \right\},$$

and denote:

$$\tilde{k}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') = \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_X^2} \|x - x'\|^2 \right\},$$

We omit the arguments of \bar{k}, \tilde{k} for brevity. Let k_q be the final approximation ($k_q = \bar{z}(\tilde{x})^T \bar{z}(\tilde{x}')$) and then we have

$$|\bar{k} - k_q| = |\bar{k} - \tilde{k} + \tilde{k} - k_q| \leq |\bar{k} - \tilde{k}| + |\tilde{k} - k_q|. \quad (37)$$

From Eqn. (37) it follows that,

$$P(|\bar{k} - k_q| \geq \epsilon_l + \epsilon_q) \leq P(|\bar{k} - \tilde{k}| \geq \epsilon_l) + P(|\tilde{k} - k_q| \geq \epsilon_q). \quad (38)$$

By a direct application of Hoeffding's inequality,

$$P(|\tilde{k} - k_q| \geq \epsilon_q) \leq 2 \exp(-\frac{Q\epsilon_q^2}{2}). \quad (39)$$

Recall that $\langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle = \frac{1}{n_1 n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} k'_X(X_i, X'_j)$. For a pair X_i, X'_j , we have again by Hoeffding

$$P(|z'_X(X_i)^T z'_X(X'_j) - k'_X(X_i, X'_j)| \geq \epsilon) \leq 2 \exp(-\frac{L\epsilon^2}{2}).$$

Let Ω_{ij} be the event $|z'_X(X_i)^T z'_X(X'_j) - k'_X(X_i, X'_j)| \geq \epsilon$, for particular i, j . Using the union bound we have

$$P(\Omega_{11} \cup \Omega_{12} \cup \dots \cup \Omega_{n_1 n_2}) \leq 2n_1 n_2 \exp(-\frac{L\epsilon^2}{2})$$

This implies

$$P(|Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X) - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle| \geq \epsilon) \leq 2n_1 n_2 \exp(-\frac{L\epsilon^2}{2}). \quad (40)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
|\bar{k} - \tilde{k}| &= \left| \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_X^2} \|x - x'\|^2 \right\} \left[\exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} \right] \right| \\
&\leq \left| \left[\exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} - \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} \right] \right| \\
&= \left| \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right\} \left[1 - \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} (\|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 \right. \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. \left. - \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2) \right\} \right] \right| \\
&\leq \left| \left[1 - \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} (\|Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2 - \|\Psi(\hat{P}_X) - \Psi(\hat{P}'_X)\|^2) \right\} \right] \right| \\
&= \left| 1 - \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma_P^2} (Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}_X) \rangle + Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X) \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}'_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle - 2(Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X) - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle)) \right\} \right| \\
&\leq \left| 1 - \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2\sigma_P^2} (|Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}_X) - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}_X) \rangle| + |Z_P(\hat{P}'_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X) \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}'_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle| + 2|(Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X) - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle)|) \right\} \right|
\end{aligned}$$

The result now follows by applying the bound of Eqn. (40) to each of the three terms in the exponent of the preceding expression, together with the stated formula for ϵ in terms of ϵ_ℓ . ■

A.7 Proof of Theorem 22

Proof The proof is very similar to the proof of Theorem 20. We use Lemma 21 to replace bound (39) with:

$$P\left(\sup_{x, x' \in \mathcal{M}} |\tilde{k} - k_q| \geq \epsilon_q\right) \leq 2^8 \left(\frac{\sigma_X^r}{\epsilon_q}\right)^2 \exp\left(\frac{-Q\epsilon_q^2}{2(d+2)}\right). \quad (41)$$

Similarly, Eqn. (40) is replaced by

$$P\left(\sup_{x, x' \in \mathcal{M}} |Z_P(\hat{P}_X)^T Z_P(\hat{P}'_X) - \langle \Psi(\hat{P}_X), \Psi(\hat{P}'_X) \rangle| \geq \epsilon\right) \leq 2^9 n_1 n_2 \left(\frac{\sigma_P \sigma_X r}{\epsilon_l}\right)^2 \exp\left(\frac{-L\epsilon_l^2}{2(d+2)}\right). \quad (42)$$

The remainder of the proof now proceeds as in the previous proof. ■

A.8 Results in Tabular Format

Table 1: Average Classification Error of Marginal Transfer Learning on Synthetic Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks			
		16	64	256
	8	36.01	33.08	31.69
	16	31.55	31.03	30.96
	32	30.44	29.31	23.87
	256	23.78	7.22	1.27

Table 2: Average Classification Error of Pooling on Synthetic Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks			
		16	64	256
	8	49.14	49.11	50.04
	16	49.89	50.04	49.68
	32	50.32	50.21	49.61
	256	50.01	50.43	49.93

Table 3: RMSE of Marginal Transfer Learning on Parkinson’s Disease Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks						
	10	15	20	25	30	35	
	20	13.78	12.37	11.93	10.74	10.08	11.17
	24	14.18	11.89	11.51	10.90	10.55	10.18
	28	14.95	13.29	12.00	10.21	10.59	9.52
	34	13.27	11.66	11.79	9.16	9.34	10.50
	41	12.89	11.27	11.17	9.91	9.10	10.05
	49	13.15	11.70	13.81	10.12	9.01	8.69
	58	12.16	9.59	9.85	9.28	8.44	7.62
	70	13.03	9.16	8.80	9.03	8.16	7.88
	84	11.98	9.18	9.74	9.03	7.30	7.01
	100	12.69	8.48	9.52	8.01	7.14	7.5

Table 4: RMSE of Pooling on Parkinson’s Disease Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks						
	10	15	20	25	30	35	
	20	13.64	11.93	11.95	11.06	11.91	12.08
	24	13.80	11.83	11.70	11.98	11.68	11.48
	28	13.78	11.70	11.72	11.18	11.58	11.73
	34	13.71	12.20	12.04	11.17	11.67	11.92
	41	13.69	11.73	12.08	11.28	11.55	12.59
	49	13.75	11.85	11.79	11.17	11.34	11.82
	58	13.70	11.89	12.06	11.06	11.82	11.65
	70	13.54	11.86	12.14	11.21	11.40	11.96
	84	13.55	11.98	12.03	11.25	11.54	12.22
	100	13.53	11.85	11.92	11.12	11.96	11.84

Table 5: Average Classification Error of Marginal Transfer Learning on Satellite Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks				
		10	20	30	40
	5	8.62	7.61	8.25	7.17
	15	6.21	5.90	5.85	5.43
	30	6.61	5.33	5.37	5.35
	45	5.61	5.19	4.71	4.70
	all training data	5.36	4.91	3.86	4.08

Table 6: Average Classification Error of Pooling on Satellite Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks				
		10	20	30	40
	5	8.13	7.54	7.94	6.96
	15	6.55	5.81	5.79	5.57
	30	6.06	5.36	5.56	5.31
	45	5.58	5.12	5.30	4.99
	all training data	5.37	4.98	5.32	5.14

Table 7: Average Classification Error of Marginal Transfer Learning on Flow Cytometry Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks				
		5	10	15	20
	1024	9	9.03	9.03	8.70
	2048	9.12	9.56	9.07	8.62
	4096	8.96	8.91	9.01	8.66
	8192	9.18	9.20	9.04	8.74
	16384	9.05	9.08	9.04	8.63

Table 8: Average Classification Error of Pooling on Flow Cytometry Data set

Examples per Task	Tasks				
		5	10	15	20
	1024	9.41	9.48	9.32	9.52
	2048	9.92	9.57	9.45	9.54
	4096	9.72	9.56	9.36	9.40
	8192	9.43	9.53	9.38	9.50
	16384	9.42	9.56	9.40	9.33

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