Lecture 0: Overview of Function Spaces and Operator Theory

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PhD course
An Introduction to Functional Data Analysis:
Theory and Practice

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Outline

- Introduction
- 2 Function Spaces
 - Metric spaces, vector and normed spaces
 - Banach and L^p spaces
 - Inner product and Hilbert spaces
- 3 Linear Operators and Functionals
 - Linear and Integral operators
 - Spectral Decomposition and Karhunen-Loeve expansion

Main Reference: Chapters 2 and 3 in H&E¹

¹Hsing & Eubank, 2015: Theoretical Foundations of FDA, with an Introduction to Linear Operators. Wiley Series in Probability & Statistics.

Motivation

A first "loose" definition

Functional Data can be viewed as a collection of sample paths from a stochastic process (or processes) on the index set T

Therefore

- data are functions that might have various properties (continuity, square integrability, ...) with probability 1
- an understanding of function spaces is an **essential** first step in dealing with functional data

Purpose of Lecture 0

Overarching Purpose

Present the function space theory that we perceive to be most relevant for Functional Data Analysis (FDA) \rightarrow subjective choice!

Precise plan:

- Function Spaces
 - metric spaces, vector and normed spaces
 - Banach and L^p spaces
 - inner product and Hilbert spaces
- 2 Linear Operators and Functionals
 - Linear and Integral operators
 - Spectral Decomposition and Karhunen-Loeve expansion

Metric Spaces

Metric spaces represent a natural topological abstraction of \mathbb{R}^p that is suitable to the purposes of FDA

Definition 1: Metric Space

A *metric* on a set $\mathbb M$ is a function $d:\mathbb M imes \mathbb M o \mathbb R$ that satisfies

- 2 $d(x_1, x_2) = 0$ if $x_1 = x_2$ (distance to itself)
- **3** $d(x_1, x_2) = d(x_2, x_1)$ (simmetry)

for $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathbb{M}$. The pair (\mathbb{M}, d) is then defined *metric space*

Example of a Metric Space

Example 2.1.3 in H&E

A somewhat "exotic" example of a metric space is C[0,1], the set of continuous functions^a on [0,1]. The sup metric is well-defined as

$$d(f,g) = \sup\{|f(t) - g(t)| : t \in [0,1]\}$$

for $f,g \in C[0,1]$. Conditions 1-4 in Definition 1 can be easily verified for this case (try!)

^aContinuous functions defined on a closed interval are uniformly continuous.

Vector Spaces

The concept of **vector spaces** provides the addition of an algebraic structure to metric spaces, which will be useful in the following lectures

Definition 2: Vector Space

A vector space $\mathbb V$ is a set of elements (referred to as vectors) for which two operations have been defined: addition and scalar multiplication

- given two vectors $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{V}$, addition returns another vector in \mathbb{V} denoted $v_1 + v_2$
- given a vector $v \in \mathbb{V}$ and a scalar $a \in \mathbb{R}$, scalar multiplication returns a vector in \mathbb{V} denoted by av

Properties of the Addition and Multiplication

- ② $(v_1 + v_2) + v_3 = v_1 + (v_2 + v_3)$, and $a_1(a_2v) = (a_1a_2)v$
- $a(v_1 + v_2) = av_1 + av_2, \text{ and } (a_1 + a_2)v = a_1v + a_2v$
- v = v
- **⑤** \exists ! element 0 with the property that v + 0 = v for all $v \in \mathbb{V}$
- **⊙** $\forall v \in \mathbb{V}, \exists$ element $(-v) \in \mathbb{V}$ such that v + (-v) = 0

Definition 3: Span

If $A \subset \mathbb{V}$ is a subset of a vector space, span(A) is the **smallest subspace** (i.e., the intersection of all subspaces) in \mathbb{V} including all elements of A. Differently from A, span(A) is a subspace as it has the same algebraic structure as \mathbb{V} , since it includes the elements of A together with all their finite dimensional linear combinations.

Basis for Vector Spaces

Linearly independent collections

Let \mathbb{V} be a vector space, and $B = \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\} \subset \mathbb{V}$ for some finite positive integer k. The collection of elements B is *linearly independent* if $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i v_i = 0 \Rightarrow a_i = 0 \ \forall \ i = 1, \ldots, k$.

Definition 4: Basis

If $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is a linearly independent subset of the vector space \mathbb{V} and $span(B) = \mathbb{V}$, then B is a *basis* for \mathbb{V} .

Note that, if $\{v_1,\ldots,v_k\}\subset\mathbb{V}$ is a basis and $v\in\mathbb{V}$ is any element of the vector space, then there exists coefficients b_1,\ldots,b_k such that

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i v_i$$

Normed Vector Space

Adding a measure of "distance" called a *norm* to a vector space allows to merge the concept of metric and vector spaces.

Definition 5: Norm

Let $\mathbb V$ be a vector space. A norm on $\mathbb V$ is a function $||\cdot||:\mathbb V\to\mathbb R$ such that

- ||av|| = |a|||v||
- $||v_1 + v_2|| \le ||v_1|| + ||v_2||$

 $\forall v, v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{V}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. \mathbb{V} is then a normed vector space.

Remark: if \mathbb{V} is a normed vector space with norm $||\cdot||$, then *it is also a metric space*, with respect to the *norm-induced metric*:

$$d(x, y) := ||x - y||$$
 for $x, y \in \mathbb{V}$.

Banach and L^p Spaces

Many normed vector spaces are complete², a special subset being:

Definition 6: Banach spaces

A *Banach space* is a normed vector space which is complete under the norm-induced metric.

The following group of Banach spaces are quite important for FDA:

Definition 7: L^p spaces

For (E,\mathcal{B},μ) measure space and $p\in[1,\infty)$, let $L^p(E,\mathcal{B},\mu)$ be the collection of measurable functions f on E s.t. $\int_E |f|^p d\mu < \infty$. $L^p(E,\mathcal{B},\mu)$ is then a Banach space wrt the natural norm:

$$||f||_p = \left(\int_E |f|^p d\mu\right)^{1/p}$$

²A metric space (\mathbb{M}, d) is *complete* if every Cauchy sequence is convergent.

L^p Spaces cnt'd

Definition 7: L^p spaces cnt'd

The collection of measurable functions f on E that are finite a.e. wrt μ is denoted by $L^{\infty}(E, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$, which is a Banach space with respect to the natural norm

$$||f||_{\infty} = \operatorname{esssup}_{s \in E} |f(s)| = \inf \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} : \mu(s : |f(s)| > x) = 0 \right\}$$

Warning: imprecise notation! I have assumed that $||\cdot||_p$ defined a norm, but the property $||f||_p = 0 \Leftrightarrow f = 0$ is only true a.e. wrt μ . However, the following convention is generally adopted, that functions differing on a set of μ measure 0 are the same function

$$f \sim g \text{ if } \mu \{x : f(x) \neq g(x)\} = 0,$$

and the L^p spaces introduced before are identified with their quotient spaces of equivalence classes.

The easiest and most common situation

We have been so far very general, but remember that for the purposes of FDA the following choices will typically apply:

- ullet E=[0,1] (or some closed $T\subset\mathbb{R}$)
- ullet ${\cal B}$ is the Borel σ -field of [0,1]
- ullet μ is the Lebesgue measure

For easiness of notation, we will refer to the L^p space corresponding to the above choices simply as $L^p([0,1])$, or $L^p(T)$ for $T \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Inner product

Definition 8: Inner product

A function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on a vector space $\mathbb V$ is called an inner product if it satisfies

- $(v, v) \geq 0$
- $\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \text{ if } v = 0$

 $\forall v, v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{V}$, and $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

The inner product provides the framework needed to extend to abstract settings the *orthogonality* concept of Euclidean spaces:

Orthogonality

 $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{V}$ are *orthogonal* if and only if $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$

Useful properties of the inner product

A vector space \mathbb{V} equipped with an inner product is called an inner-product space.

The inner-product space $\mathbb V$ with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is a normed space wrt the norm $||\cdot||$ defined by $||v|| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$ for $v \in \mathbb V$.

Definition 9: Hilbert Space

A complete inner-product space is called a Hilbert space.

An orthonormal sequence³ $\{e_n\}$ in a Hilbert space \mathbb{H} is called an orthonormal basis if $span\{e_n\} = \mathbb{H}$. $\forall x \in \mathbb{H}$ it then holds:

$$x=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\langle x,e_j
angle e_j$$
 and $||x||^2=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\langle x,e_j
angle^2$ (Fourier expansion)

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³See Definition 2.4.8 and Theorem 2.4.10 at page 33-34 of H&E

The special case of L^2

Among all Banach L^p spaces, the only one that is also Hilbert is L^2 , equipped with the inner product:

$$\langle f_1, f_2 \rangle = \int_E f_1 f_2 d\mu \quad \text{for} \quad f_1, f_2 \in E$$

The following result holds

Theorem

 L^2 is a *separable*^a Hilbert space wrt the Fourier bases (see Theorem 2.4.18 at page 36 of H&E).

^aAn Hilbert space that admits an orthonormal basis.

Remark: the rest of the theory in Chapter 2 of H&E is very interesting, but we have no time to go into it! :)

Linear Operators

Remark: a vector space that does not possess a finite dimensional basis is *infinite dimensional*, and a proper definition of a "basis" entails considerable complications. Therefore, we focus on the easier case of *orthonormal bases for separable Hilbert spaces*.

Definition 10: Linear Operator

Let $\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2$ vector spaces. A mapping $\mathcal{T}: \mathbb{V}_1 \to \mathbb{V}_2$ is said to be a linear operator if $\mathcal{T}(a_1v_1 + a_2v_2) = a_1\mathcal{T}(v_1) + a_2\mathcal{T}(v_2)$ for all $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{V}$

For $\mathbb{X}_1, \mathbb{X}_2$ normed vector spaces with norms $||\cdot||_1$ and $||\cdot||_2$, resp, the linear operator $\mathcal{T}: \mathbb{X}_1 \to \mathbb{X}_2$ is *bounded* if there exists a finite constant C>0 such that $||\mathcal{T}x||_2 \leq C||x||_1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}_1$.

Theorem: linear operator + bounded \Rightarrow uniformly continuous

Integral Operators in the L^2 case

Important class of linear operators in L^2 are integral operators

Integral Operator

 $\Psi: \mathit{L}^{2}[0,1]
ightarrow \mathit{L}^{2}[0,1]$ induced by $\psi(\cdot,\cdot)$ such that

$$\Psi(f)(t)=\int \psi(t,s)f(s)ds$$
 where $\psi:[0,1] imes[0,1] o\mathbb{R}$ continuous

Assume that $\int \int |\psi(s,t)|^2 ds dt < \infty$, then Ψ satisfies

- $\langle \Psi(f), g \rangle = \langle f, \Psi(g) \rangle \ \forall \ f, g \in L^2[0, 1]$ (symmetric)
- $\langle \Psi(f), f \rangle \ge 0 \ \forall \ f \in L^2[0,1]$ (positive definite)
- $\Psi(\cdot) = \sum_{k \geq 1} \lambda_k \langle \cdot, f_k \rangle g_k$, where $\{f_k\}$ and $\{g_k\}$ are two orthonormal bases in $L^2[0,1]$ and $\lambda_n \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ (compact)

Spectral Decomposition

One crucial result for the extension of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to functional data connects to the spectral decomposition of operators:

Mercer's Theorem

Let $\psi(\cdot, \cdot)$ be symmetric and positive definite, and let Ψ be the corresponding integral operator. If (λ_i, e_i) are the eigenvalue and eigenfunction pairs of Ψ , then $\psi(\cdot, \cdot)$ can be written as

$$\psi(s,t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j e_j(s) e_j(t), \quad \forall s, t$$

and the above series converges absolutely and uniformly.

Karhunen-Loeve expansion

Assume Ψ symmetric, positive definite, and compact operator with finite norm. Then Mercer's theorem implies that

$$\Psi(\cdot) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j \langle \cdot, e_j
angle e_j$$

where the λ_j 's are the eigenvalues and e_j 's are the eigenfunctions of Ψ , which means that $\Psi(e_i) = \lambda_i e_i$ and $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots 0$

Remark: first intuition about fPCA! This result allows writing elements of the functional space as basis expansions wrt to the eigenfunctions of a very special integral operator, which we will discover (later) being the covariance operator.

Summary

- Functional data are elements of infinite dimensional spaces!
- Soft introduction to the theory behind such spaces:
 - Metric, vector, and normed spaces
 - Basis expansions
 - Banach and L^p spaces
 - Hilbert spaces, and the case of L^2
 - Linear and Integral Operators
 - Spectral Decompositions
- From Lecture 1, the course will combine theory with practical applications! (this was very abstract, the rest will not be)
 But the theory introduced here serves as ground to understand some results which will be used.