

## Gene expression experiments

**MA 751**

**Part 3**

### Infinite Dimensional Vector Spaces

- 1. Motivation: Statistical machine learning and reproducing kernel Hilbert Spaces**

## Gene expression experiments

**Question:** Gene expression - when is the DNA in a gene  $g$  transcribed and thus expressed (as RNA) in a cell?

**One solution:** Measure RNA levels (result of transcription)

**Method:** Microarray or RNA Seq array

**Result:** for each subject tissue sample  $s$ , obtain a feature vector:

$$\Phi(s) = \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_{20,000})$$

consisting of expression levels of 20,000 genes.

Can we classify tissues this way?

**Goals:**

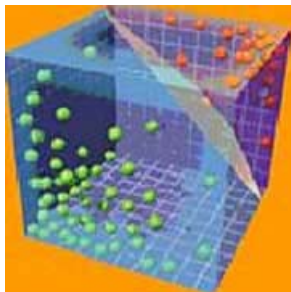
1. Differentiate two different but similar cancers.
2. Understand genetic pathways of cancer

**Basic difficulties:** few samples (e.g., 30-200); high dimension (e.g., 5,000 - 100,000).

Curse of dimensionality - too few samples and too many parameters (dimensions) to fit them.

**Tool:** Support vector machine (SVM)

**Procedure:** look at feature space  $F$  in which  $\Phi(s)$  lives, and differentiate examples of one and the other cancer with a hyperplane:



Methods needed for full analysis (of SVM and other high dimensional methods):

## Reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces (RKHS)

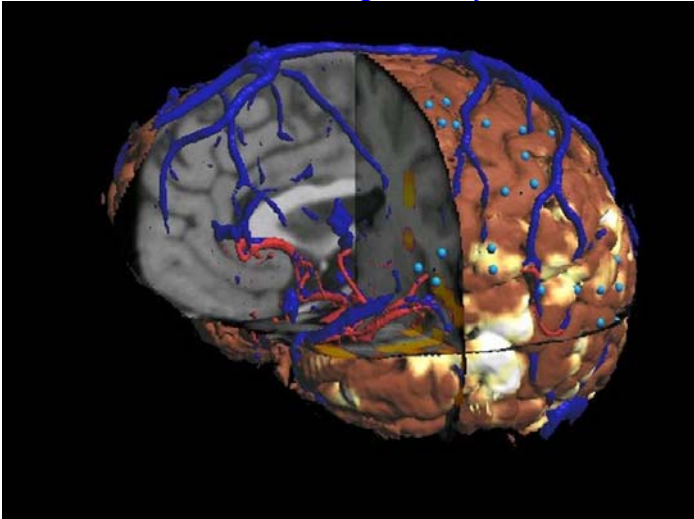
## Learning theory

### 2. Machine Learning: The role of *learning theory*

The role of learning theory has grown a great deal in:

- Mathematics
- Statistics
- Computational Biology
- Neurosciences, e.g., theory of plasticity, workings of visual cortex

## Learning theory



Source: University of Washington

## Kernel methods

Kernel methods are used widely in:

- Computer science, e.g., vision theory, graphics, speech synthesis



## Kernel methods



Source: T. Poggio/M

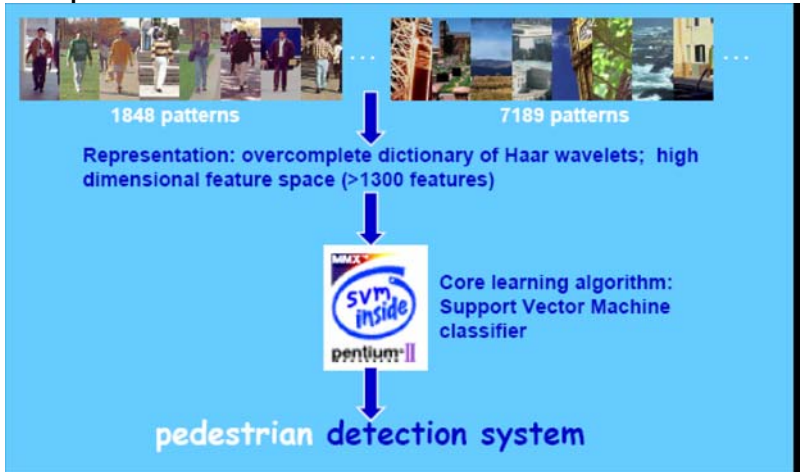
## Kernel methods

Face identification:



## Kernel methods

People classification or detection:



Poggio/MIT

## Learning theory

**We want the theory behind such learning algorithms-**

### **3. The learning theory problem**

Given an unknown function  $f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , learn  $f(\mathbf{x})$  from a few examples, i.e., a few inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  where  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is known.

Determine unknown  $f(\mathbf{x})$  from knowing its value at several points  $\mathbf{x}$ .

## Learning theory

**Example 1:**  $\mathbf{x}$  is retinal activation pattern (i.e.,  $x_i$  = activation level of retinal neuron  $i$ ), and  $y = f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$  if the retinal pattern is a chair;  $y = f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  otherwise.

[Thus: want concept of a chair]

**Given:** examples of chairs (and non-chairs):  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ , together with proper outputs  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ . The information is in a training set  $\mathcal{T} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$

This is the information:

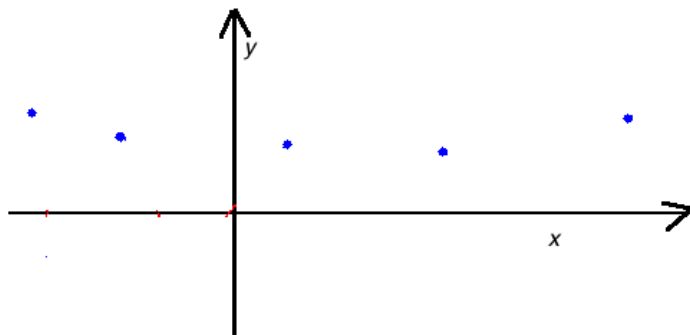
$$Nf = (f(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{x}_n))$$

## Learning theory

**Goal:** Give best possible estimate of the unknown function  $f$ , i.e., try to learn the concept  $f$  from the examples in  $\mathcal{T}$ .  $Nf$ .

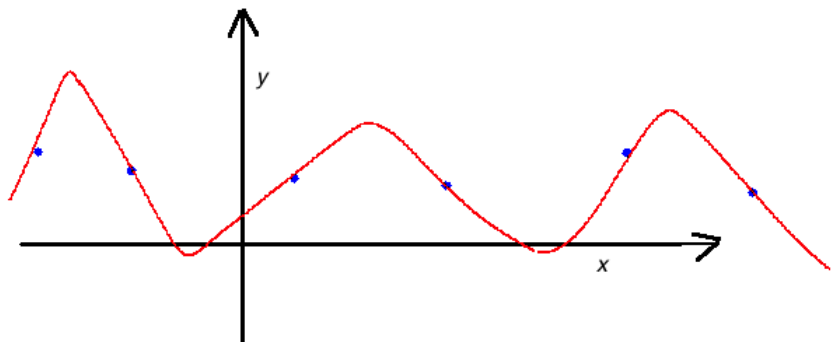
But: given pointwise information about  $f$  not sufficient: which is the "right"  $f(x)$  given the training data points  $\mathcal{T}$   $Nf$  below?

## Learning theory



## Learning theory

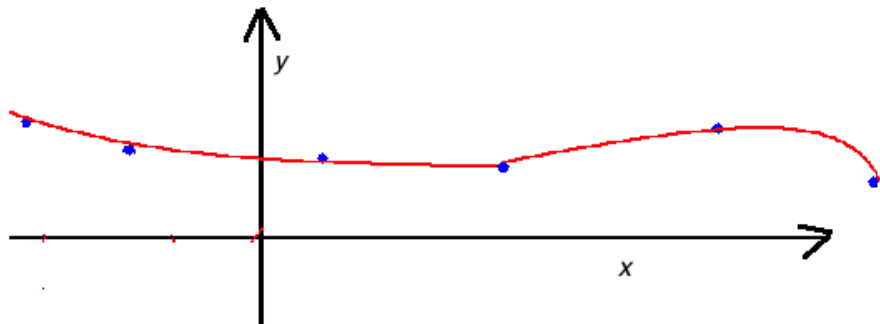
(a)





## Learning theory

(b)



[How to decide?]

## Infinite dimensional spaces

### 4. Infinite dimensional vector spaces:

[This material is short course in real/functional analysis; see me if you want more sources]

[Notation: in infinite dimensions generally don't use boldface on vectors]

Let  $H$  be a vector space with inner product. Recall by definition

$$\langle v, v \rangle = \|v\|^2.$$

## Infinite dimensional spaces

Recall  $\|v\| = \text{norm } v = \text{length } v$ .

Distance between vectors  $v_1, v_2$ :  $\|v_1 - v_2\|$ .

Consider infinite collection

$$S = \{v_1, v_2, v_3 \dots\} \subset H.$$

## Infinite dimensional spaces

Define infinite linear combinations by:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i v_i = w$$

if

$$\left\| w - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i v_i \right\| \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0.$$

[Definitions of span, linear independence, basis same except we now allow infinite sums]

## Infinite dimensional spaces

**Def. 4.** All previous linear algebra definitions (e.g. spanning, linear independence, basis) extend directly to the case of infinite numbers of vectors.

**Example:** A collection  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots\}$  of vectors *spans* a vector space  $V$  if every vector  $v \in V$  can be written as a (possibly infinite) linear combination  $v = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_iv_i$ .

[Henceforth always allow infinite linear combinations.]

## Hilbert spaces

**Def 5:** An inner product space  $H$  is *complete* if any sequence  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \subset H$  which is *Cauchy*, i.e.,  $\|x_i - x_j\| \xrightarrow{i,j \rightarrow \infty} 0$  (that is, it *should* converge) actually converges to some  $x \in H$ , i.e.

$$x_i \rightarrow x.$$

[Thus if the sequence bunches up, there is something for it to converge to.]

Such an inner product space  $H$  that is complete is called a *Hilbert space*.

## Example of incomplete space

**Ex:** Not all inner product spaces are Hilbert spaces since not all are complete. As an example, consider the space  $P = \{\text{all polynomials on } [0, 1]\}$ . Define inner product  $(f, g) = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x)dx$ .

Then resulting norm is  $\|f(x)\|^2 = \langle f, f \rangle = \int_0^1 f^2(x)dx$ .

This space is not complete: consider the vectors  $v_N$  defined by the partial sums of the Taylor series for  $e^x$  :

## Example of incomplete space

$$v_N = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{x^n}{n!} = \text{a polynomial.}$$



## Example of incomplete space

Note that if  $N > M$  then

$$\|v_N - v_M\| = \left\| \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{x^n}{n!} - \sum_{n=0}^M \frac{x^n}{n!} \right\| = \left\| \sum_{n=M+1}^N \frac{x^n}{n!} \right\| \leq \sum_{n=M+1}^N \left\| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right\|$$

But:

$$\left\| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right\| = \frac{1}{n!} \|x^n\| = \frac{1}{n!} \left( \int_0^1 x^{2n} dx \right)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{n!} \left( \frac{1}{2n+1} \right)^{1/2}.$$

## Example of incomplete space

So easy to show  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left\| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right\| < \infty$ . Thus it easily follows that

$$\|v_N - v_M\|_{N, \overrightarrow{M} \rightarrow \infty} \rightarrow 0,$$

so that the sequence  $v_N$  is a **Cauchy sequence** in  $H$ .

## Example of incomplete space

But note that by Taylor series

$$v_N(x) - e^x = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{x^n}{n!} - e^x \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

uniformly on  $[0,1]$ . Thus easy to show that

$$\|v_N(x) - e^x\|_{N \rightarrow \infty} \rightarrow 0.$$

## Example of incomplete space

So:

$$v_N(x) \rightarrow e^x.$$

But: can show that a sequence of functions can't converge to 2 different functions. Thus there is no polynomial  $p(x)$  (i.e. something in our space  $P$ ) such that

$$v_N(x) \rightarrow p(x).$$

Thus  $v_N$  do not converge to something in  $P$  and thus  $P$  is *not* complete!

[Moral: intuitively, complete space is one where any convergent sequence  $P_n$  converges to an element  $P$  of the original space.]

**Theorem 4:** If  $B = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots\}$  is a collection of vectors that is orthonormal (i.e, unit lengths and inner product 0), then it is automatically linearly independent.

If  $B$  is a basis for  $H$  and is orthonormal, it is called an *orthonormal basis*.

## Examples of Hilbert spaces

**Ex 2:**  $H = \mathbb{R}^3 = \{v = (v_1, v_2, v_3) | v_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is a Hilbert space (i.e., not hard to show that it's complete). Inner product is the usual one for vectors:

$$(v, w) = v_1w_1 + v_2w_2 + v_3w_3.$$

This  $H$  is a Hilbert space.

Orthonormal basis:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad \mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

## Examples of Hilbert spaces

### Ex 3:

$H = \mathbb{P}^2 =$  second order polynomials on  $[0, 1] =$

$$\{a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 : a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

forms a Hilbert space.

Inner product:

$$(p_1(x), p_2(x)) = \int_0^1 p_1(x)p_2(x) dx.$$

## Examples of Hilbert spaces

Note it is not hard to show that  $H$  is complete (in fact any finite dimensional vector space is complete).

Thus  $H$  is a Hilbert space.

**Ex 4:** Note  $H = \mathbb{R}^\infty = \{v = (v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots) \mid v_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is (almost) a Hilbert space, if we define the inner product

$$(v, w) = v_1w_1 + v_2w_2 + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} v_iw_i$$



## Examples of Hilbert spaces

Length of a vector  $v$  is

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} v_i v_i} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} v_i^2}.$$

Thus to have well-defined lengths we add to the definition of  $H$ , the condition that

$$\|v\| < \infty$$

for all  $v \in H$ . Then can show that  $H$  satisfies all the properties of a Hilbert space (in particular it's complete).

## Examples of Hilbert spaces

Can show that the set of vectors

$$v_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$$

$$v_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots)$$

$$v_3 = (0, 0, 1, \dots)$$

⋮

is certainly orthonormal, and it spans  $H$ , so it is an orthonormal basis for  $H$ .