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**Learning Theory and Approximation**

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**Workshop: Learning Theory and Approximation**

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## Abstracts

### RKHS representation of measures applied to homogeneity, independence, and Fourier optics

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A symmetric function  $k : \mathcal{X}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\mathcal{X}$  is a nonempty set, is called a positive definite (pd) kernel if for arbitrary points  $x_1, \dots, x_m \in \mathcal{X}$  and coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\sum_{i,j} a_i a_j k(x_i, x_j) \geq 0.$$

The kernel is called strictly positive definite if for pairwise distinct points, the implication  $\sum_{i,j} a_i a_j k(x_i, x_j) = 0 \implies \forall i : a_i = 0$  is valid.

Any positive definite kernel induces a mapping

$$x \mapsto k(x, \cdot)$$

into a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) satisfying

$$\langle k(x, \cdot), k(x', \cdot) \rangle = k(x, x')$$

for all  $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$ .

Consider two sets of points  $X := \{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \subset \mathcal{X}, Y := \{y_1, \dots, y_n\} \subset \mathcal{X}$ . We define the mean map  $\mu$  by

$$\mu(X) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m k(x_i, \cdot).$$

One can define a classification rule in  $\mathcal{H}$  based on the closest mean, i.e., using a hyperplane with normal vector  $\mu(X) - \mu(Y)$  [4]. This begs the question: when is this normal vector zero (in which case it does not define a hyperplane)? For polynomial kernels  $k(x, x') = (\langle x, x' \rangle + 1)^d$ , this amounts to all empirical moments up to order  $d$  vanishing. For strictly positive definite kernels, the means coincide only if  $X = Y$ , rendering  $\mu$  injective:

**Lemma.** *Assume  $X, Y$  are defined as above,  $k$  is strictly pd, and for all  $i, j$ ,  $x_i \neq x_j$ , and  $y_i \neq y_j$ . If for some  $\alpha_i, \beta_j \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ , we have*

$$(1) \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i k(x_i, \cdot) = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j k(y_j, \cdot),$$

then  $X = Y$ .

To see this, assume w.l.o.g. that  $x_1 \notin Y$ . Subtract  $\sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j k(y_j, \cdot)$  from (1), and make it a sum over pairwise distinct points, to get

$$0 = \sum_i \gamma_i k(z_i, \cdot),$$

where  $z_1 = x_1, \gamma_1 = \alpha_1 \neq 0$ , and  $z_2, \dots \in X \cup Y - \{x_1\}, \gamma_2, \dots \in \mathbb{R}$ . Take the RKHS dot product with  $\sum_j \gamma_j k(z_j, \cdot)$  to get

$$0 = \sum_{ij} \gamma_i \gamma_j k(z_i, z_j),$$

with  $\gamma \neq 0$ , hence  $k$  cannot be strictly pd. ■

The mean map has some other interesting properties. Among them is the fact that  $\mu(X)$  represents the operation of taking a mean of a function on the sample  $X$ :

$$\langle \mu(X), f \rangle = \left\langle \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m k(x_i, \cdot), f \right\rangle = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m f(x_i)$$

Moreover, we have

$$\|\mu(X) - \mu(Y)\| = \sup_{\|f\| \leq 1} |\langle \mu(X) - \mu(Y), f \rangle| = \sup_{\|f\| \leq 1} \left| \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m f(x_i) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(y_i) \right|.$$

If  $\mathbf{E}_{x, x' \sim p}[k(x, x')], \mathbf{E}_{x, x' \sim q}[k(x, x')] < \infty$ , then the above statements generalize to Borel measures  $p, q$ , with the difference being that the mean map is defined as

$$\mu: p \mapsto \mathbf{E}_{x \sim p}[k(x, \cdot)],$$

and the notion of strictly pd kernels is replaced by that of characteristic kernels [1]. In this case, the mean map can be viewed as a generalization of the *moment generating function*  $M_p$  of a random variable  $x$  with distribution  $p$ ,

$$M_p(\cdot) = \mathbf{E}_{x \sim p} [e^{\langle x, \cdot \rangle}].$$

If we restrict the class of distributions, the class of kernels for which  $\mu$  is injective gets larger. To see this, consider a bounded translation invariant kernel  $k(x, x') = \psi(x - x')$ , with continuous  $\psi: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , which by Bochner's theorem corresponds to a finite nonnegative Borel measure  $\Lambda$ . In that case, we have

$$\|\mu(p) - \mu(q)\| = \|F^{-1}[(\bar{\phi}_p - \bar{\phi}_q)\Lambda]\|,$$

where  $\phi_p$  is the characteristic function of the measure  $p$ ,  $\|\cdot\|$  is the norm of the RKHS,  $F^{-1}$  is the inverse Fourier transform, and the bar denotes complex conjugation. Roughly speaking, this shows that  $p$  and  $q$  can be distinguished as long as the spectrum  $\Lambda$  of the kernel is nonzero wherever the spectra of the distributions might differ. If  $\text{supp}(\Lambda) = \mathbb{R}^d$ , the kernel can distinguish all Borel distributions; if  $\text{supp}(\Lambda) \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  has a non-empty interior, it can still distinguish Borel distributions with compact support, subject to certain technical conditions (for details, see [5]).

The map  $\mu$  has applications in a number of tasks including testing of homogeneity and independence [2, 3]. One can also establish a link to wave optics, which we will briefly sketch presently. We consider  $p$  as the intensity distribution of the light coming from an object which we would like to image. On the way to the sensor, there is an aperture with indicator function  $L$  (i.e.,  $L$  takes the value 1 in the aperture, and 0 elsewhere). In the setting of Fraunhofer diffraction, the

image intensity arising from a point source is the squared Fourier transform of  $L$ , i.e., the Fourier transform of the convolution of  $L$  with itself,  $\Lambda := L * L$ . For instance, in the 1-D case, if  $L$  is the indicator function of an interval, then  $\Lambda$  is a  $B_1$ -spline. Under the assumption of incoherent light, the image of  $p$  would thus be the convolution of  $p$  with the Fourier transform of  $\Lambda$ , equalling the map  $\mu(p)$  induced by the translation invariant kernel associated with the Fourier transform of  $\Lambda$ . If the image has compact support, and the aperture has non-empty interior, then the imaging process is thus invertible.

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