

STATISTICAL DEPTH FUNCTIONS

In the multivariate and functional setting

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ABSTRACT

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Centrality vs Density

1.2 Nonparametric procedures

Chapter 2

MULTIVARIATE DATA

2.1 Depth contours

The following definitions are adapted from Liu et al., [1999](#).

Definition 2.1.1. The contour of depth t is the set $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : D(\mathbf{x}, F) = t\}$.

Definition 2.1.2. The region enclosed by the contour of depth t is the set

$$R_F(t) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : D(\mathbf{x}, F) > t\}. \quad (2.1.1)$$

Definition 2.1.3. The p -th central region is the set

$$C_F(p) = \bigcap_t \{R_F(t) : P_F(R_F(t)) \geq p\}. \quad (2.1.2)$$

Definition 2.1.4. The p -th level contour, or center-outward contour surface, is the set $Q_F(p) = \partial C_F(p)$.

2.2 Monge-Kantorovich Depth

2.3 Depth-Depth plots

Definition 2.3.1 (DD plot). Let F, G be two distributions on \mathbb{R}^d , and let D be a depth function. The Depth-Depth plot, also known as the DD plot, of F and G is given by

$$\text{DD}(F, G) = \{(D(\mathbf{z}, F), D(\mathbf{z}, G)) : \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d\}. \quad (2.3.1)$$

Remark. The above definition generalizes naturally to involve more than two distributions on \mathbb{R}^d .

When the depth function D only takes values in $[0, 1]$, the DD plot is a subset of $[0, 1]^2$ and hence easily visualized. Clearly when $F = G$, the corresponding DD plot is confined to the diagonal $\{(t, t) : t \in [0, 1]\}$. However, when $d \geq 2$ and F, G are absolutely continuous, $\text{DD}(F, G)$ has non-zero area (Lebesgue measure) when $F \neq G$. Assuming that D is affine invariant, Liu et al. (1999) propose this area as an affine invariant measure of the discrepancy between F and G .

If the distributions F, G are unknown, we may use data $\mathcal{D}_F = \{\mathbf{x}_i\}$ and $\mathcal{D}_G = \{\mathbf{y}_j\}$ where $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$ and $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_m \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} G$, then construct empirical distributions \hat{F}_n and \hat{G}_m . With this, we may examine the empirical DD plot

$$\text{DD}(\hat{F}_n, \hat{G}_m) = \{(D(\mathbf{z}, \hat{F}_n), D(\mathbf{z}, \hat{G}_m)) : \mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{D}_F \cup \mathcal{D}_G\}. \quad (2.3.2)$$

DD plots can be used as a diagnostic tool to detect differences in location, scale, skewness, and kurtosis between two multivariate distributions (Liu et al., 1999).

1. If the same point \mathbf{z}_0 achieves maximum depths with respect to both distributions F and G , this indicates that \mathbf{z}_0 is their common center.
2. Suppose that F and G have the same center. If the points in $\text{DD}(\hat{F}_n, \hat{G}_m)$ arch above the diagonal, i.e. the bulk of points are deeper in G than in F , this indicates that F has a greater spread than G .

2.4 Testing

2.5 Classification

The k -class classification task involves assigning an observation \mathbf{x} to one of k populations, described by distributions F_i for $i \in \mathbb{N}_k$. The populations may also be associated with prior probabilities π_i .

Definition 2.5.1 (Classifier). A classifier is a map $\hat{i} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_k$.

Example 2.5.2 (Bayes classifier). Suppose that the population densities f_i for each $i \in \mathbb{N}_k$ are known. The Bayes classifier assigns \mathbf{x} to the \hat{i}_B -th population where

$$\hat{i}_B(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}_k} \pi_i f_i(\mathbf{x}). \quad (2.5.1)$$

One way of measuring the performance of a classifier (given the population distributions and their priors) is by measuring its average misclassification rate.

Definition 2.5.3. The average misclassification rate of a classifier \hat{i} is given by

$$\Delta(\hat{i}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \pi_i P(\hat{i}(\mathbf{X}) \neq i \mid \mathbf{X} \sim F_i). \quad (2.5.2)$$

Proposition 2.5.4. *The Bayes classifier has the lowest possible average misclassification rate. This is known as the optimal Bayes risk, denoted Δ_B .*

The simplest depth based classifier is the maximum depth classifier (Ghosh & Chaudhuri, 2005).

Example 2.5.5 (Maximum depth classifier). Suppose that the prior probabilities π_i are equal. The maximum depth classifier \hat{l}_D for a choice of depth function D is described by

$$\hat{l}_D(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}_k} D(\mathbf{x}, F_i). \quad (2.5.3)$$

In practice, instead of having direct access to the population distributions F_i , we have typically deal with labeled training data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_{ij}, i)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{N}_k, \quad (2.5.4)$$

where $\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{in_i} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F_i$ for each $i \in \mathbb{N}_k$. The empirical maximum depth classifier simply replaces the population distributions F_i with their empirical counterparts \hat{F}_i determined by $\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{in_i}$. Thus, it is given by

$$\hat{l}_{D, \mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}_k} D(\mathbf{x}, \hat{F}_i). \quad (2.5.5)$$

Under certain restrictions, this classifier becomes asymptotically optimal in the following sense.

Theorem 2.5.6 (Ghosh and Chaudhuri, 2005). *Suppose that the population density functions f_i are elliptically symmetric, with $f_i(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)$ for parameters $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i$ and a density function g such that $g(k\mathbf{x}) \leq g(\mathbf{x})$ for every \mathbf{x} and $k > 1$. Further suppose that the priors on the populations are equal, and the depth function D is one of HD, SD, MJD, PD. Then, $\Delta(\hat{l}_{D, \mathcal{D}}) \rightarrow \Delta_B$ as $\min\{n_1, \dots, n_k\} \rightarrow \infty$.*

Note that this result deals with elliptic population densities differing only in location. Relax this assumption, and instead suppose that f_i are elliptic of the form

$$f_i(\mathbf{x}) = c_i |\Sigma|^{-1/2} h_i((\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)) \quad (2.5.6)$$

for strictly decreasing h_i , and that the depths can be expressed as $D(\cdot, F_i) = l_i(f_i(\cdot))$ for strictly increasing functions l_i . It follows that the Bayes decision rule can be reformulated as

$$\pi_i f_i(\mathbf{x}) > \pi_j f_j(\mathbf{x}) \iff D(\mathbf{x}, F_i) > r_{ij}(D(\mathbf{x}, F_j)) \quad (2.5.7)$$

for some real increasing function r_{ij} . Using this observation, the DD classifier (Li et al., 2012) picks separating functions r_{ij} which best classify the training data \mathcal{D} .

Definition 2.5.7. The empirical misclassification rate of a classifier \hat{l} , with respect to data \mathcal{D} , is given by

$$\Delta_{\mathcal{D}}(\hat{l}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\pi_i}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{1}(\hat{l}(\mathbf{x}_{ij}) \neq i). \quad (2.5.8)$$

Definition 2.5.8 (DD classifier). Suppose that $k = 2$, that D is a depth function, and that $r: [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is an increasing function. The DD classifier $\hat{l}_{D,r}$ is given by

$$\hat{l}_{D,r}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } D(\mathbf{x}, F_2) \leq r(D(\mathbf{x}, F_1)), \\ 2, & \text{if } D(\mathbf{x}, F_2) > r(D(\mathbf{x}, F_1)). \end{cases} \quad (2.5.9)$$

The empirical DD classifier $\hat{l}_{D,\hat{r},\mathcal{D}}$ replaces F_i by their empirical counterparts \hat{F}_i . Here, the separating curve \hat{r} is chosen from a family Γ so as to minimize the empirical misclassification rate, i.e.

$$\hat{r} = \arg \min_{r' \in \Gamma} \Delta_{\mathcal{D}}(\hat{l}_{D,r',\mathcal{D}}). \quad (2.5.10)$$

Remark. The maximum depth classifier \hat{l}_D is simply the DD classifier $\hat{l}_{D,\text{id}}$, where $\text{id}(x) = x$.

Li et al. (2012) show that under certain restrictions, the empirical DD classifier is asymptotically equivalent to the Bayes rule. We give one such instance below.

Lemma 2.5.9. *Suppose that the following conditions hold.*

1. Γ is the class of polynomial functions on $[0, 1]$.
2. The depth functions $D(\cdot, F_i)$ are continuous.
3. As $\min\{n_1, n_2\} \rightarrow \infty$, we have for each $i \in \mathbb{N}_2$,

$$\sup_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d} |D(\mathbf{z}, \hat{F}_i) - D(\mathbf{z}, F_i)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0. \quad (2.5.11)$$

4. For each $i \in \mathbb{N}_2$, the distributions F_i are elliptical and satisfy for all $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$P(D(\mathbf{Z}, F_i) = \delta \mid \mathbf{Z} \sim F_i) = 0. \quad (2.5.12)$$

Then, $\Delta(\hat{l}_{D,\hat{r},\mathcal{D}}) \rightarrow \Delta_B$ as $\min\{n_1, n_2\} \rightarrow \infty$.

In all the depth based classifiers we have seen so far, the classification rule depends on the observation \mathbf{x} only through the depths $D(\mathbf{x}, F_i)$. Thus, we are motivated to define the following transformation from \mathbb{R}^d to a depth feature space.

Definition 2.5.10. The depth feature vector \mathbf{x}^D of an observation \mathbf{x} , with respect to the population distributions F_i and a choice of depth function D , is defined as

$$\mathbf{x}^D = (D(\mathbf{x}, F_1), \dots, D(\mathbf{x}, F_k)). \quad (2.5.13)$$

Remark. The graph

$$\text{DD}(F_1, \dots, F_k) = \{\mathbf{x}^D : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d\} \quad (2.5.14)$$

is the analogue of the **DD plot**, with k distributions.

Assuming that the depth function D only takes values in $[0, 1]$, the map $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x}^D$ takes values in $[0, 1]^k$, regardless of the dimensionality of the original vector \mathbf{x} . With this, the maximum depth classification rule can be expressed as

$$\hat{\iota}_D(\mathbf{x}) = i \iff \mathbf{x}^D \in R_i^D = \{\mathbf{y} \in [0, 1]^k : y_i = \max_j y_j\}. \quad (2.5.15)$$

Indeed, any partition of the unit cube $[0, 1]^k$ into k decision regions R_i^D gives rise to a depth based classifier. The DD classifier achieves this by using an increasing separating function r to partition $[0, 1]^2$. Furthermore, $r \in \Gamma$ is chosen so as to best separate the training data \mathcal{D} transformed into the depth feature space. However, we can in principle use the transformed training data

$$\mathcal{D}^D = \{(\mathbf{x}_{ij}^D, i)\} \subset [0, 1]^k \times \mathbb{N}_k \quad (2.5.16)$$

along with any multivariate classification algorithm (LDA, QDA, k NN, GLM, etc) to devise suitable decision regions. This is the basis of the DD^G classifier (Cuesta-Albertos et al., 2017).

2.6 Clustering

2.7 Outlier detection

Chapter 3

FUNCTIONAL DATA

3.1 Classification

3.2 Clustering

3.3 Outlier detection

3.4 Partially Observed Functional Data

Chapter 4

LOCAL DEPTH FUNCTIONS

4.1 Regression using Local Depth Regions

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

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