## Statistical Analysis

# in <br> Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space 

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Parametric and nonparametric statistical analysis in Euclidean space $R^{d}$

- Density estimation
- Regression
- Classification

Statistical analysis in reproducing kernel Hilbert space -the line between parametrics and nonparametrics becomes thin in an RKHS.

- mainly preparatory work and classification in this lecture.


## Reproducing kernel

- A real-valued symmetric function $K(x, u): \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow R$ is called a positive definite kernel if, for all $n \in N, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in \mathcal{X}$, and $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n} \in R$, we have $\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} K\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \xi_{i} \xi_{j} \geq 0$. $K$ is also called a reproducing kernel.

In matrix notation, $\xi^{\prime} K\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \xi \geq 0, \forall n, \xi, A^{\prime}=\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$.

- The kernel examples in last lecture are all reproducing kernels.
- Gaussian kernel: $K(x, u)=\exp \left\{-(x-u)^{2} / 2 h^{2}\right\} /(\sqrt{2 \pi} h)$,
$K(x, u)=\exp \left\{-\|x-u\|^{2} / 2 h^{2}\right\} /(\sqrt{2 \pi} h)^{d}$, $K(x, u)=\exp \left\{-(x-u)^{\prime} H^{-1}(x-u) / 2\right\} /\left[(\sqrt{2 \pi})^{d}|H|\right], H$ : window matrix.


## Reproducing kernel Hilbert space -1

- A reproducing kernel Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ on $\mathcal{X}$ is a Hilbert space of real-valued functions from $\mathcal{X}$ to $R$ where all evaluation functionals* are bounded (or equivalently continuous) ${ }^{\dagger}$.

There exists a RK $K$, for every $x, u \in \mathcal{X}, K(x, \cdot), K(\cdot, u) \in \mathcal{H}$ and for every $x, u \in E$ and $f \in \mathcal{H}$, we have the reproducing property

$$
\langle f(\cdot), K(x, \cdot)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=f(x) \quad \text { and } \quad\langle f(\cdot), K(\cdot, u)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=f(u) .
$$

- $K \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{H}$. (existence and uniqueness)
${ }^{*} \ell_{x}: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow R$ such that $\ell_{x}(f)=f(x)$.
${ }^{\dagger}$ An RKHS is a Hilbert space of pointwise defined functions, where the $\mathcal{H}$-norm convergence implies pointwise convergence.


## Reproducing kernel Hilbert space -2

- $K$-generated Hilbert space consists of functions of the form $\sum \alpha_{i} K\left(x, x_{i}\right)$ and completed with limits.

RKHS: $\mathcal{H}=$ closure $\left\{\sum \alpha_{i} K\left(x, x_{i}\right)\right\}$ wrt the norm below.

- Inner product $\left\langle K\left(x, x_{i}\right), K\left(x, x_{j}\right)\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=K\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$. easy to compute
- Norm: $\left\|\sum \alpha_{i} K\left(x, x_{i}\right)\right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} K\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j}=\alpha^{\prime} K \alpha$.
$-K(x, u)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{j} \phi_{j}(x) \phi_{j}(u)$, if $K$ induces a compact integral operator on $L_{2}(\mathcal{X}, d \mu)$, where $\left\{\phi_{j}\right\}$ are orthonormal in $L_{2}(\mathcal{X}, d \mu)$.
- In spectral representation: $\langle f, g\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_{j} g_{j} / \lambda_{j}$, where $f(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_{j} \phi_{j}(x)$ and same for $g$.
$-\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2}=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_{j}^{2} / \lambda_{j}<\infty$ for $f \in \mathcal{H}$.
- small $\lambda$ in the denominator causing smoothing effect.

Let $\mu$ be a probability measure on $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$. ( $\mu$ need not be the uderlying probability distribution of the training inputs.) We assume all the reproducing kernels employed are

- measurable,
- trace type, i.e., $\int_{\mathcal{X}} K(x, x) d \mu<\infty$,
- for $x \neq u, K(x, \cdot) \neq K(u, \cdot)$.

Consider a transformation $\gamma: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \rightarrow \gamma(x):=K(x, \cdot) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The original input space $\mathcal{X}$ is then embedded into a new input space $\mathcal{H}$ via the transformation $\gamma$. Each input point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is mapped to an element $\gamma(x)=K(x, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}$.

## Advantages

- Computational advantages: inner products calculated as kernel values, optimization tool, etc.
- View from $\mathcal{H}$ : linear algorithm, a single global linear model.

View from $\mathcal{X}$ : nonlinear algorithm, mixture of many local models.

- Space $\mathcal{H}$ has richer algebraic and topological structure than $\mathcal{X} \subset R^{d}$ to allow, e.g., linear separation of clusters.
- Nonparametric modelling, while fitting data via a certain parametric notion.
- Linear in $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}: \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} x_{i} \in R^{d}$;

Linear in $\left\{K\left(x_{i}, \cdot\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{n}: \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} K\left(x_{i}, \cdot\right) \in \mathcal{H}$.
Linear in $x: v^{\prime} x$;
Linear in $\{K(x, \cdot)\}_{i=1}^{n}:\langle h(\cdot), K(x, \cdot)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$, kernel mixture.

## Isometrical isomorphism

Let $\mathcal{J}$ be a map from one feature space $\Phi(\mathcal{X})$ to another $\gamma(\mathcal{X}) \subset \mathcal{H}$ defined by $\mathcal{J}(\Phi(x))=\gamma(x) \in \mathcal{H}$. Note that $\mathcal{J}$ is a one-to-one linear transformation satisfying

$$
\|\Phi(x)\|_{\mathcal{Z}}^{2}=K(x, x)=\|\gamma(x)\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2} .
$$

Thus, $\Phi(\mathcal{X})$ and $\gamma(\mathcal{X})$ are isometrically isomorphic, and the two feature representations

- $x \rightarrow \gamma(x):=K(x, \cdot)$ : explicitly defined,
- $x \rightarrow \Phi(x)$ : implicitly defined, are equivalent in the sense of isometrical isomorphism.


## Gaussian measure on a Hilbert space

- Let $\mathcal{H}$ be an arbitrary real separable* Hilbert space. A probability measure $P_{\mathcal{H}}$ defined on $\mathcal{H}$ is said to be Gaussian, if the distribution of $\langle f, h\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is a one-dimensional normal for any $f \in \mathcal{H}$, where $h$ denotes the random element having the probability measure $P_{\mathcal{H}}$.
- It can be shown that for any $m$ and any $\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m} \in \mathcal{H}\right\}$, the joint distribution of $\left\langle f_{1}, h\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \ldots,\left\langle f_{m}, h\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is normal.
- In binary classification, the SVM-type algorithms (linear in $\mathcal{H}$ ) have effective working subspace of dimensionality one. For a $k$-group classification, they have effective working subspace of dimensionality at most $k-1$.
- Low dimensional normal approximation will be enough.

[^0]
## Covariance operator

- For a probability measure $P_{\mathcal{H}}$ on $\mathcal{H}$ satisfying $E\langle h, h\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}<\infty$, there exists $m \in \mathcal{H}$, the mean, and a covariance operator $\wedge$ such that
$-\langle m, f\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=E\langle h, f\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}$ and
$-\langle\Lambda f, g\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}=E\langle h-m, f\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}\langle h-m, g\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \forall f, g \in \mathcal{H}$.
$-\Lambda$ is of trace type and $\operatorname{trace}(\Lambda)=E\langle h, h\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$.
- It plays a similar role as a covariance matrix in Euclidean space.

Linear classifier. Consider a binary classification in a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$. We say that a classifier is linear if and only if its decision boundary is given by

$$
\ell(h)+b=0
$$

where $\ell(\cdot)$ is a bounded linear functional, $b$ is a real scalar and $h$ is an element in $\mathcal{H}$.

- By Riesz Representation Theorem, there exists a unique $g \in \mathcal{H}$ such that the decision boundary is given by

$$
\langle g, h\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}+b=0
$$

- Recall the transformation $\gamma: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, which is equipped with a richer algebraic and topological structure. The idea is to look for a functional normal direction $g$, which is optimal* in a certain sense in separating the two groups.

[^1]Theorem. (Grenander, 1950.) Assume that $P_{1, \mathcal{H}}$ and $P_{2, \mathcal{H}}$ are two equivalent Gaussian measures on $\mathcal{H}$ with means $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ and a common nonsingular covariance operator $\wedge$. Let $L_{2,1}=\log \left(d P_{2, \mathcal{H}} / d P_{1, \mathcal{H}}\right)$ and $h$ be an element in $\mathcal{H}$. Let $m_{a}=\left(m_{1}+m_{2}\right) / 2$ and $m_{d}=m_{2}-m_{1}$. A necessary and sufficient condition for the log-likelihood ratio $L_{2,1}$ being linear is that $m_{d} \in R\left(\Lambda^{1 / 2}\right)$, where $R\left(\Lambda^{1 / 2}\right)$ is the range of $\Lambda^{1 / 2}$. The log-likelihood ratio is then given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{2,1}(h)=\left\langle h-m_{a}, \wedge^{-1} m_{d}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

To separate two Gaussian populations in $\mathcal{H}$, the log-likelihood ratio leads to an ideal optimal linear decision boundary.

Fisher linear discriminant : $\left(x-\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) / 2\right)^{\prime} \Sigma^{-1}\left(\mu_{2}-\mu_{1}\right)$

Remark 1 (Bayesian interpretation) If prior probabilities $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$ are considered, there is an adjustment $\rho=\log \left(q_{2} / q_{1}\right)$ should be added to the log-likelihood ratio. This prior adjusted log-likelihood ratio provides a Bayesian interpretation.

Maximum likelihood estimates. Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a Hilbert space of realvalued functions on $\mathcal{X}$. Assume that $\left\{h_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{n}$ are iid random elements from a Gaussian measure on $\mathcal{H}$ with mean $m$ and nonsingular covariance operator $\wedge$. Then, for any $g, f \in \mathcal{H}$, the maximum likelihood estimate for $\langle g, m\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is given by $\langle g, \widehat{m}\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{m}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} h_{j} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the maximum likelihood estimate for $\langle g, \wedge f\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ is given by $\langle g, \widehat{\wedge} f\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\wedge}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(h_{j}-\widehat{m}\right) \otimes\left(h_{j}-\widehat{m}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\otimes$ denotes the tensor product.

Classical multivariate statistical analysis v.s. kernel methods

| llassical | kernel methods |
| :--- | :--- |
| Gaussianity on raw data | Gaussianity on low-dim'I <br> projections of kernel data |
| classical procedures on raw data | classical procedures on kernel data |
| FDA, CCA, PCA, d.r., etc. | KFDA, KCCA, KPCA, kernel d.r. |
| parametric in Euclidean space | nonparametric in Euclidean space <br> parametric in $\mathcal{H}$ |
| statistical optimalities on $(\mathcal{X}, P)$ | statistical optimalities on $\left(\mathcal{H}, P_{\mathcal{H}}\right)$ |

Three kernel methods for multivariate statistical analysis

- Fisher discriminant analysis $-\stackrel{\text { kernel }}{\longrightarrow}$ KFDA
- Canonical correlation analysis $--\xrightarrow{\text { kernel }}$ KCCA
- Slice inverse regression $-\xrightarrow{\text { kernel }}$ KSIR
$\begin{aligned} \text { Softwares: } & \text { Matlab (canoncorr for CCA, classify for FDA) } \\ & \text { Splus, R, SAS }\end{aligned}$

Prepare your data in "kernel form"*. Next, standard statistical softwares areready for use.
*may involve discretization, bases selection and dimension reduction in $\mathcal{H}$

## Matlab codes for preparing kernel data

```
function K = KGaussian( }A,B,\nu
% Input
% A: Data A; B: Data B; \nu}=1/2\mp@subsup{\sigma}{}{2
% Output
% K: Gaussian Kernel
% Author: Y.J. Lee
[rowA, colA] = size(A); [rowB, colB] = size(B);
K = zeros(rowA, rowB);
for i = 1:rowA; for j = 1:rowB
    dis=A(i,:)-B(j,:);
    K(i,j) = exp(-\nu* dis *dis');
end; end;
```

Low rank approximation, or dimension reduction

- Optimization: linear or quadratic programs,
- Various eigen problems, matrix (or operator) decompostion, sigular value decomposition (matrix or operator).
- Feed $\tilde{K}$, as if it is the data design, into standard statistical packages.
- Nonparametric modelling in $\mathcal{X}$, but parametric notion (in $\mathcal{H}$ ) for fitting data.

Extra efforts: prepare kernel data $\tilde{K}$.

## When classical procedures work

The FDA, PCA, SIR, dimension reduction, or CCA is good for data

- which are approximately Gaussian (normal), or
- whose distribution is approximately elliptically symmetric.


## Why kernel methods work

Kernel map (referring to its low-dimensional projection) can bring the data closer to

- normality, and
- elliptical symmetry.

Example 1 We show that kernel map can bring the data distribution to better elliptical symmetry. Consider a random sample of size 200 consisting of $\left\{\mathbf{x}_{i}=\left(x_{i 1}, \ldots, x_{i 5}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{200}$, where

$$
x_{i 1}, x_{i 3}, x_{i 4}, x_{i 5} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} \text { uniform }(0,2 \pi)
$$

and

$$
x_{i 2}=\sin \left(x_{i 1}\right)+\epsilon_{i}, \epsilon_{i} \stackrel{i i d}{\sim} N\left(0, \tau^{2}\right) \text { with } \tau=0.4
$$



Scatter plot $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$.

"Kernel data" scatter along 2 random directions.


[^0]:    *i.e., with a countable dense subset. In a separable Hilbert space countable orthonormal systems are used to expand any element as an infinite sum.

[^1]:    *e.g., maximum margin for SVM, maximum likelihood ratio for KFDA, etc.

