# Kernel Method: Data Analysis with Positive Definite Kernels 

2. Positive Definite Kernel and Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space

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Nov. 17-26, 2010
Intensive Course at Tokyo Institute of Technology

## Outline

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Definition and examples of positive definite kernel

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RKHS and positive definite kernel

Some basic properties
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Positive definite kernel

> Definition and examples of positive definite kernel

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## Definition of Positive Definite Kernel

Definition. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a set. $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a positive definite kernel if $k(x, y)=k(y, x)$ and for every $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in \mathcal{X}$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} c_{i} c_{j} k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \geq 0
$$

i.e. the symmetric matrix

$$
\left(k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)\right)_{i, j=1}^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
k\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right) & \cdots & k\left(x_{1}, x_{n}\right) \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
k\left(x_{n}, x_{1}\right) & \cdots & k\left(x_{n}, x_{)}\right.
\end{array}\right)
$$

is positive semidefinite.

- The symmetric matrix $\left(k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)\right)_{i, j=1}^{n}$ is often called a Gram matrix.


## Definition: Complex-valued Case

Definition. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a set. $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a positive definite kernel if for every $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in \mathcal{X}$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{C}$

$$
\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} c_{i} \overline{c_{j}} k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \geq 0
$$

Remark. The Hermitian property $k(y, x)=\overline{k(x, y)}$ is derived from the positive-definiteness. [Exercise]

## Some Basic Properties

Facts. Assume $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is positive definite. Then, for any $x, y$ in $\mathcal{X}$,

1. $k(x, x) \geq 0$.
2. $|k(x, y)|^{2} \leq k(x, x) k(y, y)$.

Proof. (1) is obvious. For (2), with the fact $k(y, x)=\overline{k(x, y)}$, the definition of positive definiteness implies that the eigenvalues of the hermitian matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
k(x, x) & \overline{k(x, y)} \\
k(x, y) & k(y, y)
\end{array}\right)
$$

is non-negative, thus, its determinant $k(x, x) k(y, y)-|k(x, y)|^{2}$ is non-negative.

## Examples

Real valued positive definite kernels on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ :

- Linear kernel ${ }^{1}$

$$
k_{0}(x, y)=x^{T} y
$$

- Exponential

$$
k_{E}(x, y)=\exp \left(\beta x^{T} y\right) \quad(\beta>0)
$$

- Gaussian RBF (radial basis function) kernel

$$
k_{G}(x, y)=\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}\|x-y\|^{2}\right) \quad(\sigma>0)
$$

- Laplacian kernel

$$
k_{L}(x, y)=\exp \left(-\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|x_{i}-y_{i}\right|\right) \quad(\alpha>0)
$$

- Polynomial kernel

$$
k_{P}(x, y)=\left(x^{T} y+c\right)^{d} \quad(c \geq 0, d \in \mathbb{N})
$$

${ }^{1}$ [Exercise] prove that the linear kernel is positive definite.

Positive definite kernel

# Definition and examples of positive definite kernel 

Reproducing kernel Hilbert space RKHS and positive definite kernel

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## Reproducing kernel Hilbert space

Definition. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a set. A reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) (over $\mathcal{X}$ ) is a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ consisting of functions on $\mathcal{X}$ such that for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ there is a function $k_{x} \in \mathcal{H}$ with the property

$$
\left\langle f, k_{x}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=f(x) \quad(\forall f \in \mathcal{H}) \quad \text { (reproducing property). }
$$

$k(\cdot, x):=k_{x}(\cdot)$ is called a reproducing kernel of $\mathcal{H}$.
Fact 1. A reproducing kernel is Hermitian (or symmetric).
Proof.
$k(y, x)=\left\langle k(\cdot, x), k_{y}\right\rangle=\left\langle k_{x}, k_{y}\right\rangle=\overline{\left\langle k_{y}, k_{x}\right\rangle}=\overline{\left\langle k(\cdot, y), k_{x}\right\rangle}=\overline{k(x, y)}$.
Fact 2. The reproducing kernel is unique, if exists. [Exercise]

## Positive Definite Kernel and RKHS I

## Proposition 1 (RKHS $\Rightarrow$ positive definite kernel)

The reproducing kernel of a RKHS is positive definite.
Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} & \left.c_{i} \overline{c_{j}} k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)=\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} c_{i} \overline{c_{j}} k\left(\cdot, x_{i}\right), k\left(\cdot, x_{j}\right)\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} k\left(\cdot, x_{i}\right), \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j} k\left(\cdot, x_{j}\right)\right\rangle=\left\|\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} k\left(\cdot, x_{i}\right)\right\|^{2} \geq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Positive Definite Kernel and RKHS II

## Theorem 2 (positive definite kernel $\Rightarrow$ RKHS. Moore-Aronszajn)

Let $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ (or $\mathbb{R}$ ) be a positive definite kernel on a set $\mathcal{X}$. Then, there uniquely exists a RKHS $\mathcal{H}_{k}$ on $\mathcal{X}$ such that

1. $k(\cdot, x) \in \mathcal{H}_{k}$ for every $x \in \mathcal{X}$,
2. $\operatorname{Span}\{k(\cdot, x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}\}$ is dense in $\mathcal{H}_{k}$,
3. $k$ is the reproducing kernel on $\mathcal{H}_{k}$, i.e.,

$$
\left\langle f, k(\cdot, x)_{\mathcal{H}}\right\rangle=f(x) \quad\left(\forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall f \in \mathcal{H}_{k}\right) .
$$

Proof omitted.

## Positive Definite Kernel and RKHS III

One-to-one correspondence between positive definite kernels and RKHS.


- Proposition 1: RKHS $\mapsto$ positive definite kernel $k$.
- Theorem 2: $k \mapsto \mathcal{H}_{k}$ (injective).


## RKHS as Feature Space

If we define

$$
\Phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{k}, \quad x \mapsto k(\cdot, x)
$$

then,

$$
\langle\Phi(x), \Phi(y)\rangle=\langle k(\cdot, x), k(\cdot, y)\rangle=k(x, y)
$$

RKHS associated with a positive definite kernel $k$ gives a desired feature space!!

In kernel methods, the above feature map and feature space are always used.

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## Operations that Preserve Positive Definiteness I

## Proposition 3

If $k_{i}: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}(i=1,2, \ldots)$ are positive definite kernels, then so are the following:

1. (positive combination) $a k_{1}+b k_{2} \quad(a, b \geq 0)$.
2. (product)
$k_{1} k_{2}$
$\left(k_{1}(x, y) k_{2}(x, y)\right)$.
3. (limit) $\quad \lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} k_{i}(x, y)$, assuming the limit exists.

Remark. From Proposition 3, the set of all positive definite kernels is a closed (w.r.t. pointwise convergence) convex cone stable under multiplication.

## Operations that Preserve Positive Definiteness II

## Proof.

(1): Obvious.
(3): The non-negativity in the definition holds also for the limit.
(2): It suffices to show that two Hermitian matrices $A$ and $B$ are positive semidefinite, so is their component-wise product. This is done by the following lemma.

Definition. For two matrices $A$ and $B$ of the same size, the matrix $C$ with $C_{i j}=A_{i j} B_{i j}$ is called the Hadamard product of $A$ and $B$.
The Hadamard product of $A$ and $B$ is denoted by $A \odot B$.

## Lemma 4

Let $A$ and $B$ be non-negative Hermitian matrices of the same size. Then, $A \odot B$ is also non-negative.

## Operations that Preserve Positive Definiteness III

Proof.
Let

$$
A=U \Lambda U^{*}
$$

be the eigendecomposition of $A$, where
$U=\left(u^{1}, \ldots, u^{p}\right)$ : a unitary matrix, i.e., $\quad U^{*}=\bar{U}^{T}$
$\Lambda$ : diagonal matrix with non-negative entries $\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{p}\right)$.
Then, for arbitrary $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{p} \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$
\sum_{i, j=1} c_{i} \bar{c}_{j}(A \odot B)_{i j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} \lambda_{a} c_{i} \bar{c}_{j} u_{i}^{a} \bar{u}_{j}^{a} B_{i j}=\sum_{a=1}^{p} \lambda_{a} \xi^{a T} B \overline{\xi^{a}}
$$

where $\xi^{a}=\left(c_{1} u_{1}^{a}, \ldots, c_{p} u_{p}^{a}\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{C}^{p}$.
Since $\xi^{a T} B \overline{\xi^{a}}$ and $\lambda_{a}$ are non-negative for each $a$, so is the sum.

## Feature Map must be Positive Definite

## Proposition 5

Let $V$ be an vector space with an inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$. If we have a map

$$
\Phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow V, \quad x \mapsto \Phi(x)
$$

a positive definite kernel on $\mathcal{X}$ is defined by

$$
k(x, y)=\langle\Phi(x), \Phi(y)\rangle
$$

Proof. Let $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ in $\mathcal{X}$ and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in \mathbb{C}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} c_{i} \overline{c_{j}} k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) & =\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} c_{i} \overline{c_{j}}\left\langle\Phi\left(x_{i}\right), \Phi\left(x_{j}\right)\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \Phi\left(x_{i}\right), \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j} \Phi\left(x_{j}\right)\right\rangle \\
& =\left\|\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \Phi\left(x_{i}\right)\right\|^{2} \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Modification

## Proposition 6

Let $k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a positive definite kernel and $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be an arbitrary function. Then,

$$
\tilde{k}(x, y)=f(x) k(x, y) \overline{f(y)}
$$

is positive definite. In particular,

$$
f(x) \overline{f(y)}
$$

and

$$
\frac{k(x, y)}{\sqrt{k(x, x)} \sqrt{k(y, y)}}
$$

(normalized kernel)
are positive definite.
Proof is left as an exercise.

## Proofs for Positive Definiteness of Examples

- Linear kernel: Proposition 5
- Exponential:

$$
\exp \left(\beta x^{T} y\right)=1+\beta x^{T} y+\frac{\beta^{2}}{2!}\left(x^{T} y\right)^{2}+\frac{\beta^{3}}{3!}\left(x^{T} y\right)^{3}+\cdots
$$

Use Proposition 3.

- Gaussian RBF kernel:

$$
\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}\|x-y\|^{2}\right)=\exp \left(-\frac{\|x\|^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right) \exp \left(\frac{x^{T} y}{\sigma^{2}}\right) \exp \left(-\frac{\|y\|^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)
$$

Apply Proposition 6.

- Laplacian kernel: The proof is shown later.
- Polynomial kernel: Just sum and product.

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## Definition by Evaluation Map

## Proposition 7

Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a Hilbert space consisting of functions on a set $\mathcal{X}$. Then, $\mathcal{H}$ is a RKHS if and only if the evaluation map

$$
e_{x}: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}, \quad e_{x}(f)=f(x),
$$

is a continuous linear functional for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
Proof. Assume $\mathcal{H}$ is a RKHS. The boundedness of $e_{x}$ is obvious from

$$
\left|e_{x}(f)\right|=\left|\left\langle f, k_{x}\right\rangle\right| \leq\left\|k_{x}\right\|\|f\| .
$$

Conversely, assume the evaluation map is continuous. By Riesz lemma, there is $k_{x} \in \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$
\left\langle f, k_{x}\right\rangle=e_{x}(f)=f(x),
$$

which means $\mathcal{H}$ is a RKHS having $k_{x}$ as a reproducing kernel.

## Continuity

The functions in a RKHS are "nice" functions under some conditions.

## Proposition 8

Let $k$ be a positive definite kernel on a topological space $\mathcal{X}$, and $\mathcal{H}_{k}$ be the associated RKHS. If $\operatorname{Re}[k(y, x)]$ is continuous for every $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, then all the functions in $\mathcal{H}_{k}$ are continuous.

Proof. Let $f$ be an arbitrary function in $\mathcal{H}_{k}$.

$$
|f(x)-f(y)|=|\langle f, k(\cdot, x)-k(\cdot, y)\rangle| \leq\|f\|\|k(\cdot, x)-k(\cdot, y)\| .
$$

The assertion is easy from

$$
\|k(\cdot, x)-k(\cdot, y)\|^{2}=k(x, x)+k(y, y)-2 \operatorname{Re}[k(x, y)] .
$$

Remark. If $k(x, y)$ is differentiable, then all the functions in $\mathcal{H}_{k}$ are differentiable.
c.f. $L^{2}$ space contains non-continuous functions.

## Summary of Sections 1 and 2

- We would like to use a feature $\operatorname{map} \Phi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ to incorporate nonlinearity or high order moments.
- The inner product in the feature space must be computed efficiently. Ideally,

$$
\langle\Phi(x), \Phi(y)\rangle=k(x, y)
$$

- To satisfy the above relation, the kernel $k$ must be positive definite.
- A positive definite kernel $k$ defines an associated RKHS, where $k$ is the reproducing kernel;

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

- Use a RKHS as a feature space, and $\Phi: x \mapsto k(\cdot, x)$ as the feature map.

Appendix: Quick introduction to Hilbert spaces Definition of Hilbert space
Basic properties of Hilbert space

Appendix: Proofs
Proof of Theorem 2

## Vector space with inner product I

Definition. $V$ : vector space over a field $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$.
$V$ is called an inner product space if it has an inner product (or scalar product, dot product) $(\cdot, \cdot): V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ such that for every $x, y, z \in V$

1. (Strong positivity) $(x, x) \geq 0$, and $(x, x)=0$ if and only if $x=0$,
2. (Addition)

$$
(x+y, z)=(x, z)+(y, z)
$$

3. (Scalar multiplication)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad(\alpha x, y)=\alpha(x, y)(\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{K}) \\
& (y, x)=\overline{(x, y)}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. (Hermitian)

## Vector space with inner product II

$(V,(\cdot, \cdot))$ : inner product space.
Norm of $x \in V$ :

$$
\|x\|=(x, x)^{1 / 2}
$$

Metric between $x$ and $y$ :

$$
d(x, y)=\|x-y\|
$$

## Theorem 9

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$
|(x, y)| \leq\|x\|\|y\| .
$$

Remark: Cauchy-Schwarz inequality holds without requiring $\|x\|=0 \Rightarrow x=0$.

## Hilbert space I

Definition. A vector space with inner product $(\mathcal{H},(\cdot, \cdot))$ is called Hilbert space if the induced metric is complete, i.e. every
Cauchy sequence ${ }^{2}$ converges to an element in $\mathcal{H}$.

## Remark 1:

A Hilbert space may be either finite or infinite dimensional.
Example 1.
$\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ are finite dimensional Hilbert space with the ordinary inner product

$$
(x, y)_{\mathbb{R}^{n}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} \quad \text { or } \quad(x, y)_{\mathbb{C}^{n}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \overline{y_{i}}
$$

[^0]
## Hilbert space II

Example 2. $L^{2}(\Omega, \mu)$.
Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ is a measure space.

$$
\mathcal{L}=\left\{f:\left.\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\left|\int\right| f\right|^{2} d \mu<\infty\right\}
$$

The inner product on $\mathcal{L}$ is define by

$$
(f, g)=\int f \bar{g} d \mu
$$

$L^{2}(\Omega, \mu)$ is defined by the equivalent classes identifying $f$ and $g$ if their values differ only on a measure-zero set.

- $L^{2}(\Omega, \mu)$ is complete.
- $L^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, d x\right)$ is infinite dimensional.

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## Orthogonality

- Orthogonal complement.

Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a Hilbert space and $V$ be a closed subspace.

$$
V^{\perp}:=\{x \in \mathcal{H} \mid(x, y)=0 \text { for all } y \in V\}
$$

is a closed subspace, and called the orthogonal complement.

- Orthogonal projection.

Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a Hilbert space and $V$ be a closed subspace.
Every $x \in \mathcal{H}$ can be uniquely decomposed

$$
x=y+z, \quad y \in V \quad \text { and } \quad z \in V^{\perp}
$$

that is,

$$
\mathcal{H}=V \oplus V^{\perp} .
$$

## Complete orthonormal system I

- ONS and CONS.

A subset $\left\{u_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of $\mathcal{H}$ is called an orthonormal system (ONS) if $\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=\delta_{i j}$ ( $\delta_{i j}$ is Kronecker's delta).

A subset $\left\{u_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of $\mathcal{H}$ is called a complete orthonormal system (CONS) if it is ONS and if $\left(x, u_{i}\right)=0(\forall i \in I)$ implies $x=0$.

Fact: Any ONS in a Hilbert space can be extended to a CONS.

## Complete orthonormal system II

- Separability

A Hilbert space is separable if it has a countable CONS.

## Assumption

In this course, a Hilbert space is always assumed to be separable.

## Complete orthonormal system III

Theorem 10 (Fourier series expansion)
Let $\left\{u_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a CONS of a separable Hilbert space. For each $x \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
x=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left(x, u_{i}\right) u_{i}, \quad \text { (Fourier expansion) } \\
\|x\|^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left|\left(x, u_{i}\right)\right|^{2} . \quad \text { (Parseval's equality) }
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof omitted.
Example: CONS of $L^{2}([02 \pi], d x)$

$$
u_{n}(t)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{\sqrt{-1} n t} \quad(n=0,1,2, \ldots)
$$

Then,

$$
f(t)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} u_{n}(t)
$$

is the (ordinary) Fourier expansion of a periodic function.

## Bounded operator I

Let $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$ be Hilbert spaces. A linear transform $T: \mathcal{H}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{2}$ is often called operator.

Definition. A linear operator $\mathcal{H}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}$ is called bounded if

$$
\sup _{\|x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}=1}=}\|T x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}<\infty
$$

The operator norm of a bounded operator $T$ is defined by

$$
\|T\|=\sup _{\|x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}=1}\|T x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}=\sup _{x \neq 0} \frac{\|T x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{2}}}{\|x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}}}
$$

(Corresponds to the largest singular value of a matrix.)
Fact. If $T: \mathcal{H}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{2}$ is bounded,

$$
\|T x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{2}} \leq\|T\|\|x\|_{\mathcal{H}_{1}} .
$$

## Bounded operator II

## Proposition 11

A linear operator is bounded if and only if it is continuous.
Proof. Assume $T: \mathcal{H}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{2}$ is bounded. Then,

$$
\left\|T x-T x_{0}\right\| \leq\|T\|\left\|x-x_{0}\right\|
$$

means continuity of $T$.
Assume $T$ is continuous. For any $\varepsilon>0$, there is $\delta>0$ such that $\|T x\|<\varepsilon$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}_{1}$ with $\|x\|<2 \delta$.
Then,

$$
\sup _{\|x\|=1}\|T x\|=\sup _{\|x\|=\delta} \frac{1}{\delta}\|T x\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{\delta}
$$

## Riesz lemma I

Definition. A linear functional is a linear transform from $\mathcal{H}$ to $\mathbb{C}$ (or $\mathbb{R}$ ).

The vector space of all the bounded (continuous) linear functionals called the dual space of $\mathcal{H}$, and is denoted by $\mathcal{H}^{*}$.

Theorem 12 (Riesz lemma)
For each $\phi \in \mathcal{H}^{*}$, there is a unique $y_{\phi} \in \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$
\phi(x)=\left(x, y_{\phi}\right) \quad(\forall x \in \mathcal{H})
$$

Proof.
Consider the case of $\mathbb{R}$ for simplicity.
$\Leftarrow)$ Obvious by Cauchy-Schwartz.

## Riesz lemma II

$\Rightarrow)$ If $\phi(x)=0$ for all $x$, take $y=0$. Otherwise, let

$$
V=\{x \in \mathcal{H} \mid \phi(x)=0\} .
$$

Since $\phi$ is a bounded linear functional, $V$ is a closed subspace, and $V \neq \mathcal{H}$.
Take $z \in V^{\perp}$ with $\|z\|=1$. By orthogonal decomposition, for any $x \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$
x-(x, z) z \in V .
$$

Apply $\phi$, then

$$
\phi(x)-(x, z) \phi(z)=0, \quad \text { i.e., } \quad \phi(x)=(x, \phi(z) z) .
$$

Take $y_{\phi}=\phi(z) z$.

Riesz lemma III


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## Proof of Theorem 2 I

Proof. (Described in $\mathbb{R}$ case.)

- Construction of an inner product space:

$$
H_{0}:=\operatorname{Span}\{k(\cdot, x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}\} .
$$

Define an inner product on $H_{0}$ : for $f=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} k\left(\cdot, x_{i}\right)$ and $g=\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} k\left(\cdot, y_{j}\right)$,

$$
\langle f, g\rangle:=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{i} b_{j} k\left(x_{i}, y_{j}\right) .
$$

This is independent of the way of representing $f$ and $g$ from the expression

$$
\langle f, g\rangle=\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} f\left(y_{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} g\left(x_{i}\right) .
$$

## Proof of Theorem 2 II

- Reproducing property on $H_{0}$ :

$$
\langle f, k(\cdot, x)\rangle=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} k\left(x_{i}, x\right)=f(x)
$$

- Well-defined as an inner product: It is easy to see $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ is bilinear form, and

$$
\|f\|^{2}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} a_{i} a_{j} k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \geq 0
$$

by the positive definiteness of $f$.
If $\|f\|=0$, from Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, ${ }^{3}$

$$
|f(x)|=|\langle f, k(\cdot, x)\rangle| \leq\|f\|\|k(\cdot, x)\|=0
$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$; thus $f=0$.

## Proof of Theorem 2 III

- Completion:

Let $\mathcal{H}$ be the completion of $H_{0}$.

- $H_{0}$ is dense in $\mathcal{H}$ by the completion.
- $\mathcal{H}$ is realized by functions:

Let $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ be a Cauchy sequence in $\mathcal{H}$. For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\left\{f_{n}(x)\right\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, because

$$
\left|f_{n}(x)-f_{m}(x)\right|=\left|\left\langle f_{n}-f_{m}, k(\cdot, x)\right\rangle\right| \leq\left\|f_{n}-f_{m}\right\|\|k(\cdot, x)\| .
$$

Define $f(x)=\lim _{n} f_{n}(x)$.
This value is the same for equivalent sequences, because $\left\{f_{n}\right\} \sim\left\{g_{n}\right\}$ implies
$\left|f_{n}(x)-g_{n}(x)\right|=\left|\left\langle f_{n}-g_{n}, k(\cdot, x)\right\rangle\right| \leq\left\|f_{n}-g_{n}\right\|\|k(\cdot, x)\| \rightarrow 0$.
Thus, any element $\left[\left\{f_{n}\right\}\right]$ in $\mathcal{H}$ can be regarded as a function $f$ on $\mathcal{X}$.

[^1]
[^0]:    ${ }^{2}$ A sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in a metric space $(X, d)$ is called a Cauchy sequence if $d\left(x_{n}, x_{m}\right) \rightarrow 0$ for $n, m \rightarrow \infty$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ Note that Cauchy-Schwarz inequality holds without assuming strong positivity of the inner product.

