Abstract

Kernel methods provide an elegant framework for developing nonlinear learning algorithms from simple linear methods. Though these methods have superior empirical performance in several real data applications, their usefulness is inhibited by the significant computational burden incurred in large sample situations. Various approximation schemes have been proposed in the literature to alleviate these computational issues, and the approximate kernel machines are shown to retain the empirical performance. However, the theoretical properties of these approximate kernel machines are less well understood. In this work, we theoretically study the trade-off between computational complexity and statistical accuracy in Nyström approximate kernel principal component analysis (KPCA), wherein we show that the Nyström approximate KPCA matches the statistical performance of (non-approximate) KPCA while remaining computationally beneficial. Additionally, we show that Nyström approximate KPCA outperforms the statistical behavior of another popular approximation scheme, the random feature approximation, when applied to KPCA.

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1 Introduction

Principal component analysis (PCA) (Jolliffe, 1986) is an unsupervised learning technique in which a random variable $X$ taking values in $\mathbb{R}^d$ is projected onto the direction $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $\text{Var}[a^TX]$ is maximized. Further, for some $\ell < d$, PCA may be used to find an $\ell$-dimensional subspace retaining the maximum possible variance of $X$, making PCA a popular methodology for dimension reduction and feature extraction. This low-dimensional subspace is the $\ell$-eigenspace, i.e., the span of the eigenvectors associated with the top $\ell$ eigenvalues of the covariance matrix $\mathbb{E}XX^T - \mathbb{E}X\mathbb{E}X^T$. The respective eigenvectors are referred to as the principal components of the data, and a lower-dimensional representation of the input data may be computed by projecting onto the principal components.

The principal components outputted by PCA are linearly related to the original coordinates; however, in many cases a non-linear component provides a better description of the data. Kernel PCA (KPCA) (Schölkopf et al., 1998) is a non-linear extension of PCA which maps the original
data into a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) \cite{Aronszajn1950} where PCA is performed, resulting in principal components which are non-linearly related to the original data. Specifically, for an RKHS $\mathcal{H}$ with reproducing kernel $k : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, KPCA solves $\sup \{ \text{Var}[f(X)] : \|f\|_\mathcal{H} = 1 \}$. Analogous to linear PCA, the principal components in KPCA are the eigenfunctions of the covariance operator $\Sigma = \mathbb{E}[\Phi(X) \otimes_\mathcal{H} \Phi(X)] - \mathbb{E}[\Phi(X)] \otimes_\mathcal{H} \mathbb{E}[\Phi(X)]$, where $\Phi(X) = k(\cdot, X)$ is the feature map. Similarly, an $\ell$-dimensional representation of $X$ is obtained by projecting onto the $\ell$-eigenspace of $\Sigma$. Kernel PCA has been employed successfully in tasks such as computer vision \cite{Lampert2009}, image denoising \cite{Mika1999}, and other learning environments with complex spatial structures.

Empirically, given $X_1, \ldots, X_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathbb{P}$, the eigenfunctions of $\Sigma$ are estimated by those of the empirical covariance operator $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{2n(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j}^n (\Phi(X_i) - \Phi(X_j)) \otimes_\mathcal{H} (\Phi(X_i) - \Phi(X_j))$, yielding empirical KPCA (EKPCA). Though this may require solving an infinite dimensional system, it can be shown (see Proposition 3.1) that the eigenfunctions of $\hat{\Sigma}$ can be obtained by solving an $n$-dimensional eigenvalue problem, which has a computational requirement of $O(n^3)$ and a memory requirement of $O(n^2)$. This means, EKPCA scales quite poorly with large sample sizes, a behavior shared by many kernel methods. This has lead to a lot of research activity in constructing approximation methods which relieve the computational burden. Nyström method \cite{Reinhardt1985, Williams1998} is a popular approximation scheme, which uses a subsample of the original data to construct a low-rank approximation to the Gram matrix $K = [k(X_i, X_j)]_{i,j}$, which in turn is closely related to $\hat{\Sigma}$. More precisely, the Gram matrix $K$ is approximated by

$$\tilde{K} = K_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1}K_{nm}^T,$$

where $K_{nm}$ is the matrix formed by randomly selecting $m$ columns of $K$ and $K_{mm}$ is the intersection of those $m$ columns and $m$ rows of $K$. The approximate Gram matrix can be used in subsequent learning tasks, resulting in computational saving for $m < n$. In the case of KPCA, the computational complexity is reduced from $O(n^3)$ to $O(nm^2)$. Of course, the question of interest is whether this computational saving comes at the cost of statistical accuracy. In this work we establish the consistency of Nyström KPCA (NY-EKPCA), and study the relationship between statistical behavior and computational complexity.

### 1.1 Contributions

The contributions of the paper are as follows:

(i) In Section 3.2 we propose Nyström empirical KPCA (NY-EKPCA), and demonstrate its computational complexity. In Section 4 we compare the performance of empirical KPCA (EKPCA) with that of NY-EKPCA in terms of the reconstruction error of the $\ell$-eigenspaces in $\mathcal{H}$. We show that NY-EKPCA matches the statistical performance of EKPCA with less computational complexity, provided the number of subsamples, $m$, is large enough, and the number of eigenfunctions used in the reconstruction, $\ell$, is not too large. We note that similar analysis has been performed working with the uncentered covariance operator \cite{Sterge2020}, that is, $\hat{\Sigma}$ is defined as a $V$-statistic estimator where the mean element is assumed to be zero ($\mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} k(\cdot, X) = 0$), i.e., $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k(\cdot, X_i) \otimes_\mathcal{H} k(\cdot, X_i)$. This assumption of $\mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} k(\cdot, X) = 0$ is highly restrictive, as it is
not satisfied by virtually all common kernels, e.g., Gaussian, Matérn, inverse multiquadric, that induce an infinite dimensional RKHS. However, if this assumption is relaxed, the resulting V-statistic estimator, i.e.,
\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k(\cdot, X_i) \otimes_{\mathcal{H}} k(\cdot, X_i) - \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k(\cdot, X_i) \right) \otimes_{\mathcal{H}} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k(\cdot, X_i) \right)
\]
is no longer unbiased. Since unbiasedness is crucial for a tighter analysis, we consider a U-statistic estimator of \( \Sigma \) as shown in (11) and develop the analysis based on Bernstein-type inequality for operator valued U-statistics, which we proposed in our earlier work (Sriperumbudur and Sterge, 2020). Thus, the current work provides a non-trivial extension to our previous results by relaxing a significant assumption of \( \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathbb{P}} k(\cdot, X) = 0 \).

(ii) In Section 4.2, to foster a comparison with random features approximation (Rahimi and Recht, 2008a; Sriperumbudur and Sterge, 2020)—another popular kernel approximation—we study the performance of NY-EKPCA in terms of the reconstruction error of the \( \ell \)-eigenspace in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \). Comparing NY-EKPCA with EKPCA and random feature approximate EKPCA (RF-EKPCA), we show that NY-EKPCA again recovers the statistical performance of EKPCA with less computational complexity. However, unlike in \( \mathcal{H} \) where the number of eigenfunctions, \( \ell \) used in the reconstruction cannot be too large, the result in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) holds regardless of the number of eigenfunctions, \( \ell \), used in the reconstruction. Additionally, we show the Nyström approximation to be superior to that of the random features approximation by showing that NY-EKPCA outperforms RF-EKPCA in terms of the reconstruction error while enjoying better computational complexity—similar observation was already made in the context of kernel ridge regression (Rudi et al., 2015; Rudi and Rosasco, 2017).

1.2 Related Work

The statistical behavior of EKPCA has been well studied. The statistical consistency of EKPCA is established by Shawe-Taylor et al. (2005), where the reconstruction error of the empirical \( \ell \)-eigenspace is shown to converge at the rate \( \sqrt{\ell/n} \). Blanchard et al. (2007) and Rudi et al. (2013) obtain improved rates by considering the decay rate of the eigenvalues of the covariance operator. With the exception of Blanchard et al. (2007), these works consider uncentered KPCA, though empirical recentering of the data is often performed in practice.

Outside of the Nyström method, several other approximation strategies have been proposed in the kernel methods literature. These include incomplete Cholesky (Bach and Jordan, 2005; Fine and Scheinberg, 2001), random features (Rahimi and Recht, 2008), sketching (Yang et al., 2014), and sparse greedy approximation (Smola and Schölkopf, 2000). These methods, including Nyström, offer significant reductions in computational complexity, and, empirically, have been shown to provide performance competitive to their more expensive counterparts without approximation (Kumar et al., 2009; Rahimi and Recht, 2008b; Yang et al., 2012). Theoretical analysis of the Nyström method has primarily concerned the distance between the Gram matrix, \( K \), and its low-rank approximation (Drineas and Mahoney, 2005; Gittens and Mahoney, 2013; Jin et al., 2013). Recent research has focused on the impact of Nyström approximation in specific learning tasks, allowing one to observe the trade-off between statistical accuracy and computational complexity. The supervised setting has been studied heavily (Alaoui and Mahoney, 2015; Bach, 2013; Rudi et al., 2015), where it has been shown that Nyström approximation can achieve best possible statistical performance with better computational complexity. Significantly less is known in
the unsupervised setting; however, approximate KPCA has been studied \cite{Lopez-PazEtAl2014, UllahEtAl2018, SriperumbudurSterge2020}. Sriperumbudur and Sterge \cite{SriperumbudurSterge2020} show that approximate KPCA using
random features achieves better computational complexity than EKPCA with no loss in statistical performance. Recently, Sterge et al. \cite{StergeEtAl2020} show that Nyström approximate KPCA can yield
comparative features achieves better computational benefit without statistical loss; however, as mentioned in Section \ref{sec:results}, their result hinges on the highly-restrictive assumption that \( \mathbb{E}_{X \sim p}(\cdot, X) = 0. \)

\section{Definitions and Notation}

For \( \mathbf{a} := (a_1, \ldots, a_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( \mathbf{b} := (b_1, \ldots, b_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d \) define \( \| \mathbf{a} \|_2 := \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i^2} \) and \( \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle_2 := \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i b_i. \) \( \mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b} := \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}^\top \) denotes the tensor product of \( \mathbf{a} \) and \( \mathbf{b}. \) \( \mathbf{I}_n \) denotes an \( n \times n \) identity matrix and \( \mathbf{1}_n = (1, \ldots, 1)^\top. \) We define \( \mathbf{C}_n = \mathbf{I}_n - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}_n \mathbf{1}_n^\top \) and \( \mathbf{H}_n = n \mathbf{C}_n. \) For a matrix \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \) \( A^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \) denotes the Moore-Penrose generalized inverse of \( A. \) \( a \wedge b := \min(a, b) \) and \( a \vee b := \max(a, b). \) Define \( [n] := \{1, \ldots, n\} \) for \( n \in \mathbb{N}. \) For constants \( a \) and \( b, \) \( a \lesssim b \) (resp. \( a \gtrsim b \)) denotes that there exists a positive constant \( c \) (resp. \( c' \)) such that \( a \leq cb \) (resp. \( a \geq c'b \)). For a random variable \( A \) with law \( P \) and a constant \( b, \) \( A \lesssim_P b \) denotes that for any \( \delta > 0, \) there exists a positive constant \( c_\delta < \infty \) such that \( P(A \leq c_\delta b) \geq \delta. \)

For \( x, y \in H, \) a Hilbert space, \( x \otimes_H y \) is an element of the tensor product space \( H \otimes H \) which can also be seen as an operator from \( H \) to \( H \) as \( (x \otimes_H y)z = x(y, z)_H \) for any \( z \in H. \) \( \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \) is called an eigenvalue of a bounded self-adjoint operator \( S \) if there exists an \( x \neq 0 \) such that \( Sx = \alpha x \) and such an \( x \) is called the eigenvector/eigenfunction of \( S \) and \( \alpha. \) An eigenvalue is said to be simple if it has multiplicity one. For an operator \( S : H \to H, \) \( \|S\|_{L^1(H)}, \) \( \|S\|_{L^2(H)} \) and \( \|S\|_{L^\infty(H)} \) denote the trace, Hilbert-Schmidt and operator norms of \( S, \) respectively.

\section{Kernel PCA and its Variations}

\textbf{Assumption 1.} \((X, \mathcal{B}) \) is a completely separable space endowed with \( \sigma \)-algebra \( \mathcal{B}. \) \( \mathcal{H} \) is a separable RKHS of \( \mathbb{R} \)-valued functions on \( X \) with bounded continuous positive definite kernel satisfying \( \sup_{x \in X} k(x, x) =: \kappa < \infty. \)

The assumption that \( X \) is completely separable, also called second countable, ensures that \( \mathcal{B} \) is countably generated; therefore, \( L'(X, \mu) \) is separable for any \( \sigma \)-finite measure \( \mu \) on \( \mathcal{B} \) and \( r \in [1, \infty) \) \cite[Proposition 3.4.5]{Cohn2013}. The separability of \( \mathcal{H} \) as well as \( k \) being bounded and continuous guarantees that \( k(\cdot, x) : X \to \mathcal{H} \) is Bochner-measurable for all \( x \in X \) \cite[Theorem 8]{Dinculeanu2000}.

\subsection{Kernel PCA in the Population and Sample}

Kernel PCA \cite{ScholkopfEtAl1998} is an unsupervised learning method in which classical PCA is performed on data which has been mapped to a reproducing kernel Hilbert space. That is, kernel PCA (KPCA) finds \( f \in \mathcal{H} \) with unit norm such that \( \text{Var} [f(X)] = \mathbb{E} [f(X) - \mathbb{E} [f(X)]]^2 \) is maximized. Using the reproducing property, we have \( \text{Var} [f(X)] = \mathbb{E} [\langle f, k(\cdot, X) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} - \langle f, m_\mathcal{H} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}]^2 \) where \( m_\mathcal{H} \in \mathcal{H} \) is the unique mean element of \( \mathbb{P} \) in \( \mathcal{H}, \) defined for all \( f \in \mathcal{H} \) by

\begin{equation}
\langle f, m_\mathcal{H} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \mathbb{E} [f(X)] = \mathbb{E} [\langle f, k(\cdot, X) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}] = \langle f, \int_X k(\cdot, x) d\mathbb{P}(x) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \tag{2}
\end{equation}
where the last equality of (2) holds via Riesz representation theorem \( \text{Reed and Simon, 1980} \) and the boundedness of \( k \) from Assumption 1 which ensures \( k(\cdot, X) \) is Bochner integrable \( \text{Diestel and Uhl, 1977} \) with respect to \( P \). Therefore, we may write \( \text{Var}[f(X)] = \langle f, \Sigma f \rangle_H \) where

\[
\Sigma = \int_X k(\cdot, x) \otimes_H k(\cdot, x) dP(x) - m_P \otimes_H m_P, \tag{3}
\]

is the covariance operator on \( H \) associated with \( P \). Thus, the KPCA problem may be expressed as

\[
\sup \{ \langle f, \Sigma f \rangle_H : f \in H, \|f\|_H = 1 \}, \tag{4}
\]

bearing a strong resemblance to classical PCA. In fact, KPCA can be seen as a generalization of classical linear PCA, as taking \( H = \mathbb{R}^d \) with \( k(x, y) = x^T y \) yields classical PCA with covariance matrix \( \Sigma = \mathbb{E}[XX^\top] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X]^\top \). The boundedness of \( k \) in Assumption 1 ensures that \( \Sigma \) is trace class and thus compact. Since \( \Sigma \) is positive and self-adjoint, the spectral theorem \( \text{Reed and Simon, 1980} \) gives

\[
\Sigma = \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i \phi_i \otimes_H \phi_i,
\]

where \( (\lambda_i)_{i \in I} \subset \mathbb{R}^+ \) and \( (\phi_i)_{i \in I} \) are the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions, respectively, of \( \Sigma \). \( (\phi_i)_{i \in I} \) form an orthonormal system spanning \( \mathcal{R}(\Sigma) \), where the index set \( I \) is either finite or countable, in which case \( \lambda_i \to 0 \) as \( i \to \infty \). The solution to (4) is simply the eigenfunction of \( \Sigma \) corresponding to its largest eigenvalue. We make the following simplifying assumption for ease of presentation.

**Assumption 2.** The eigenvalues \( (\lambda_i)_{i \in I} \) of \( \Sigma \) are simple, positive, and w.l.o.g. satisfy a decreasing rearrangement, i.e., \( \lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \ldots \)

Assumption 2 allows one to express the orthogonal projection operator onto the \( \ell \)-eigenspace of \( \Sigma \), i.e. \( \text{span}\{(\phi_i)_{i=1}^\ell\} \), as

\[
P^\ell(\Sigma) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \phi_i \otimes_H \phi_i. \tag{5}
\]

The above construction corresponds to population version when the data distribution \( P \) is known. In practice, the knowledge of \( P \) is available only through the sample \( \{X_i\}_{i=1}^n \sim_i \mathbb{P} \). Therefore, performing KPCA in practice requires one to replace \( \Sigma \) in (3) with an estimate. In the vast majority of the literature (e.g., \( \text{Schölkopf et al. 1998, Shawe-Taylor et al. 2005} \)), the assumption \( m_P = 0 \) is made and the corresponding V-statistic estimator of \( \Sigma \), i.e., \( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k(\cdot, X_i) \otimes_H k(\cdot, X_i) \) is used. However, the assumption \( m_P = 0 \) is quite restrictive as many popular kernels, such as the Gaussian, do not satisfy this condition. Therefore, to make the setting and results more general, we make no such assumption on \( m_P \); however, this relaxation causes the resultant V-statistic estimator to be biased. To mediate the technical difficulties arising from a biased estimator, we choose the U-statistic estimator,

\[
\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{2n(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j}^n (k(\cdot, X_i) - k(\cdot, X_j)) \otimes_H (k(\cdot, X_i) - k(\cdot, X_j)),
\]

conceived from the following alternate representation of \( \Sigma \):

\[
\Sigma = \frac{1}{2} \int_{X \times X} (k(\cdot, x) - k(\cdot, y)) \otimes_H (k(\cdot, x) - k(\cdot, y)).
\]
Using the reproducing property, it is easy to verify that
\[
\hat{\text{Var}}[f(X)] := \frac{1}{2n(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j}^n (f(X_i) - f(X_j))^2 = \langle \hat{\Sigma} f, f \rangle_H.
\]

Therefore, substituting for \( \Sigma \) in (4) yields the objective of empirical KPCA (EKPCA):
\[
\sup \{ \langle f, \hat{\Sigma} f \rangle_H : f \in H, \|f\|_H = 1 \}.
\]

Of course \( \hat{\Sigma} \) is self-adjoint, positive and has rank at most \( n - 1 \), thus is compact. Thus the spectral theorem \((\text{Reed and Simon}, 1980)\) yields
\[
\hat{\Sigma} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \hat{\lambda}_i \hat{\phi}_i \otimes_H \hat{\phi}_i,
\]
where \( \{\hat{\lambda}_i\}_{i=1}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^+ \) and \( \{\hat{\phi}_i\}_{i=1}^{n-1} \subset H \) are the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of \( \hat{\Sigma} \). Similar to Assumption 2, we make the following simplifying assumption regarding the spectrum of \( \hat{\Sigma} \).

**Assumption 3.** The rank of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) is \( n - 1 \), eigenvalues \( (\hat{\lambda}_i)_{i=1}^{n-1} \) of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) are simple, positive and w.l.o.g. satisfy a decreasing rearrangement, i.e., \( \hat{\lambda}_1 > \hat{\lambda}_2 > \ldots \)

For any \( \ell \leq n - 1 \), since \( \{\hat{\phi}_i\}_{i=1}^{\ell} \) forms an orthogonal coordinate system in \( H \), it yields the following low-dimensional Euclidean representation of \( k(\cdot, x) \),
\[
\left( \langle k(\cdot, x), \hat{\phi}_1 \rangle_H, \ldots, \langle k(\cdot, x), \hat{\phi}_\ell \rangle_H \right)^T = \left( \hat{\phi}_1(x), \ldots, \hat{\phi}_\ell(x) \right)^T,
\]
for any \( x \in X \). Moreover, following Assumption 3 the orthogonal projector onto \( \text{span}\{\hat{\phi}_i : i = 1, \ldots, \ell\} \) is given by
\[
P^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \hat{\phi}_i \otimes_H \hat{\phi}_i.
\]

Though \( \hat{\Sigma} \) is finite rank, its eigenfunctions are solution to a possibly infinite dimensional linear system. The following result, quoted from \( \text{Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020)} \), shows that the eigenvalues of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) can be computed by solving an \( n \)-dimensional system.

**Proposition 3.1** \( \text{Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020), Proposition 1).} \) Let \( (\hat{\lambda}_i, \hat{\phi}_i)_i \) be the eigensystem of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) in (7). Define \( K = [k(X_i, X_j)]_{i,j\in[n]} \). Then
\[
\hat{\phi}_i = \frac{1}{\hat{\lambda}_i} \sum_{j=1}^n \gamma_{i,j} k(\cdot, X_j),
\]
where \( \gamma_{i} = (\gamma_{i,1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i,n}) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)\textbf{H}_n} \bar{\alpha}_i \) with \( \bar{\alpha}_i \notin \text{null}(\textbf{H}_n) \), and \( (\hat{\lambda}_i, \bar{\alpha}_i)_i \) are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of \( \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \textbf{K}\textbf{H}_n \).

As computation of the eigensystem of \( \hat{\Sigma} \) is obtained by solving an \( n \times n \) system, computation of \( (\hat{\lambda}_i, \hat{\phi}_i)_i \) for \( \ell < n \) has a space complexity \( O(n^2) \) and a time complexity of \( O(n^2 \ell) \) via the Lanczos method.
3.2 Approximate Kernel PCA using the Nyström Method

For large sample sizes, performing EKPCA amounts to a significant computational burden, motivating many approximation schemes. We explore the popular Nyström approximation (Drineas and Mahoney, 2005; Reinhardt, 1985; Williams and Seeger, 2001) to speed up EKPCA and study the trade-offs between computational gains and statistical accuracy. The general idea in Nyström method is to obtain a low-rank approximation to the Gram matrix $K$, and replace $K$ by this approximation in kernel algorithms, resulting in computational speedup. Since the eigenspace of $KH_n$ is related to that of $\tilde{\Sigma}$ (as noted in Proposition 3.1), Nyström method also yields a low rank approximation to $\tilde{\Sigma}$, which is what we exploit in developing Nyström approximate KPCA. It follows from Proposition 3.1 that the eigenfunctions of $\tilde{\Sigma}$ lie in the following space,

$$\mathcal{H}_n := \left\{ f \in \mathcal{H} \mid f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( n\alpha_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \right) k(\cdot, X_i) : \alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$ 

Thus, we could instead express the objective in (6) as an optimization over $\mathcal{H}_n$, or equivalently, over $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$. From this, suppose for some $m < n$ indices $\{r_1, \ldots, r_m\}$ are sampled uniformly without replacement from $[n]$, yielding the subsample $\{X_{r_j}\}_{j=1}^m$ and the random subspace

$$\mathcal{H}_m := \left\{ f \in \mathcal{H} \mid f = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left( m\alpha_j - \sum_{l=1}^{m} \alpha_l \right) k(\cdot, X_{r_j}) : \alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m) \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

of $\mathcal{H}$. Nyström KPCA (NY-EKPCA) optimizes the EKPCA objective in (6) over $\mathcal{H}_m$, that is, NY-EKPCA is the solution to the following problem:

$$\sup \left\{ \left\langle f, \tilde{\Sigma} f \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} : f \in \mathcal{H}_m, \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}} = 1 \right\}. \quad (9)$$

The following result, whose proof is presented in Section 6.1, shows that the solution to (9) is obtained by solving a finite dimensional linear system, which has better computational complexity than that of EKPCA, provided the subsample size is less than the sample size, $m < n$. To this end, we first introduce some notation before stating the result,

$$K_{mm} = [k(X_{r_j}, X_{r_l})]_{j,l \in [m]} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, \quad K_{nm} = [k(X_i, X_{r_j})]_{i \in [n], j \in [m]} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \quad \text{and} \quad K_{nn} = K_{nm}^\top.$$

**Proposition 3.2.** Define the $m \times m$ matrix $M = K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mn}H_nK_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}$. The solution to (9) is given by

$$\tilde{\varphi}_1 = \tilde{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_1$$

where $u_1 = (u_{1,1}, \ldots, u_{1,m})$ is the unit eigenvector of $\frac{1}{n(n-1)}M$ corresponding to its largest eigenvalue, denoted $\lambda_1$ and $\tilde{S}_m^* : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathcal{H}, \alpha \mapsto \sum_{j=1}^{m} \alpha_j k(\cdot, X_{r_j})$.

The complexity of computing $M$ and its eigendecomposition via the Lanczos method is $O(m^2\ell + nm^2)$; therefore, for $m < n$ the complexity of solving (9) scales as $O(nm^2)$, which is a reduction from the $O(n^3\ell)$ complexity of solving EKPCA if $m < \sqrt{n\ell}$. It is worth noting the connection between our Nyström approximation to KPCA and the traditional Nyström approximation to the Gram matrix of Williams and Seeger (2001), given by

$$\tilde{K} = K_{nn}K_{mm}^{-1}K_{mn}.$$
Observing

\[ Mu = K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mn}H_nK_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u = n(n - 1) \tilde{\lambda} u \]

\[ \Rightarrow \tilde{K}H_nK_{mm}^{-1/2}u = n(n - 1) \tilde{\lambda} K_{mm}^{-1/2}u, \]

it is clear that \( \tilde{K}H_n \) will have the same eigenvalues as \( M \). All eigenvalues of \( \tilde{K}H_n \) and \( M \) will be positive as

\[ u^\top Mu = \left( K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mn}H_nK_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u, u \right)_2 = n(n - 1) \left( \tilde{\Sigma} \hat{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u, \hat{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u \right)_H \geq 0. \]

We will make the following simplifying assumption on \( \tilde{K}H_n \) and its eigenvalues:

**Assumption 4.** The rank of \( \tilde{K}H_n \) is \( m \). The eigenvalues \( (\tilde{\lambda}_i)_{i=1}^{m-1} \) of \( \frac{1}{n(n-1)}K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u, \frac{1}{n(n-1)}K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u \) are simple, positive, and w.l.o.g. satisfy a decreasing rearrangement, i.e., \( \tilde{\lambda}_1 > \tilde{\lambda}_2 > \ldots \).

As shown in the proof of Proposition 3.2 (see Section 6.1), \( (\tilde{\phi}_i)_{i=1}^{\ell} \) form an orthonormal system. Thus, for some \( \ell < m \) the orthogonal projector onto \( \text{span}\{(\tilde{\phi}_i)_{i=1}^{\ell}\} \) is given by

\[ P_{\text{nys}}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \hat{\phi}_i \otimes_H \hat{\phi}_i. \]

One may ask if \( \tilde{\phi}_1 \) is the eigenfunction of some operator. Denoting \( \tilde{P}_m \) as the orthogonal projector onto \( H_m \), it can be shown (see Section 6.2) that

\[ \tilde{P}_m = \hat{S}_m^*H_m(H_mK_{mm}H_m)^+H_m\hat{S}_m, \]

and that \( (\tilde{\phi}_i)_{i} \) are the orthonormal eigenfunctions of \( \tilde{P}_m \tilde{\Sigma}\tilde{P}_m \) with corresponding eigenvalues \( (\tilde{\lambda}_i)_{i} \), that is,

\[ \tilde{P}_m \tilde{\Sigma}\tilde{P}_m \tilde{\phi}_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i \tilde{\phi}_i. \]

Therefore, we may think of \( \tilde{P}_m \tilde{\Sigma}\tilde{P}_m \) as a low-rank approximation to \( \hat{\Sigma} \).

4 Computational vs. Statistical Trade-off: Main Results

As shown previously, Nyström kernel PCA approximates the solution to empirical kernel PCA with less computational expense. In this section, we explore whether this computational saving is obtained at the expense of statistical performance. As in Sriperumbudur and Sterg\( \ddot{a}\) (2020), we measure the statistical performance of KPCA, EKPCA, and NY-EKPCA in terms of reconstruction error, which is detailed below.

4.1 Reconstruction error in \( H \)-norm

In linear PCA, the reconstruction error, given by

\[ E_{X\sim\mathcal{F}} \left\| (X - \mu) - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} (X - \mu, \phi_i)_2 \phi_i \right\|^2_2 = E_{X\sim\mathcal{F}} \left\| (X - \mu) - P^\ell(\Sigma)(X - \mu) \right\|^2_2, \]

is the error involved in reconstructing a centered random variable \( X \) by projecting it onto the \( \ell \)-eigenspace (i.e., span of the top-\( \ell \) eigenvectors) associated with its covariance matrix, \( \Sigma = \)
In (13) and (14) we center with \( \hat{\int} \) and \( E_{NKPCA} \), can be similarly stated in terms of their projection operators, (5), (8), and (10) as follows:

\[
R^\ell(\Sigma) = \mathbb{E}\left\| (k(\cdot, X) - m_p) - P^\ell(\Sigma)(k(\cdot, X) - m_p) \right\|_H^2,
\]

\[
R^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}) = \mathbb{E}\left\| (k(\cdot, X) - m_p) - P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma})(k(\cdot, X) - \hat{m}_p) \right\|_H^2.
\]

(13)

\[
R_{nys}^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}) = \mathbb{E}\left\| (k(\cdot, X) - m_p) - P_{nys}^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma})(k(\cdot, X) - \hat{m}_p) \right\|_H^2.
\]

(14)

In (13) and (14) we center with \( \hat{m}_p := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k(\cdot, X_i) \) to ensure that the low-dimensional representation of the reconstructed random variable is computable in practice, as the mean element \( m_p \) is likely unknown. Throughout the rest of the analysis we will drop the \( X \sim \mathbb{P} \) subscript, and assume expectations are with respect to \( X \sim \mathbb{P} \) unless otherwise noted. The following theorem, proved in Section 6.3, provides a finite-sample bound on the reconstruction error associated with NY-EKPCA, under uniform sampling, as well as a new result for centered EKPCA, from which convergence rates may be obtained.

**Theorem 4.1.** Suppose Assumptions 14 hold. For any \( t > 0 \) define \( N_{\Sigma}(t) = \text{tr}(\Sigma(\Sigma + tI)^{-1}) \) and \( N_{C,\infty}(t) = \sup_{x \in X} \langle k(\cdot,x),(C + tI)^{-1}k(\cdot,x) \rangle_H \) for the uncentered covariance operator \( C = \int_X k(\cdot,x) \otimes_H k(\cdot,x) d\mathbb{P}(x) \). Then the following hold:

\( (i) \)

\[ R^\ell(\Sigma) = \sum_{i>\ell} \lambda_i. \]

\( (ii) \) For any \( 0 \leq \delta \leq \frac{1}{2} \) satisfying \( n \geq 2 \log \frac{2}{\delta} \) and \( \frac{140k}{n} \log \frac{16k}{\delta} \leq t \leq \|\Sigma\|_{L^\infty(H)} \),

\[
\mathbb{P} \left\{ \sum_{i>\ell} \lambda_i \leq R^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}) \leq 3N_{\Sigma}(t)(\lambda_{\ell+1} + t) + \frac{32k \log \frac{2}{\delta}}{n} \right\} \geq 1 - 5\delta.
\]

\( (iii) \) For any \( 0 \leq \delta \leq \frac{1}{2} \),

\[
\mathbb{P} \left\{ \sum_{i>\ell} \lambda_i \leq R_{nys}^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}) \leq 6N_{\Sigma}(t)(\lambda_{\ell+1} + 9t) + \frac{32k \log \frac{2}{\delta}}{n} \right\} \geq 1 - 11\delta,
\]

provided the following conditions are satisfied:

1. \( \left( \frac{140k}{n} \log \frac{16k}{\delta} \vee \frac{9\kappa}{n} \log \frac{n}{\delta} \right) \leq t \leq \|\Sigma\|_{L^\infty(H)} \wedge \|C\|_{L^\infty(H)} \),
2. \( m \geq (6T \vee 5N_{C,\infty}(t)) \log \frac{4k}{t} \vee \frac{140k}{t} \log \frac{8}{t^5} \),
3. \( n \geq 2 \log \frac{2}{\delta} \).

**Remark 1.** Since \( \Sigma \) is trace-class and \( \lambda_\ell \to 0 \) as \( \ell \to \infty \), it follows that \( R^\ell(\Sigma) \to 0 \) as \( \ell \to \infty \). The rate of this convergence may be analyzed after making assumptions on the decay rate of the \( (\lambda_i)_i \), which will be presented in the upcoming corollaries. The behavior of the empirical variations depends significantly on \( t \) and \( N_{\Sigma}(t) \), \( N_{C,\infty}(t) \) is referred to as the effective dimension or degrees of freedom (Caponnetto and Vito 2007), which measures the capacity of the hypothesis space \( H \). Upon making assumptions regarding the decay rate of \( (\lambda_i)_i \), the size of \( N_{\Sigma}(t) \) can be quantified...
and convergence rates for $R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$ and $R^\ell_{\text{nyg}}(\hat{\Sigma})$ can be obtained. The upper bounds for $R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$ and $R^\ell_{\text{nyg}}(\hat{\Sigma})$ are equivalent up to constants; however, the conditions imposed on $m$ and $t$ in (iii) will dictate whether this behavior of $R^\ell_{\text{nyg}}(\hat{\Sigma})$ may be achieved with a reduced computational complexity ($m < n$). We also would like to highlight that the results presented in Theorem 4.1 which are obtained for the U-statistic estimator $\hat{\Sigma}$ of the centered covariance operator, $\Sigma$, matches up to constants, the results in Theorem 2 of Sterge et al. (2020), which were derived for the uncentered covariance operator, $C$. The following corollary derives convergence rates from the bounds in Theorem 4.1 under polynomial decay assumptions on the eigenvalues of $\Sigma$.

**Corollary 4.2 (Polynomial decay of eigenvalues).** Suppose $\lambda_i^{-\alpha} \leq \lambda_i \leq \tilde{A}i^{-\alpha}$ for some $\alpha > 1$ and $0 < \underline{\lambda} < \bar{\lambda} < \infty$. Let $\ell = n^{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$, where $0 < \theta \leq \alpha$. Then the following hold:

(i)

$$n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})} \lesssim R^\ell(\Sigma) \lesssim n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})}.$$  

There exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > N$, the following hold:

(ii)

$$n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})} \lesssim R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \lesssim \begin{cases} n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})}, & \theta < 1 \\ \left(\frac{\log n}{n}\right)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}, & \theta \geq 1 \end{cases}.$$  

(iii)

$$n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})} \lesssim R^\ell_{\text{nyg}}(\hat{\Sigma}) \lesssim \begin{cases} n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})}, & \theta < 1, m \gtrsim n^\theta \log n \\ \left(\frac{\log n}{n}\right)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}, & \theta \geq 1, m \gtrsim \frac{n \log n \log \frac{n}{\sqrt{n}}}{\log n} \end{cases}.$$  

**Remark 2.** (i) Of course, $\alpha > 1$ is required to ensure that $\Sigma$ is trace class. Observing (ii) and (iii), we see that the convergence rates of $R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$ and $R^\ell_{\text{nyg}}(\hat{\Sigma})$ rely heavily on the growth of $\ell$ through $\theta$. Comparing $R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$ to $R^\ell(\Sigma)$, EKPCA will match the convergence rate of KPCA provided $\ell$ does not grow faster than $n^{1/\alpha}$. We note that $0 < \theta < 1$ is the only sensible regime both computationally and statistically, as $\theta \geq 1$ increases the computational complexity while the rate plateaus at $(\log n/n)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}$.

(ii) When $\theta < 1$, the convergence rate of $R^\ell_{\text{nyg}}(\hat{\Sigma})$ is equal to that of $R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$ and $R^\ell(\Sigma)$, provided $m \gtrsim n^\theta \log n$, i.e., if $\ell$ grows to infinity not faster than $n^{1/\alpha}$ and the number of subsamples $m$ grows sufficiently fast, then NY-EKPCA and EKPCA enjoy the same statistical behavior. From a computational perspective, the computational complexity of EKPCA using the Lanczos method is $O(n^{2 + \frac{\theta}{2}})$, while the complexity of NY-EKPCA is $O(nm^2 + m^2\ell) = O(nm^2)$. Thus, NY-EKPCA will offer a computational advantage with no loss in statistical performance, if $\theta < \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\theta}{2\alpha}$, i.e., $\theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1}$. This means NY-EKPCA has better computational complexity and same statistical rates for $\theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1}$ while it loses the computational edge with no loss in the statistical behavior when $\frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} \leq \theta < 1$. Note that the first few principal components are often the greatest interest in practice; thus, the case $\theta < 1$ may be more relevant in application.

### 4.2 Reconstruction error in $L^2(\mathbb{P})$-norm

While defining the reconstruction error of NY-KPCA in $\mathcal{H}$ is the most natural construction, we additionally study the reconstruction error of NY-KPCA in $L^2(\mathbb{P})$ to allow for comparison.
with another popular approximation based on random features. Random feature approximation (Rahimi and Recht, 2008a) computes a random low-dimensional approximation of the kernel, which may be used in place of $k$ in learning methodologies to achieve reduced computational complexity. To elaborate, we define the feature map $\Phi(x) := k(\cdot, x)$ and consider kernels of the form

$$k(x, y) = \int_\Theta \varphi(x, \theta) \varphi(y, \theta) d\Lambda(\theta),$$

where $\varphi(x, \cdot) \in L^2(\Theta, \Lambda)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\Lambda$ is a probability measure (w.l.o.g.) on a measurable space $\Theta$. For a random sample $(\theta_i)_{i=1}^m \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \Lambda$, the random feature approximation to $k$ is constructed as

$$k_m(x, y) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \varphi(x, \theta_i) \varphi(y, \theta_i) = \langle \Phi_m(x), \Phi_m(y) \rangle_2,$$

where $\Phi_m(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} (\varphi(x, \theta_1), \ldots, \varphi(x, \theta_m))^\top$ is the approximate feature map. It can be shown (Sriperumbudur and Sterge, 2020, Section 3.3) that $k_m$ is the reproducing kernel of an $m$-dimensional RKHS, denoted $\mathcal{H}_m$, which is isometrically isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^m$. Random feature KPCA (RF-KPCA) involves solving

$$\arg \sup \left\{ \langle f, \Sigma_m f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_m} : f \in \mathcal{H}_m, \| f \|_{\mathcal{H}_m} = 1 \right\}$$

where

$$\Sigma_m = \int_X k_m(\cdot, x) \otimes_{\mathcal{H}_m} k_m(\cdot, y) dP(x) - \left( \int_X k_m(\cdot, x) dP(x) \right) \otimes_{\mathcal{H}_m} \left( \int_X k_m(\cdot, y) dP(x) \right),$$

is the approximate covariance operator on $\mathcal{H}_m$ induced by $k_m$. Note that RF-KPCA is exactly KPCA but with $\Sigma$ and $\mathcal{H}$ being replaced by their approximate counterparts, i.e., $\Sigma_m$ and $\mathcal{H}_m$, respectively. This means, the solution to RF-KPCA is the eigenfunction that corresponds to the maximum eigenvalue of $\Sigma_m$. The empirical version of RF-KPCA, referred to as RF-EKPCA, involves solving RF-KPCA with $\Sigma$ replaced by its U-statistic estimator

$$\hat{\Sigma}_m = \frac{1}{2m(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j} \langle k_m(\cdot, X_i) - k_m(\cdot, X_j), \otimes_{\mathcal{H}_m} (k_m(\cdot, X_i) - k_m(\cdot, X_j)) \rangle.$$

Note that the computation of top-$\ell$ eigenfunctions, $(\hat{\phi}_{m,i})_{i=1}^\ell \subset \mathcal{H}_m$, of $\hat{\Sigma}_m$ by RF-EKPCA has a computational complexity $\mathcal{O}(m^2 \ell + m^2 n)$, an improvement upon EKPCA provided $m \leq \sqrt{n \ell}$. The orthogonal projection operator $P_{rf}(\hat{\Sigma}_m) = \sum_{i=1}^\ell \hat{\phi}_{m,i} \otimes_{\mathcal{H}_m} \hat{\phi}_{m,i}$ may then be used to compute a low-dimensional representation of $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$. We emphasize that in Nyström approximation, $m$ is the number of subsampled indices, while in random features, $m$ is the number of random features sampled.

Unlike NY-EKPCA, where the eigenfunctions reside in $\mathcal{H}$, the eigenfunctions $(\hat{\phi}_{m,i})_i$ lie in $\mathcal{H}_m$. Therefore, the reconstruction error of RF-EKPCA in $\mathcal{H}$-norm is ill-defined. To remedy this issue, Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020) consider two different versions of reconstruction error, named Reconstruct and Embed (R-E) and Embed and Reconstruct (E-R), in which elements in $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{H}_m$ are mapped to a common space, $L^2(\mathbb{P})$ through the inclusion and approximation operators,

$$\mathfrak{I} : \mathcal{H} \to L^2(\mathbb{P}), \ f \mapsto f - f_\mathbb{P},$$

and

$$\mathfrak{A} : \mathcal{H}_m \to L^2(\mathbb{P}), \ f = \sum_{i=1}^m \beta_i \varphi_i \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^m \beta_i (\varphi_i - \varphi_i |_{\mathbb{P}}) = f - f_\mathbb{P}$$
respectively, where \( \varphi_i : = \int_X \varphi_i(x) d\mathbb{P}(x) \), \( \varphi_i := \varphi(\cdot, \theta_i) \) and \( f_P = \int_X f(x) d\mathbb{P}(x) \). As the names suggest, in R-E, the functions are first reconstructed in \( \mathcal{H} \) based on principal components and then embedded into \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \), while in E-R, the functions are first embedded into \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) and then reconstructed in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) based on the embedded principal components. Based on the observation that \((\phi_i) \) and \( \left( \frac{3\lambda_i}{\sqrt{N}} \right)_i \) form orthonormal systems in \( \mathcal{H} \) and \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) respectively, R-E and E-R correspond to the following reconstruction errors for KPCA in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \):

\[
T^\ell(\Sigma) = \mathbb{E} \left\| \mathcal{J} \bar{k}(\cdot, X) - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \langle k(\cdot, X) - m_P, \phi_i \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \phi_i \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{P})}^2
\]

and

\[
S^\ell(\Sigma) = \mathbb{E} \left\| \mathcal{J} \bar{k}(\cdot, X) - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \left( \frac{\mathcal{J} \phi_i}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \right)_{L^2(\mathbb{P})} \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{P})}^2
\]

Theorems 2 and 5 of Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020) show these definitions of reconstruction error to be equivalent for KPCA, i.e., \( T^\ell(\Sigma) = S^\ell(\Sigma) = \sum_i \nu_i^2 \lambda_i^2 \), while it is not the case for EKPCA and RF-EKPCA. We refer the reader to Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020) for more details about the behavior of these reconstruction errors for EKPCA and RF-EKPCA.

In this paper, we analyze NY-EKPCA in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) norm w.r.t. the reconstruction error of R-E as the E-R reconstruction error is less user-friendly with the principal components being non-computable because of their dependence on \( \mathbb{P} \) through \( \mathcal{J} \). Therefore, the reconstruction error in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) for EKPCA, RF-EKPCA and NY-EKPCA are given by

\[
T^\ell(\mathcal{S}) = \mathbb{E} \left\| \mathcal{J} \bar{k}(\cdot, X) - \mathcal{J} P^\ell(\mathcal{S})(k(\cdot, X) - \bar{m}_P) \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{P})}^2,
\]

\[
T_{rf}^\ell(\mathcal{S}_m) = \mathbb{E} \left\| \mathcal{J} \bar{k}(\cdot, X) - \mathcal{J} P_{rf}^\ell(\mathcal{S}_m)(k_m(\cdot, X) - \bar{m}_{P,m}) \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{P})}^2,
\]

\[
T_{nys}^\ell(\mathcal{S}) = \mathbb{E} \left\| \mathcal{J} \bar{k}(\cdot, X) - \mathcal{J} P_{nys}^\ell(\mathcal{S})(k(\cdot, X) - \bar{m}_P) \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{P})}^2,
\]

respectively, where \( \bar{m}_{P,m} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_m(\cdot, X_i) \). Of course, \( \| \cdot \|_{L^2(\mathbb{P})} \) is weaker than \( \| \cdot \|_{\mathcal{H}} \), so naturally we can expect better error behavior of \( T_{nys}^\ell(\mathcal{S}) \) when compared with \( T_{rf}^\ell(\mathcal{S}) \). However, the interesting comparison is between \( T_{nys}^\ell(\mathcal{S}) \) and \( T_{rf}^\ell(\mathcal{S}_m) \). To facilitate this comparison, we first present the following result, which gives finite sample bounds on \( T^\ell(\Sigma), T^\ell(\mathcal{S}) \) and \( T_{rf}^\ell(\mathcal{S}_m) \).

**Theorem 4.3** (Sriperumbudur and Sterge 2020, Theorem 2). Suppose Assumptions \( I \# \) hold. For any \( t > 0 \) define \( \mathcal{N}_\Sigma(t) = \text{tr}(\Sigma(\Sigma + tI)^{-1}) \). Then the following hold:

(i) \( T^\ell(\Sigma) \geq \sum_{i \geq \ell} \lambda_i^2 \).

(ii) For any \( \delta > 0 \) with \( n \geq 2 \log \frac{2}{\delta} \) and \( \frac{16 \log}{n} \log \frac{16en}{\delta} \leq t \leq \| \Sigma \|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})} \),

\[
\mathbb{P}^{\mu} \left\{ \sum_{i \geq \ell} \lambda_i^2 \leq T^\ell(\mathcal{S}) \leq 9 \mathcal{N}_\Sigma(t)(\lambda_{\ell+1} + t)^2 + \frac{64k^2 \log \frac{2}{\delta}}{n} \right\} \geq 1 - 3\delta.
\]

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(iii) Suppose $m$ random features are sampled i.i.d. from a probability measure $\Lambda$. For any $\delta > 0$ with $n \geq 2 \log \frac{2}{\delta}$, $m \geq \left(2 \vee \frac{1024 \kappa^2}{\delta} \log \frac{2}{\delta} \right)$ and $\frac{140 \kappa}{n} \log \frac{16 \kappa n}{\delta} \vee \frac{8 \kappa}{m} \log \frac{16 \kappa m}{\delta} \leq t \leq \frac{1 \|\Sigma\|_{L^{\infty}(H)} \wedge \|C\|_{L^{\infty}(H)}}{3}$, with probability at least $1 - 12 \delta$ over the joint measure $\mathbb{P}^n \times \Lambda^m$:

$$\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i > \ell} \lambda_i^2 \leq T_{rf}^\ell(\Sigma_m) \leq 162 A_1(t)(\lambda_{\ell+1} + t)^2 + \frac{640 \kappa^2 \log 2}{3n} + \frac{256 \kappa^2 \log 2}{m},$$

where $A_1(t) := N_\Sigma(t) + \frac{16 \kappa \log \frac{2}{tm}}{tm} + \sqrt{8 \kappa N_\Sigma(t) \log \frac{2}{tm}}$.

We must note that unlike (i)-(ii), the probability statement in (iii) is with respect to a joint measure, as it must consider the randomness introduced by the random features. In light of the previously presented result, we now present an analogous result for NY-EKPCA in $L^2(\mathbb{P})$-norm.

**Theorem 4.4.** Under the same assumptions as in Theorem 4.1,

$$\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \sum_{i > \ell} \lambda_i^2 \leq T_{nys}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \leq 36 N_\Sigma(t)(\lambda_{\ell+1} + 9t)^2 + \frac{32 \kappa^2 \log 2}{n} \right\} \geq 1 - 11 \delta,$$

provided the following conditions are satisfied:

1. $\left( \frac{140 \kappa}{n} \log \frac{16 \kappa n}{\delta} \vee \frac{9 \kappa}{n} \log \frac{2}{\delta} \right) \leq t \leq \|\Sigma\|_{L^{\infty}(H)} \wedge \|C\|_{L^{\infty}(H)}$;
2. $m \geq (67 \vee 5 N_{C,\infty}(t)) \log \frac{4 \kappa}{t} \vee \frac{140 \kappa}{t} \log \frac{8 \kappa}{t}$;
3. $n \geq 2 \log \frac{2}{\delta}$.

**Remark 3.** (i) Comparing Theorem 4.1 with Theorem 4.3(ii), we note that the bounds for EKPCA and NY-EKPCA are identical up to constants, similar to the case in Theorem 4.1. Compared to their counterparts in Theorem 4.1, $T^\ell(\Sigma)$ and $T_{nys}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$ have similar dependence on the effective dimension, but a squared dependence on $\lambda_{\ell+1}$ and $t$—in contrast to a linear dependence in Theorem 4.1. This is a byproduct of working with the $L^2(\mathbb{P})$-norm, which is weaker than the RKHS norm, and therefore will result in faster convergence rates, as will be evident in Corollary 4.3. Additionally, $T^\ell(\Sigma)$ will decay as $\ell \to \infty$ more rapidly than $R^\ell(\Sigma)$, as it depends on the sum of squared eigenvalues. The error in estimating the mean element is not improved in the move to $L^2(\mathbb{P})$-norm; it is bounded as $n^{-1}$ in all of the empirical varieties regardless of norm.

(ii) An immediate difference between NY-EKPCA and RF-EKPCA is the dependence on $m$. This difference can be seen in both the upper bounds of $T_{rf}^\ell(\Sigma_m)$ and $T_{nys}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})$, as well as the size requirements on $m$. This is primarily due to the approximation error incurred by RF-EKPCA, which approximates $H$ with an $m$-dimensional RKHS. Of course, this dependence on $m$ is crucial in analyzing the computational vs. statistical trade-off between the two methods.

**Corollary 4.5.** Under the same assumptions as in Corollary 4.2, the following hold:

(i)

$$n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2m})} \lesssim T^\ell(\Sigma) \lesssim n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2m})}.$$  

There exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > N$, the following hold:

(ii)

$$n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2m})} \lesssim T^\ell(\Sigma) \lesssim_{\mathbb{P}^n} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n}, & \theta < \frac{n}{2m - 1}; \\ n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2m})}, & \theta \geq \frac{n}{2m - 1}; \end{cases}$$
\( (iii) \)
\[
n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha})} \lesssim T_{\text{nys}}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \lesssim \begin{cases} 
\frac{1}{n}, & \theta \geq \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1}, m \geq n^\theta \log n \\
n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha})}, & \theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1}, m \geq n^{\frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} - 1} \log n
\end{cases}
\]

\( (iv) \)
\[
n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha})} 1_{\{\gamma \geq \theta(2 - \frac{1}{\alpha})\}} \lesssim T_{rf}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}_m) \lesssim \begin{cases} 
n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha})}, & \gamma \geq \theta(2 - \frac{1}{\alpha}), \theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} \\
n^{-\gamma}, & \gamma < 1 \land \theta(2 - \frac{1}{\alpha})
\end{cases}
\]

where \( m = n^\gamma \) for \( 0 < \gamma \leq 1 \).

Remark 4. Results (i), (ii), and (iv) are quoted from Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020, Corollary 3).

(i) We first highlight the difference between the \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) and \( \mathcal{H} \) norms through the comparison of Corollaries 4.2 and 4.5. \( T^\ell(\Sigma) \) decays at a rate of \( n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha})} \), which is faster than that of its analog in \( \mathcal{H} \)-norm, i.e., \( R^\ell(\Sigma) \). While \( R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \) and \( R^\ell_{\text{nys}}(\Sigma) \) recover the optimal convergence rate (compared to KPCA) in the range \( \theta < 1 \), \( T^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \) and \( T^\ell_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}) \) are only able to recover the optimal rate for \( \theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} \). The \( \frac{1}{n} \) term, which arises due to the empirical recentering, is never dominant in \( R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \) and \( R^\ell_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}) \); however, it can dominate in \( T^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \) and \( T^\ell_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}) \) depending on the range of \( \theta \).

(ii) Observing \( T^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \) and \( T^\ell_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}) \), we see that, as in Corollary 4.2, NY-EKPCA and EKPCA have similar convergence behavior, provided \( m \) is large enough. Therefore, it follows from Remark 2 that in both \( \mathcal{H} \) and \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \), NY-EKPCA will provide less computational cost with no loss in statistical performance compared to EKPCA. However in \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \), unlike in \( \mathcal{H} \), NY-EKPCA is computationally advantageous than EKPCA regardless of the size of \( \theta \).

(iii) When \( \theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} \), both RF-EKPCA and NY-EKPCA achieve the optimal convergence rate of \( n^{-2\theta(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha})} \), but with NY-EKPCA being more computationally efficient than RF-EKPCA. This is because, in this regime, RF-EKPCA scales as \( O(n^{1+2\gamma}) \) and NY-EKPCA as \( O(n^{1+2\theta}) \) with \( \gamma \geq \theta(2 - \frac{1}{\alpha}) > \theta \). In the range \( \theta \geq \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} \), NY-EKPCA achieves the optimal convergence rate of \( \frac{1}{n} \), while RF-EKPCA converges as \( n^{-\gamma} \) with \( \gamma < 1 \). Further, in this range of \( \theta \), NY-EKPCA will offer less computational cost for \( \gamma \geq \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1} \), as RF-EKPCA scales as \( O(n^{1+2\gamma}) \) and NY-EKPCA as \( O(n^{1+2\theta}) \).

5 Discussion

We have studied the trade-off between statistical accuracy and computational complexity in approximate kernel PCA using the Nyström method. While it is clear that Nyström kernel PCA will offer a computational advantage for Nyström subsamples \( m < n \), we showed the error in reconstructing \( k(\cdot, X) \) in \( \mathcal{H} \) using \( \ell \)-eigenfunctions in Nyström kernel PCA to be statistically optimal when compared to standard kernel PCA, provided \( m \) is large enough, but still \( m < n \), and \( \ell \) small enough. Additionally, the size of \( m \) depends on the number of eigenfunctions \( \ell \); larger \( \ell \) requires more subsamples to achieve the best possible statistical behavior. Additionally, unlike several existing theoretical works on kernel PCA, we derived these results by not assuming the mean element of \( k \) to be zero. Further, we adapted our notion of reconstruction error to the \( L^2(\mathbb{P}) \) setting in order
to compare Nyström kernel PCA with random feature-based kernel PCA. In \( L^2(\mathcal{P}) \), we showed Nyström kernel PCA to achieve the best possible statistical behavior, while maintaining its computational edge regardless of the number of eigenfunctions \( \ell \). In comparison to random features, we showed that the reconstruction error of Nyström KPCA converges to zero faster than random features with less computational complexity. As mentioned in Section 4.2 further comparison to random features could be explored by considering an alternative definition of reconstruction error in \( L^2(\mathcal{P}) \).

While this work considers only plain Nyström, that is, choosing subsamples uniformly, it is possible to choose these subsamples with probabilities proportional to their individual leverage scores, defined as the diagonal entries of the matrix \((K + nI_n)^{-1}K\). Consideration of Nyström subsampling according to the leverage scores has yielded success in kernel ridge regression (Alaoui and Mahoney, 2015; Rudi et al., 2015), where it has led to relaxed requirements on the size of \( m \) necessary to achieve best possible statistical behavior. Thus, the computational benefit provided by Nyström is more pronounced when points are sampled according to the leverage score distribution. Though leverage score sampling has been studied successfully in uncentered Nyström KPCA (Sterge et al., 2020), the U-statistic estimator considered in this work introduces significant technical challenges, and so is relegated to future work.

6 Proofs

In this section we present the proofs of the main results of the paper.

6.1 Proof of Proposition 3.2

Note that any \( f \in \mathcal{H}_m \) can be written as \( \hat{S}_m^*H_m\alpha \) for some \( \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^m \). Thus, we may express (9) as

\[
\sup_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^m} \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \langle K_{mm}H_nK_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u, K_{mm}^{-1/2}u \rangle = \sup_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^m} \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \langle K_{mm}H_nK_{nm}H_m\alpha, H_m\alpha \rangle_2,
\]

where we have used Lemma A.7(v). Let \( u = K_{mm}^{1/2}H_m\alpha \), and the above problem may be written as

\[
\sup_{u \in \text{ran}(K_{mm}^{1/2}H_m)} \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \langle K_{mm}H_nK_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u, K_{mm}^{-1/2}u \rangle_2 = \sup_{u \in \text{ran}(K_{mm}^{1/2}H_m), u^\top u = 1} \frac{1}{n(n-1)} u^\top Mu,
\]

where \( M := K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{nm}H_nK_{nm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mm}^{-1/2} \). The solution to the above problem is the unit eigenvector of \( \frac{1}{n(n-1)}M \) corresponding to its largest eigenvalue; denote this eigenvector as \( u_1 \) with eigenvalue \( \tilde{\lambda}_1 \). We then have \( H_m\alpha_1 = K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_1 \) yielding the function in \( \mathcal{H}_m \),

\[ \tilde{\phi}_1 = \hat{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_1, \]

solving (9). Subsequent eigenfunctions \( \tilde{\phi}_i \) may be computed in a similar manner from the eigenvectors of \( \frac{1}{n(n-1)}M \), and the orthonormality of the \( \{ \tilde{\phi}_i \} \) follows from the orthonormality of the \( \{ u_i \} \), i.e.,

\[ \langle \tilde{\phi}_i, \tilde{\phi}_j \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \hat{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_i, \hat{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_j \rangle_2 = \langle K_{mm}^{-1/2}K_{mm}K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_i, u_j \rangle_2 = \delta_{ij}. \]
6.2 Proofs of (11) and (12)

(11) is immediate because \( \tilde{H}_m = \text{ran}(\tilde{S}_m^*H_m) \) and \( H_m\tilde{S}_m\tilde{S}_m^*H_m = H_mK_{mm}H_m \). To verify (12), because \( \tilde{\phi}_i \in \tilde{H}_m \) for all \( i \in [m] \), we have

\[
P_m\tilde{\Sigma}P_m\tilde{\phi}_i = P_m\tilde{\Sigma}\tilde{\phi}_i = \frac{1}{n(n-1)}P_m\tilde{S}_m^*H_nS_m\tilde{S}_m^*K_{mm}^{-1/2}u_i
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{n(n-1)}\tilde{S}_m^*H_m(H_mK_{mm}H_m)^{-1}H_mK_{mm}H_mK_{mm}^{-1/2}u_i
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{n(n-1)}\tilde{S}_m^*H_m(H_mK_{mm}H_m)^{-1}H_mK_{mm}^{1/2}Mu_i
\]

\[
= \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{S}_m^*H_m(H_mK_{mm}H_m)^{-1}H_mK_{mm}H_m\alpha_i
\]

\[
= \tilde{\lambda}_iP_m\tilde{S}_m^*H_m\alpha_i = \tilde{\lambda}_i\tilde{\phi}_i,
\]

completing the proof.

6.3 Proof of Theorem 4.1

For notational convenience, we define \( \tilde{k}(\cdot, X) := k(\cdot, X) - m_p \).

(i) From Lemma A.6 we have

\[
R^\ell(\Sigma) = \left\| (I - P^\ell(\Sigma))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^2(\mathcal{H})} = \text{tr} \left( (I - P^\ell(\Sigma))(I - P^\ell(\Sigma)) \right) = \sum_{i>\ell} \lambda_i.
\]

(ii) Upper Bound: We write

\[
R^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}) = \mathbb{E} \left\| (I - P^\ell(\Sigma))(k(\cdot, X) - m_p) \right\|^2_{\mathcal{H}}
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E} \left\| (I - P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}))(\tilde{k}(\cdot, X)) \right\|^2_{\mathcal{H}} + \mathbb{E} \left\| P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma})(m_p - m_p) \right\|^2_{\mathcal{H}}
\]

\[
-2\mathbb{E} \left( (I - P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}))(\tilde{k}(\cdot, X), P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma})(m_p - m_p)) \right)_{\mathcal{H}}
\]

\[
= \left\| (I - P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^2(\mathcal{H})} + \mathbb{E} \left\| P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma})(m_p - m_p) \right\|^2_{\mathcal{H}},
\]

(15)

where the last equality holds because \( \mathbb{E}[\tilde{k}(\cdot, X)] = 0 \) and we have employed Lemma A.6. For any \( t > 0 \) we have

\[
\mathbb{A} = \left\| (I - P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}))(\tilde{\Sigma} + tI)^{-1/2}(\tilde{\Sigma} + tI)^{-1/2}(\Sigma + tI)^{1/2}(\Sigma + tI)^{-1/2}\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^2(\mathcal{H})}
\]

\[
\leq \left\| (\Sigma + tI)^{-1/2}\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^2(\mathcal{H})} \left\| (\tilde{\Sigma} + tI)^{-1/2}(\Sigma + tI)^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^\infty(\mathcal{H})} \left\| (I - P^\ell(\tilde{\Sigma}))(\tilde{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^\infty(\mathcal{H})}
\]

\[
\overset{(t)}{\leq} \mathcal{N}_\Sigma(t) \left\| (\Sigma + tI)^{-1/2}(\Sigma + tI)^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^\infty(\mathcal{H})} (\tilde{\lambda}_{\ell+1} + t),
\]

(16)

where we have used

\[
\left\| (\Sigma + tI)^{-1/2}\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|^2_{\mathcal{L}^2(\mathcal{H})} = \text{tr} \left( \Sigma^{1/2}(\Sigma + tI)^{-1/2}\Sigma^{1/2} \right) = \mathcal{N}_\Sigma(t),
\]
which holds via invariance of trace under cyclic permutations, in (\textdagger). The result follows from applying Lemma \ref{lemma:trace_invariance} to (16) and Lemma \ref{lemma:trace_invariance} to (17), noticing that

\[
\|P^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \leq \|m_P - \hat{m}_P\|_H^2 \leq \|m_P - \hat{m}_P\|_H^2.
\]

**Lower Bound:** It is clear from (15) that \(R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \geq \Lambda\). We will show that

\[
R^\ell(\Sigma) = \inf_{\{\psi_i\}_i \in Q} \| (I - P_{\psi,\ell}) \Sigma^{1/2} \|_{L^2(\mathcal{H})}^2
\]

where \(P_{\psi,\ell} = \sum_{i=1}^\ell \psi_i \otimes_H \psi_i\) and \(Q = \{ \{\psi_i\}_{i=1}^\ell \subset \mathcal{H} : \langle \psi_i, \psi_j \rangle_H = \delta_{ij}, \forall i, j \in [\ell] \}\), which in turn implies that \(\Lambda \geq R^\ell(\Sigma)\). We have

\[
\| (I - P_{\psi,\ell}) \Sigma^{1/2} \|_{L^2(\mathcal{H})}^2 = \text{Tr} \left[ \Sigma^{1/2} (I - P_{\psi,\ell})^2 \right] = \text{Tr} [ (I - P_{\psi,\ell})\Sigma ] = \sum_{i \geq 1} \lambda_i - \langle P_{\psi,\ell}, \Sigma \rangle_{L^2(\mathcal{H})}. \tag{17}
\]

Clearly the l.h.s. of (17) is minimized if and only if \(\langle P_{\psi,\ell}, \Sigma \rangle_{L^2(\mathcal{H})}\) is maximized over \(Q\), which occurs only when \(\psi_i = \phi_i\), yielding \(\langle P_{\psi,\ell}, \Sigma \rangle_{L^2(\mathcal{H})} = \sum_{i=1}^\ell \lambda_i\).

(iii) **Upper Bound:** We first establish notation for the uncentered covariance operator,

\[
C := \int_X k(\cdot, x) \otimes_H k(\cdot, x) d\mathbb{P}(x),
\]

and its empirical estimate

\[
C_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k(\cdot, X_i) \otimes_H k(\cdot, X_i),
\]

which will be necessary for our upcoming analysis. We decompose the reconstruction error as

\[
R^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}) = \mathbb{E} \left\| (k(\cdot, X) - m_P) - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})(k(\cdot, X) - \hat{m}_P)\right\|_H^2
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E} \left\| (I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))(k(\cdot, X) - \hat{m}_P)\right\|_H^2 + \mathbb{E} \left\| P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})(m_P - \hat{m}_P)\right\|_H^2
\]

\[
- 2\mathbb{E} \left\langle (I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\tilde{k}(\cdot, X), P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})(m_P - \hat{m}_P)\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}. \tag{18}
\]

Now \(\mathbb{E}[\tilde{k}(\cdot, X)] = 0\) implies the third term in (18) is 0. \(\Box\) can be bound by writing

\[
\mathbb{P}_n \left\{ \mathbb{E} \left\| P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})\right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \|m_P - \hat{m}_P\|_H^2 \leq \|m_P - \hat{m}_P\|_H^2 \right\} \geq 1 - \delta.
\]

and applying Lemma \ref{lemma:trace_invariance} yields

\[
\mathbb{P}_n \left\{ \frac{32\kappa \log \frac{2}{\delta}}{n} \right\} \geq 1 - \delta. \tag{19}
\]
Regarding (C), for any $t > 0$, we have

\[
(C) \overset{(*)}{=} \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})) \Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(H)}^2 = \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2}(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{-1/2}\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(H)}^2 \\
\leq \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \left\| \hat{\Sigma} + tI \right\|_{L^2(H)}^{-1/2} \left\| \Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(H)}^2 \\
\leq \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \left\| \hat{\Sigma} + tI \right\|_{L^2(H)}^{-1/2} \left\| (\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(H)}^2 \\
\leq 2N_{\Sigma}(t) \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 ,
\]

(20)

where we have used Lemma A.6 in (⋆) and Lemma A.1 in (†). For convenience, we now let $\hat{\Sigma}_t = \hat{\Sigma} + tI$. Observing the last term, we have

\[
\left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \leq 2 \left\| (I - P_m) \hat{\Sigma}_t^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 + 2 \left\| (P_m - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})) \hat{\Sigma}_t^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \\
\leq 2 \left\| (I - P_m) \hat{\Sigma}_t^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 + 2 \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \left\| \hat{\Sigma}_t^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \\
\leq 2 \left( C_1 \right) + 2 \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))(\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \left\| \hat{\Sigma}_t^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \\
\leq 2 \left( C_1 \right) + 2 \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})) \hat{\Sigma}_t^{1/2} P_m(I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})) \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \\
+ 2t \left\| (I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma}))P_m(I - P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})) \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \\
\leq 2 \left( C_1 \right) + 2 \left( \hat{\lambda}_{\ell+1} + t \right),
\]

(21)

(22)

where we have used $\text{ran}(P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})) \subset \text{ran}(P_m)$ in (21), and (22) holds because $P_{\text{nys}}(\hat{\Sigma})$ projects onto the $\ell$-eigenspace of $P_m \hat{\Sigma} P_m$. Lemmas A.5 and A.1(iii) give

\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ C_1 \leq 3t \right\} \geq 1 - 4\delta.
\]

(23)

Continuing, we have

\[
\tilde{\lambda}_{\ell+1} + t \leq |\tilde{\lambda}_{\ell+1} - \hat{\lambda}_{\ell+1}| + |\hat{\lambda}_{\ell+1} + t | \overset{(†)}{\leq} \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \left\| (K - \hat{\Phi}) H_n \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)}^2 + \tilde{\lambda}_{\ell+1} + t,
\]

(24)

where (†) uses the Hoffman-Wielandt inequality (R. Bhatia, 1994) because $\tilde{\lambda}_{\ell+1}$ (resp. $\hat{\lambda}_{\ell+1}$) is an eigenvalue of $K H_n$ (resp. $K H_n$). Letting $P_m$ be the orthogonal projector onto $\text{span}\{k(\cdot, X_{rj}) | j \in [m] \}$, it is easy to verify that $P_m = \hat{S}_m K_{mn}^{-1} \hat{S}_m$ (Rudi et al., 2015, Lemma 1). Using $S_m \hat{S}_m = K_{nn}$, which follows from Lemma A.7(ii), we have the expression

$\hat{K} = K_{mn} K_{mn}^{-1} K_{nn} = S_m \hat{S}_m K_{mn}^{-1} \hat{S}_m S_m = S_m P_m S_m^*$. **
Thus, we may write,
\[
\left\| \left( \hat{K} - K \right) H_n \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq \left\| \hat{K} - K \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)} \left\| H_n \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)}
\]
\[
= n \left\| S_n(I - P_m)S_n^* \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)}
\]
\[
= n \left\| (I - P_m)S_n^*S_n(I - P_m) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}
\]
\[
= n^2 \left\| (I - P_m)C_n(I - P_m) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})},
\]
(25)
where we have used Lemma A.7(iv) in (25). Proceeding,
\[
\text{(25)} = n^2 \left\| C_n^{1/2}(I - P_m)^2C_n^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}
\]
\[
\leq n^2 \left\| C_n^{1/2}(C + tI)^{-1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2 \left\| (C + tI)^{1/2}(I - P_m) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2
\]
\[
\leq n^2 \left\| C_n^{1/2}(C_n + tI)^{-1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2 \left\| (C_n + tI)^{1/2}(C + tI)^{-1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2
\]
\[
\times \left\| (C + tI)^{1/2}(I - P_m) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2
\]
\[
\leq n^2 \left\| (C_n + tI)^{1/2}(C + tI)^{-1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2 \left\| (C + tI)^{1/2}(I - P_m) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2.
\]
(26)
Applying Lemmas A.2 and A.4 to (26) and Lemma A.1(iv) in (24) gives
\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \hat{\lambda}_{t+1} + t \leq \frac{9n^2t}{2n(n - 1)} + \frac{3}{2} \left( \lambda_{t+1} + t \right) \right\} \geq 1 - 4\delta.
\]
(27)
Combining (27) with (23) in (22) gives
\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \left\| (I - P_{nys}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})) (\hat{\Sigma} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{H})}^2 \leq 27t + 3\lambda_{t+1} \right\} \geq 1 - 8\delta,
\]
(28)
where we note that $\frac{1}{n^2} \leq \frac{2}{n}$ for $n \geq 2$. The result follows by combining (28), (20), and (19) in (18).

**Lower Bound:** Using (18) we have
\[
R_{nys}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) = \left( \mathbb{C} + 1 \right) \geq \left\| (I - P_{nys}^\ell(\hat{\Sigma})) \Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{H})}^2.
\]
Since we have shown in (ii) that
\[
R^\ell(\Sigma) = \inf_{\{\psi_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{Q}}} \left\| (I - P_{\psi,\ell}) \Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{H})}^2,
\]
the lower bound follows immediately.

### 6.4 Proof of Corollary 4.2

**i)** From Theorem 4.1(i) we have
\[
R^\ell(\Sigma) = \sum_{i > \ell} \lambda_i \lesssim \sum_{i > \ell} i^{-\alpha} \lesssim \int_{\ell}^{\infty} x^{-\alpha} dx \lesssim \ell^{1-\alpha} = n^{-\theta(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha})}.
\]
Similarly,

\[ R^\ell(\Sigma) = \sum_{i > \ell} \lambda_i \geq \sum_{i > \ell} i^{-\alpha} \geq \int_{\ell+1}^{\infty} x^{-\alpha} dx \geq (\ell + 1)^{1-\alpha} = n^{-\theta(1-\frac{1}{\alpha})}. \]

(ii) Theorem \[4.1(ii)\] and \cite{sriperumbudur2020,SriperumbudurSterge2020,lemmaA.8} yield \n
\[ R^\ell(\hat{\Sigma}) \preceq_{P_n} t^{-1/\alpha}(n^{-\theta} + t) + \frac{1}{n}, \]

for \( \frac{\log n}{n} \leq t \leq 1 \) where we have used \( \lambda_\ell \leq \ell^{-\alpha} = n^{-\theta} \). Now if \( \theta < 1 \)

\[ \inf \left\{ t^{-1/\alpha}(n^{-\theta} + t) + \frac{1}{n} : \frac{\log n}{n} \leq t \leq 1 \right\} \leq n^{-\theta(1-\frac{1}{\alpha})} + \frac{1}{n}, \]

and for \( \theta \geq 1 \)

\[ \inf \left\{ t^{-1/\alpha}(n^{-\theta} + t) + \frac{1}{n} : \frac{\log n}{n} \leq t \leq 1 \right\} \leq \left( \frac{\log n}{n} \right)^{\frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha}} + \frac{1}{n}, \]

yielding the result.

(iii) Theorem \[4.1(iii)\] and \cite{sriperumbudur2020,lemmaA.8} yield \n
\[ R_{\Sigma,\ell} \preceq_{P_n} t^{-1/\alpha}(n^{-\theta} + t) + \frac{1}{n}, \]

with \( \frac{\log n}{n} \leq t \leq 1 \) and \( m \geq \left( \frac{1}{t} \vee N_{C,\infty}(t) \right) \log \frac{1}{t} \). Since \( N_{C,\infty}(t) \leq \frac{1}{t} \), we have \( m \geq \frac{1}{t} \log \frac{1}{t} \), and the result follows as in (ii).

6.5 Proof of Theorem \[4.4\]

Upper Bound: We have

\[ T^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}) = \mathbb{E} \left| \mathcal{K}(\cdot, X) - \mathcal{K}_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})(k(\cdot, X) - \hat{m}_P) \right|^2_{L^2(P)} \]

\[ = \mathbb{E} \left| \mathcal{K}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))k(\cdot, X) \right|^2_{L^2(P)} + \left| \mathcal{K}_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})(m_P - \hat{m}_P) \right|^2_{L^2(P)} \]

\[ - 2\mathbb{E} \left\langle \mathcal{K}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))k(\cdot, X), \mathcal{K}_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma})(m_P - \hat{m}_P) \right\rangle_{L^2(P)}. \] \hspace{1cm} (29)

The third term of (29) is 0, because \( \mathbb{E}[k(\cdot, X)] = 0 \). Using \( \Sigma = \mathcal{T} \Sigma \) \cite{sriperumbudur2020,propB.2}, we write

\[ \left( \mathbb{E} \right) = \mathbb{E} \left| \mathcal{K}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))k(\cdot, X) \right|^2_{L^2(P)} = \left\langle \Sigma(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))k(\cdot, X), (I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))k(\cdot, X) \right\rangle_{H}, \]

\[ \eqref{t^1} \left( \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right)_{L^2(H)}, \] \hspace{1cm} (30)

where \( \eqref{t^1} \) follows from Lemma \[A.6\]. Now (30) is similar to (\( \circ \)) in the proof of Theorem \[4.1(iii)\], and the proof will proceed similarly. Using a similar argument to that in (20), and the idempotency of \( I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}) \), we have

\[ \left\| \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(H)}^2 \leq N_{\Sigma}(t) \left\| \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^2 \left\| \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^4 \]

\[ \leq N_{\Sigma}(t) \left\| \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^4 \left\| (I - P^\ell_{nys}(\hat{\Sigma}))\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}^4. \] \hspace{1cm} (31)
The last term in (31) is simply the square of the last term of (20); therefore, we simply apply the result from (28), yielding

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \left\| \mathfrak{S}_{\ell}^{1/2} (I - P_{\text{nys}}^{\ell} (\mathfrak{S})) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^4 \leq 9(9t + \lambda_{\ell+1})^2 \right\} \geq 1 - 8\delta. \quad (32)$$

Continuing,

$$\mathbb{P} = \left\| \mathfrak{S}_{\ell}^{1/2} P_{\text{nys}}^{\ell} (m_{\mathfrak{P}} - m_{\mathfrak{P}}) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \leq \left\| \mathfrak{S} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \left\| P_{\text{nys}}^{\ell} (\mathfrak{S}) \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \left\| m_{\mathfrak{P}} - m_{\mathfrak{P}} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \leq \kappa \left\| m_{\mathfrak{P}} - m_{\mathfrak{P}} \right\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{H})}^2 \leq \frac{32\kappa^2 \log \frac{2}{\delta}}{n}, \quad (33)$$

where last inequality holds with probability at least $1 - \delta$ from Lemma A.3. The result follows by applying Lemma A.1(ii) to the middle term in (31) and combining with (32) and (33).

Lower Bound: The proof of Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020, Theorem 2(ii)) gives

$$\sum_{i>\ell} \lambda_i^2 = \inf_{\{\psi_i\} \in \mathbb{Q}} \left\| \mathfrak{S}^{1/2} (I - P_{\psi,\ell}) \mathfrak{S}^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(\mathcal{H})}^2.$$

The result therefore follows by noticing that $T_{\text{nys}}^{\ell} (\mathfrak{S}) \geq \mathbb{E} = \left\| \mathfrak{S}^{1/2} (I - P_{\text{nys}}^{\ell} (\mathfrak{S})) \mathfrak{S}^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(\mathcal{H})}^2$.

### 6.6 Proof of Corollary 4.5

(i), (ii), (iv) are provided in Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020, Corollary 3).

(iii) The lower bound follows immediately from previous results. For the upper bound, Theorem 4.4 and the proof of Corollary 4.2(ii) yield

$$T_{\text{nys}}^{\ell} (\mathfrak{S}) \leq \mathbb{E} \leq t^{-1/\alpha} (t + n^{-\theta})^2 + \frac{1}{n}, \quad (34)$$

for $\frac{\log n}{n} \leq t \leq 1$ and $m \geq \left( \frac{1}{t} \vee N_{\mathcal{C},\infty}(t) \right) \log \frac{1}{t}$. Now $N_{\mathcal{C},\infty}(t) = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left\langle k(\cdot, x), (C + tI)^{-1} k(\cdot, x) \right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \leq \frac{1}{t}$; thus, $m \geq \frac{1}{t} \log \frac{1}{\delta}$. Larger values of $t$ correspond to smaller requirement on $m$; thus, to optimize the performance of NY-EKPCA we select the largest value of $t$ such that the behavior of (34) matches that of $T^{\ell} (\mathfrak{S})$. Setting $t = n^{-\theta}$ when $\theta < \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1}$ and $t = n^{-\frac{\theta}{2\alpha - 1}}$ when $\theta \geq \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha - 1}$ yields the result.

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A Technical Results

The following are a collection of technical results that are needed to prove the main results of this paper.

Lemma A.1 (Sriperumbudur and Sterge, 2020, Lemma A.1). Let $H$ be a separable Hilbert space and $X$ a separable topological space. Define

$$
\mathcal{C} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{X \times X} (\nu(x) - \nu(y)) \otimes_H (\nu(x) - \nu(y)) \, dP(x,y)
$$

where $\nu : X \to H$ is a Bochner measurable function with $\sup_{x \in X} \|\nu(x)\| = \kappa$. For $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^r \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} P$ with $r \geq 2$, define

$$
\hat{\mathcal{C}} = \frac{1}{2r(r-1)} \sum_{i \neq j}^r (\nu(X_i) - \nu(X_j)) \otimes_H (\nu(X_i) - \nu(X_j)).
$$

Then the following hold for any $0 \leq \delta \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{140\kappa}{\delta} \log \frac{16\kappa r}{\delta} \leq t \leq \|\mathcal{C}\|_{L^\infty(H)}$:

(i) $\mathcal{P} \left\{ \left\| (\mathcal{C} + tI)^{-1/2}(\hat{\mathcal{C}} - \mathcal{C})(\mathcal{C} + tI)^{-1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq \frac{1}{2} \right\} \geq 1 - 2\delta$;

(ii) $\mathcal{P} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \leq \left\| (\mathcal{C} + tI)^{1/2}(\hat{\mathcal{C}} + tI)^{-1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq \sqrt{2} \right\} \geq 1 - 2\delta$;

(iii) $\mathcal{P} \left\{ \left\| (\mathcal{C} + tI)^{-1/2}(\hat{\mathcal{C}} + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \right\} \geq 1 - 2\delta$;

(iv) $\mathcal{P} \left\{ \lambda_k(\mathcal{C}) + t \leq \frac{3}{2}(\lambda_k(\hat{\mathcal{C}}) + t) \right\} \geq 1 - 2\delta$ for all $k \geq 1$;

(v) $\mathcal{P} \left\{ \lambda_k(\mathcal{C}) + t \leq 2(\lambda_k(\hat{\mathcal{C}}) + t) \right\} \geq 1 - 2\delta$ for all $k \geq 1$. 

Lemma A.2 (Sriperumbudur and Sterge, 2020, Lemma A.1). Suppose Assumption 7 holds and \( \frac{9}{n} \log \frac{n}{\delta} \leq t \leq \|C\|_{L^\infty(H)} \) for any \( 0 < \delta < 1 \). Then

\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \| (C_n + tI)^{1/2}(C + tI)^{-1/2} \|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \right\} \geq 1 - \delta,
\]

where \( C = \int k(\cdot, x) \otimes_H k(\cdot, x) \, d\mathbb{P}(x) \).

Lemma A.3 (Sriperumbudur and Sterge, 2020, Lemma A.4(i)). Suppose Assumption 7 holds and \( n \geq 2 \log \frac{4}{\delta} \) for any \( 0 < \delta < 1 \). Then

\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \left\| \mathbb{E} \bar{m} - \mathbb{E} \hat{m} \right\|_H^2 \leq \frac{32 \kappa \log \frac{2}{\delta}}{n} \right\} \geq 1 - \delta.
\]

Lemma A.4 (Rudi et al., 2015, Lemma 6). Suppose Assumption 7 holds, and for some \( m < n \), the set of indices \( \{i_1, \ldots, i_m\} \) is drawn uniformly without replacement from \([n]\). For some \( t > 0 \), define \( N_{C, \infty}(t) = \sup_{x \in X} \| k(\cdot, x) (C + tI)^{-1} k(\cdot, x) \|_{H^t} \), where \( C = \int_X k(\cdot, x) \otimes_H k(\cdot, x) \, d\mathbb{P}(x) \) is the uncentered covariance operator. Then, for any \( \delta > 0 \) and \( m \geq (67 \vee 5N_{C, \infty}(t)) \log \frac{4}{t} \), we have

\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \left\| (I - P_m)(C + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq 3t \right\} \geq 1 - \delta,
\]

where \( P_m \) is the orthogonal projector onto \( \text{span}\{k(\cdot, X_i) | j \in [m]\} \).

The following is an adaption of Rudi et al. (2015, Lemma 6) for U-statistics.

Lemma A.5. Suppose Assumption 7 holds, and for some \( m < n \), the set of indices \( \{i_j\}_{j=1}^m \) is drawn uniformly from the set of all partitions of size \( m \) of \( \{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \). Then, for \( 0 \leq \delta \leq \frac{1}{2} \), \( 0 < t \leq \| \Sigma \|_{L^\infty(H)} \) and \( m \geq \frac{140 \kappa}{t} \log \frac{8}{t} \), we have

\[
\mathbb{P}^n \left\{ \left\| (I - \hat{P}_m)(\Sigma + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq 2t \right\} \geq 1 - 2\delta,
\]

where \( \hat{P}_m \) is the orthogonal projector onto \( \hat{H}_m \) as defined in Section 3.2.

Proof. Define \( \hat{\Sigma}_m := \frac{1}{2m(m-1)} \sum_{j,k=1}^m \hat{k}(\cdot, X_{i_j}) \hat{k}(\cdot, X_{i_k}) \otimes_H \hat{k}(\cdot, X_{i_j}) \hat{k}(\cdot, X_{i_k}) \), which means \( \hat{\Sigma}_m = \frac{1}{2m(m-1)} \hat{S}_m^* \hat{H}_m \hat{S}_m = \frac{1}{2m(m-1)} \hat{S}_m^* \hat{H}_m \hat{S}_m = Z^* Z \), where \( Z^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(m-1)}} \hat{S}_m \mathbf{C}_m \). Note that \( Z^* \) has range \( \hat{H}_m \), and so \( \text{ran}(\hat{P}_m) = \text{ran}(Z^*) \). Therefore, by Proposition 3 of Rudi et al. (2015), we have

\[
\left\| (I - \hat{P}_m)(\Sigma + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)} \leq t \left\| (\hat{\Sigma}_m + tI)^{-1/2}(\Sigma + tI)^{1/2} \right\|_{L^\infty(H)}.
\]

The proof is completed by applying Lemma [A.1].

Lemma A.6. For any orthogonal projector \( P : H \rightarrow H \), the following holds:

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}} \| (I - P)(k(\cdot, X) - m_P) \|_H^2 = \left\| (I - P)\Sigma^{1/2} \right\|_{L^2(H)}^2.
\]
Proof. By denoting \( \tilde{k}(\cdot, X) := k(\cdot, X) - m_F \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \| (I - P)\tilde{k}(\cdot, X) \|^2_H = \mathbb{E} \langle (I - P)\tilde{k}(\cdot, X), (I - P)\tilde{k}(\cdot, X) \rangle_H \\
= \mathbb{E} \langle (I - P)\tilde{k}(\cdot, X), \tilde{k}(\cdot, X) \rangle_H \\
= \mathbb{E} \langle I - P, k(\cdot, X) \otimes_H \tilde{k}(\cdot, X) \rangle_{L^2(H)},
\]

where we used \((I - P)^2 = (I - P)\). Since \( k \) is bounded, and thus Bochner integrable, it follows that

\[
\mathbb{E} \langle I - P, k(\cdot, X) \otimes_H \tilde{k}(\cdot, X) \rangle_{L^2(H)} = \langle I - P, \mathbb{E}[k(\cdot, X) \otimes_H \tilde{k}(\cdot, X)] \rangle_{L^2(H)} = \text{tr} \left( (I - P)\Sigma \right) \\
= \text{tr} \left( \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P)^2\Sigma^{1/2} \right).
\]

The proof is completed by using \( \|(I - P)\Sigma^{1/2}\|^2_{L^2(H)} = \text{tr} \left( \Sigma^{1/2}(I - P)^2\Sigma^{1/2} \right) \) in (35). \(\square\)

The following is a collection of results regarding the sampling and approximate sampling operators, \(S_n\) and \(\tilde{S}_m\) respectively, quoted from Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020) and Rudi et al. (2015).

**Lemma A.7.** The sampling operator, \(S_n : \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{R}^n, f \mapsto (f(X_1), f(X_2), \ldots, f(X_n))^\top\), and approximate sampling operator, \(\tilde{S}_m : \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{R}^m, f \mapsto (f(X_{i_1}), f(X_{i_2}), \ldots, f(X_{i_m}))^\top\), have the following properties:

(i) \(S_n^* : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathcal{H}, \alpha \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(\cdot, X_i)\); 
(ii) \(\frac{1}{n(n-1)}S_n^*H_nS_n = \tilde{\Sigma}\); 
(iii) \(S_nS_n^* = K\) and \(\tilde{S}_m\tilde{S}_m^* = K_{mm}\); 
(iv) \(\frac{1}{n}S_n^*S_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k(\cdot, X_i) \otimes_H k(\cdot, X_i) = C_n\); 
(v) \(K_{nm} = S_n\tilde{S}_m^*\).

**Proof.** We refer the reader to Sriperumbudur and Sterge (2020, Proposition B.1) for the proofs of (i), (ii), and (iii). The proofs of (iv) and (v) are provided in Rudi et al. (2015, Section B). \(\square\)