

Approximate regression based on a Reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces approach

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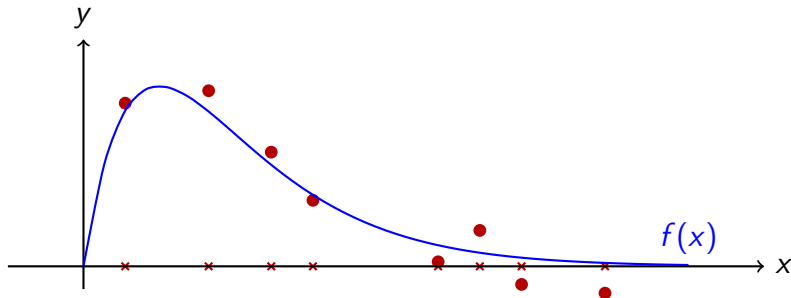


Problem statement

inputs: set of noisy measurements of a certain signal:

$$y^m = f(x^m) + \nu^m \quad m = 1, \dots, M$$

goal: estimate $f(x)$



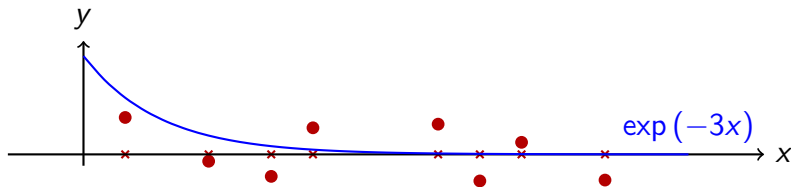
Parametric approach

Parametric approach

assumption: known structure *but* unknown parameters

example: exponential:

$$f(x) = \exp(-\theta x) \quad \theta, x \in \mathbb{R}^+$$



goal: estimate θ starting from the data set $\{(x^m, y^m)\}$

Parametric approach - interpretation

assume we don't know how the function is made: $f(\cdot)$ could be
“almost everything”



$f(\cdot)$ lives in an infinite dimensional space \rightarrow there is **infinite**
uncertainty



Parametric approach - interpretation

assume we don't know how the function is made: $f(\cdot)$ could be
“almost everything”



$f(\cdot)$ lives in an infinite dimensional space \rightarrow there is **infinite uncertainty**

parametric approach: restrict the function to live in a known and finite-dimensional space

\Rightarrow it adds an infinite amount of prior information



Parametric approach - order estimation

Quite important to *estimate the order* (e.g. for ARMA models)

Usual methods:

- Bayesian information criterion
- Akaike information criterion
- Mallor's C_p

general aim: find a trade-off between *estimation error bias* and *estimation error variance*



Nonparametric approach

Nonparametric approach

assumption: signal f lives in a certain functions space:

$$f \in \mathcal{H}_K$$

goal: search the estimate \hat{f} directly inside this space, in general via:

$$\hat{f} = \arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_K} \left(\text{Loss function}(\tilde{f}, \{y^m\}) + \gamma \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right)$$

motivations: functional structure of f could be not easily managed with parametric structures

Nonparametric approach - initial hypotheses

measurement model:

$$y^m = L_m(f) + \nu^m$$

where:

- functional $L_m(f)$ is **linear** and **continuous** in f
- measurement noise ν^m is:
 - zero-mean Gaussian
 - i.i.d.
 - independent on f and on $L_m(\cdot)$
- $f \in \mathcal{H}_K$
- \mathcal{H}_K is an **infinite-dimensional** Hilbert space



From infinite to finite dimensionality

Theorem (Representer theorem - hypothesis)

Given the cost-function minimization problem:

$$\hat{f} = \arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_K} Q \left(L_1(\tilde{f}), \dots, L_M(\tilde{f}), y^1, \dots, y^M, \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right)$$

assume:

- $L_m(\tilde{f})$ are linear and continuous in \tilde{f}
- $Q(\cdot)$ is strictly increasing in $\|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}$
- there exists a solution to

$$\arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_K} Q(\cdot)$$

From infinite to finite dimensionality

Theorem (Representer theorem - conclusion)

... then the solution is on the form

$$\hat{f}(\cdot) = \sum_{m=1}^M c^m g_m(\cdot)$$

with:

- (using Riesz' representation theorem)

$$L_m(f) = \langle g_m, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K}$$

- $\text{span}\langle g_1, \dots, g_M \rangle$ is at most *M-dimensional*
- weights c^m depend on $Q(\cdot)$ (will be derived later)

Usual cost functions

with quadratic losses:

$$Q(\tilde{f}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{(\tilde{f}(x^m) - y^m)^2}{\sigma^2} + \gamma \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2$$

with Vapnik's ϵ -insensitive losses:

$$Q(\tilde{f}) = \sum_{m=1}^M V(\tilde{f}(x^m), y^m) + \gamma \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2$$

where:

$$V(\tilde{f}(x^m), y^m) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |\tilde{f}(x^m) - y^m| \leq \epsilon \\ |\tilde{f}(x^m) - y^m| - \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces

Definition

An Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_K is said to have a **reproducing kernel** if there exists:

$$K(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$$

such that:

$$f(x) = \langle f(\cdot), K(x, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K}$$

(called the *reproducing property*)

Theorem

If the reproducing kernel $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ exists then it is unique

How to compute the optimal estimate

Representer theorem $\Rightarrow \hat{f}(\cdot) = \sum_{m=1}^M c^m g_m(\cdot)$

Reproducing kernel property $\Rightarrow g_m(\cdot) = K(x^m, \cdot)$

Together $\Rightarrow \hat{f}(\cdot) = \sum_{m=1}^M c^m K(x^m, \cdot)$



Numerical solution with quadratic loss functions

lf:

$$\hat{f} = \arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_K} \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \frac{(\tilde{f}(x^m) - y^m)^2}{\sigma^2} + \gamma \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right)$$

then:

$$\begin{bmatrix} c^1 \\ \vdots \\ c^M \end{bmatrix} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} K(x^1, x^1) & \dots & K(x^1, x^M) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ K(x^M, x^1) & \dots & K(x^M, x^M) \end{bmatrix} + \gamma I_M \right)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} y^1 \\ \vdots \\ y^M \end{bmatrix}$$



Numerical solution in Bayesian frameworks

first hypothesis: f is a realization of a zero-mean Gaussian process with covariance K :

$$\text{cov} \left(f(x^m), f(x^n)^T \right) = K(x^m, x^n)$$

second hypothesis: f is independent on the measurement noise

$$\text{Bayes estimator: } \hat{f} = \text{cov}(f, \mathcal{Y}) \text{var}(\mathcal{Y})^{-1} \mathcal{Y} \quad \mathcal{Y} := \begin{bmatrix} y^1 \\ \vdots \\ y^M \end{bmatrix}$$

It is equal to the quadratic cost-function based estimator

Drawbacks

Optimal estimate:
$$\hat{f}(\cdot) = \sum_{m=1}^M c^m K(x^m, \cdot)$$

1° feature: must invert $(K + \gamma I_M)^{-1}$

2° feature: must store $[c^1, \dots, c^M]$

Possible problems: if M is big then it could be:

- computationally hard to find (invert an $M \times M$ matrix)
- hard to store or communicate (representation can be quite big)

Approximated regression



Approximated non parametric regression - introduction

need for reduction in computational complexity, i.e.

- need estimation algorithms with an $O(\cdot)$ smaller than $O(M^3)$
- need representations using less than M scalars



must find:

- an E -dimensional model with $E \ll M$ such that:

$$M := [\phi_1(\cdot), \dots, \phi_E(\cdot)] \mathbb{R}^E \quad M \subseteq \mathcal{H}_K$$

- how to map the data set $\{\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}\}$ into M



Notation

Extension of finite linear algebra operations:

$$f^T g := \int f(x)^T g(x) dx$$

$$Af(x') := \int A(x', x) f(x) dx$$

$$f^T Ag := \iint f(x')^T A(x', x) g(x) dx' dx$$



How to map data sets into the estimation model

assume basis $\Phi := [\phi_1(\cdot), \dots, \phi_E(\cdot)]$ is given

If the inner product P of \mathcal{H}_K is given then:

- the **projection operator** \mathcal{P} is:

$$\mathcal{P} = \Phi (\Phi^T P \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T P$$

- the **remainder operator** \mathcal{R} is given by:

$$\mathcal{R} = I - \mathcal{P}$$

- \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{R} are such that:

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 = \|\mathcal{P}f\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 + \|\mathcal{R}f\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}_K$$

How to map data sets into the estimation model

Given the projection operator \mathcal{P} ,

if optimal estimate in \mathcal{H}_K : $\hat{f}(\cdot) = \sum_{m=1}^M c^m K(x^m, \cdot)$

then optimal estimate in M : $\mathcal{P}\hat{f}(\cdot)$

drawback: still requires the explicit computation of the optimal \hat{f}
conceptual advantage: the optimal basis Φ is the one that maximizes

$\mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \mathcal{P}\hat{f} \right\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right] \rightarrow$ gives the idea of **how to find the optimal basis**

How to find the optimal estimation model

Imposition of additional hypotheses:

- $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a Mercer Kernel:
 - continuous
 - symmetric
 - definite positive*

- the input locations domain \mathcal{D} is compact



How to find the optimal estimation model - first implications

1: $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ defines a compact linear positive definite integral operator:

$$(L_K f)(x') := \int_{\mathcal{D}} K(x', x) f(x) dx = Kf(x')$$

2: there are at most a numerable set of eigenfunctions $\phi(\cdot)$:

$$K\phi_k(\cdot) = \lambda_k\phi_k(\cdot) \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$



How to find the optimal estimation model - second implications

Theorem (Mercer's)

with the previous hypotheses:

- $\{\lambda_k\}$ are real and non-negative: $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$
- $\{\phi_k(\cdot)\}$ is an orthonormal basis for the space

$$\mathcal{H}_K = \left\{ f \in \mathcal{L}^2 \text{ s.t. } f = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \phi_k \mid \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_k \cdot a_k}{\lambda_k} < +\infty \right\}$$

- $f_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \phi_k \quad f_2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k \phi_k \quad \Rightarrow \quad \langle f_1, f_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_k \cdot b_k}{\lambda_k}$

How to find the optimal estimation model

use the PCA idea to find the optimal basis Φ

\Rightarrow optimal Φ is the set the first E eigenfunctions

$$\text{note: } \mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \hat{f} \right\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \mathcal{P}\hat{f} \right\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right] = \sum_{k=1}^E \lambda_k \\ \mathbb{E} \left[\left\| \mathcal{R}\hat{f} \right\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right] = \sum_{k=E+1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \end{cases}$$

how to choose E : approximation error effect $\sum_{k=E+1}^{\infty} \lambda_k$ should be comparable to the measurement noise

Desired qualities of the approximated regression algorithms

We are looking for an estimate living in a E -dimensional space spanned by eigenfunctions $\phi_1(\cdot), \dots, \phi_E(\cdot)$, i.e.: $\hat{f} = \sum_{k=1}^E a_k \phi_k$

Question: how to compute a_1, \dots, a_E ?

Constraints:

- we don't want to compute the optimal estimate $\sum_{m=1}^M c^m K(x^m, \cdot)$
- we don't want to use the projection operator \mathcal{P}

New notation

measurement model:

$$y^m = \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} a_k \phi_k(x^m) + \nu^m \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathcal{Y} = C\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{e} + \mathcal{V}$$

definitions:

$$\mathcal{Y} := \begin{bmatrix} y^1 \\ \vdots \\ y^M \end{bmatrix} \quad C := \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(x^1) & \dots & \phi_E(x^1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \phi_1(x^M) & \dots & \phi_E(x^M) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{a} := \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_E \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{e} := \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{k=E+1}^{+\infty} a_k \phi_k(x^1) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{k=E+1}^{+\infty} a_k \phi_k(x^M) \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathcal{V} := \begin{bmatrix} \nu^1 \\ \vdots \\ \nu^E \end{bmatrix}$$

Approximated learning - kind of approaches

cost-function:

- data fitting \rightarrow loss functions
- not overfit \rightarrow Tikhonov regularizer

$$\hat{f} = \arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_K^E} \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \frac{(\tilde{f}(x^m) - y^m)^2}{\sigma^2} + \gamma \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K^E}^2 \right)$$

Bayesian:

- put a prior on the eigenfunctions weights a_k
- find the best linear unbiased estimator:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \text{cov}(\mathbf{a}, \mathcal{Y}) \text{var}(\mathcal{Y})^{-1} \mathcal{Y}$$

Approximated learning - cost-function approach

$$\hat{f} = \arg \min_{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{H}_K^E} \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \frac{(\tilde{f}(x^m) - y^m)^2}{\sigma^2} + \gamma \|\tilde{f}\|_{\mathcal{H}_K^E}^2 \right)$$

⇓

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = (\sigma^2 \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T C + \gamma I_E)^{-1} \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T \mathbf{y}$$

(with $\Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} := \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}^T] = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_E)$)

computations load: $O(E^3 + E^2M + EM^2)$ operations

representations size: E scalars

Approximated learning - Bayesian approach

prior: $\mathbf{a}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \lambda_k)$

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \text{cov}(\mathbf{a}, \mathcal{Y}) \text{var}(\mathcal{Y})^{-1} \mathcal{Y}$$

\Downarrow

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T (C \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T + \Sigma_{\mathbf{e}} + \sigma^2 I_M)^{-1} \mathcal{Y}$$

(with $\Sigma_{\mathbf{e}} := \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^T]$)

computations load: $O(M^3)$ operations

representations size: E scalars



Approximated learning - comparisons of the numerical solutions

cost-function approach:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = (\sigma^2 \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T C + \gamma I_E)^{-1} \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T \mathcal{Y} \quad \rightarrow \quad O(E^3 + E^2 M + EM^2)$$

Bayesian approach:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T (C \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T + \Sigma_{\mathbf{e}} + \sigma^2 I_M)^{-1} \mathcal{Y} \quad \rightarrow \quad O(M^3)$$



not equivalent!



Eigenfunctions estimation



Estimation of the eigenfunctions - introduction

Questions:

- how to obtain the eigenfunctions $\phi_k(\cdot)$ given the kernel $K(\cdot, \cdot)$?
- how to obtain the eigenfunctions $\phi_k(\cdot)$ if we don't know even the kernel $K(\cdot, \cdot)$?



Estimation of the eigenfunctions - introduction

Questions:

- how to obtain the eigenfunctions $\phi_k(\cdot)$ given the kernel $K(\cdot, \cdot)$?
- how to obtain the eigenfunctions $\phi_k(\cdot)$ if we don't know even the kernel $K(\cdot, \cdot)$?

Remark: we work in a subspace of \mathcal{L}^2 :

- $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ is continuous (already given since it is Mercer)
- $\phi_k(\cdot)$ is a continuous function (already given by Mercer's theorem)



Estimation of the eigenfunctions given the kernel

Suppose $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ is given. Then if $\phi(\cdot)$ is eigenfunction and λ is its eigenvalue:

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}} K(x, x') \phi(x') dx' = \lambda \phi(x)$$

we can approximate:

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}} K(x, x') \phi(x') dx' \approx \sum_{j=1}^Q K(x^i, x^j) \phi(x^j) w_j$$

Linear system from which to estimate $\phi(\cdot)$ and λ :

$$\sum_{j=1}^Q K(x^i, x^j) \phi(x^j) w_j = \lambda \phi(x^i) \quad i = 1, \dots, Q$$

Estimation of the eigenfunctions given the kernel

$$\sum_{j=1}^Q K(x^i, x^j) \phi(x^j) w_j = \lambda \phi(x^i) \quad i = 1, \dots, Q$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Downarrow \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} K(x^1, x^1) w_1 & \cdots & K(x^1, x^Q) w_Q \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ K(x^Q, x^1) w_1 & \cdots & K(x^Q, x^Q) w_Q \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \phi(x^1) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(x^Q) \end{array} \right] = \lambda \left[\begin{array}{c} \phi(x^1) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(x^Q) \end{array} \right] \\ \Downarrow \end{array}$$

solve an eigenvalue-eigenvector problem

Note: choice of $\{x^i\}$ and $\{w_i\}$ can be critical



Estimation of the eigenfunctions without knowing the kernel

If $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ is unknown then:

- 1 estimate the covariance of the stochastic process and obtain \hat{C}
- 2 assume the kernel is the estimated covariance, i.e. $K(\cdot, \cdot) = \hat{C}$
- 3 proceed as before

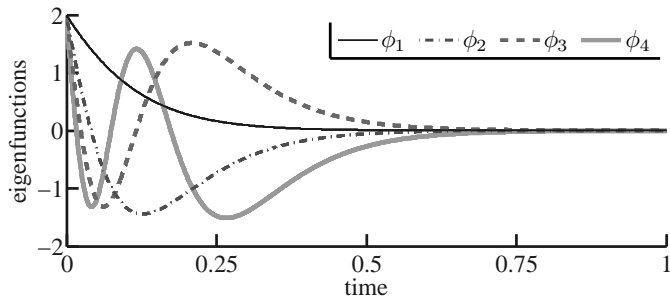
Note: choice of $\{x^i\}$ and $\{w_i\}$ is **less critical than then the estimation of \hat{C}**



Example of eigenfunctions

Kernel for BIBO stable linear time-invariant systems:

$$K(x, x'; \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{\exp(-2\beta x)}{2} \left(\exp(-\beta x') - \frac{\exp(-\beta x)}{3} \right) & \text{if } x \leq x' \\ \frac{\exp(-2\beta x')}{2} \left(\exp(-\beta x) - \frac{\exp(-\beta x')}{3} \right) & \text{if } x \geq x' \end{cases}$$



Drawbacks

$\phi_k(\cdot)$ cannot be computed from $\phi_{k-1}(\cdot), \dots, \phi_1(\cdot)$



can be computationally expensive if eigenfunctions have to be estimated “on-the-fly”



Distributed estimation



Distributed approximated regression - Introduction

Our framework:

- there is a zero-mean Gaussian process \mathcal{F} of which we know the covariance-kernel:

$$\text{cov} \left(\mathcal{F}(x, t), \mathcal{F}(x, t)^T \right)$$

(e.g.: wind blowing on a wind farm: $x = [\text{lat. lon. height}]$)

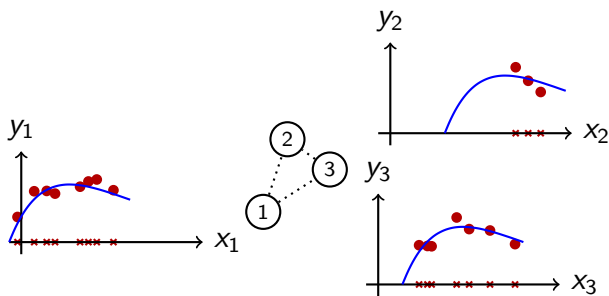
- there are S sensors that sample the same realization f drawn from \mathcal{F} :

$$y_s^m = f(x_s^m, t_s^m) + \nu_s^m$$

Distributed approximated regression - Introduction

“our goal”: distributely estimate the realization f

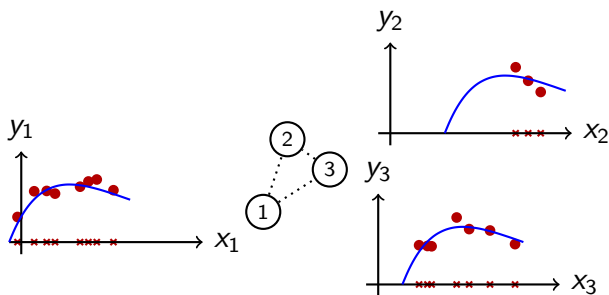
our constraint: sensors can exchange a limited amount of information



Distributed approximated regression - Introduction

“our goal”: distributely estimate the realization f

our constraint: sensors can exchange a limited amount of information

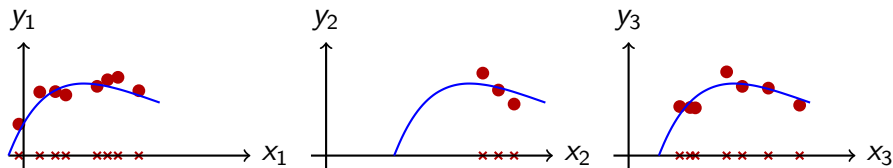


our actual goal: find distributed algorithms and characterize their performances (variance of the estimation error)

Distributed estimation: first algorithm

First step: think to an effective estimator

simplificative hypothesis: sensors measure the same realization



Appreciable characteristics:

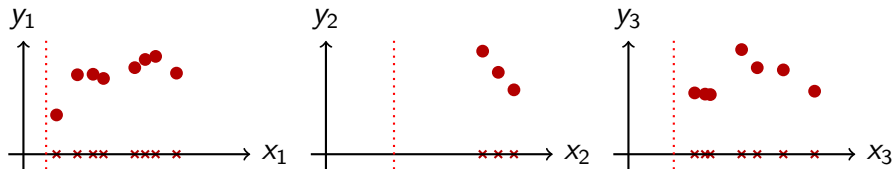
- no common sampling grid
- unknown time delays



Distributed estimation with known delays

If we know the delays between the various functions we can:

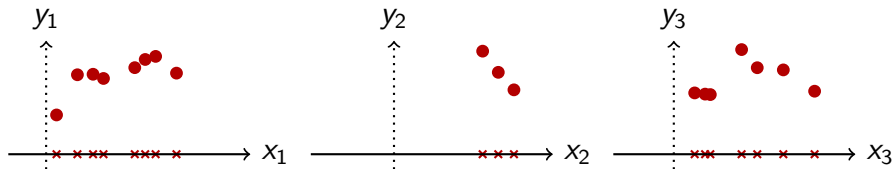
- 1 (locally) shift the various data sets
- 2 (locally) compute the eigenfunctions weights a_k^s
- 3 (distributedly) make average consensus on the weights a_k^s
- 4 (locally) shift back the representation



Distributed estimation with known delays

If we know the delays between the various functions we can:

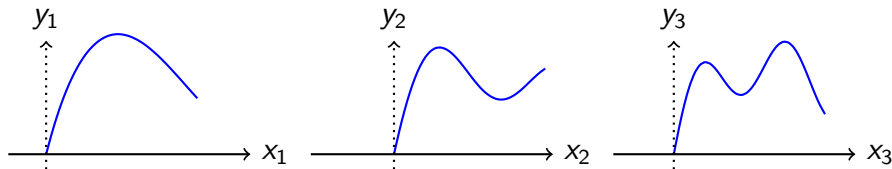
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Distributed estimation with known delays

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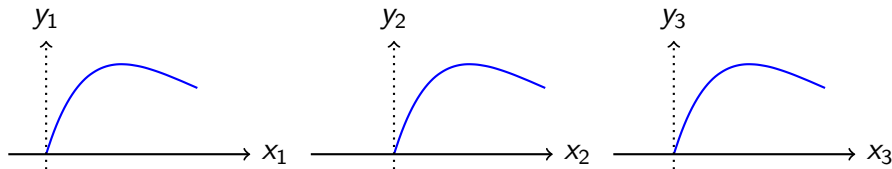
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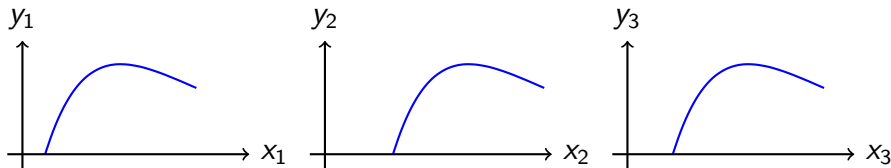
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Distributed estimation with known delays

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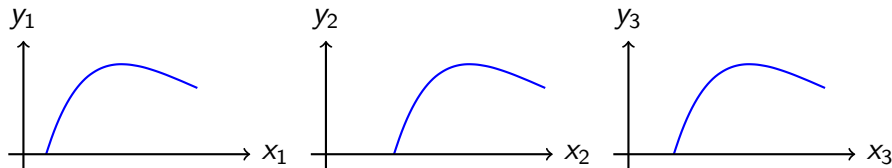
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Distributed estimation with known delays

If we know the delays between the various functions we can:

- 1 (locally) shift the various data sets
- 2 (locally) compute the eigenfunctions weights a_k^s
- 3 (distributedly) make average consensus on the weights a_k^s
- 4 (locally) shift back the representation



results in general not equivalent to centralized estimate!

Distributed estimation with unknown delays

And if we **do not** know the delays?

first formulate a centralized optimization problem with a cost-function based regularization:

$$-\ln p(x_1^1, y_1^1, \dots, x_S^M, y_S^M \mid \tau_1, \dots, \tau_S, a_1, \dots, a_E) + \gamma \sum_{k=1}^E \frac{a_k^2}{\lambda_k}$$

then distributely solve it

Note: both minimizations use 2-steps gradient descents:

- 1 keep delays τ_s fixed and update the weights a_k
- 2 keep the weights a_k fixed and update the delays τ_s

Gradient descents steps: intuition

How do the gradient descent steps work?

Weights a_k update: (τ_s fixed)

Time delays τ_s update: (a_k fixed)

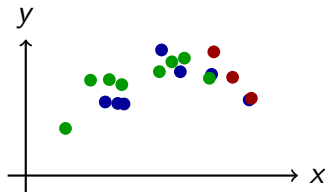


Gradient descents steps: intuition

How do the gradient descent steps work?

Weights a_k update: (τ_s fixed)

- 1 join all the shifted data sets



Time delays τ_s update: (a_k fixed)

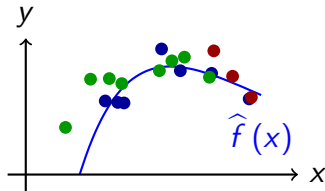


Gradient descents steps: intuition

How do the gradient descent steps work?

Weights a_k update: (τ_s fixed)

- 1 join all the shifted data sets
- 2 compute \hat{f} as before



Time delays τ_s update: (a_k fixed)

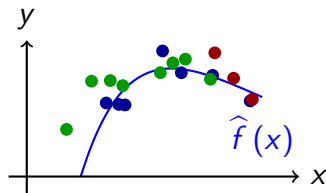


Gradient descents steps: intuition

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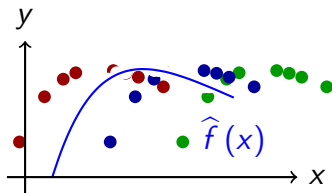
Weights a_k update: (τ_s fixed)

- 1 join all the shifted data sets
- 2 compute \hat{f} as before



Time delays τ_s update: (a_k fixed)

- 1 shift optimally each data set

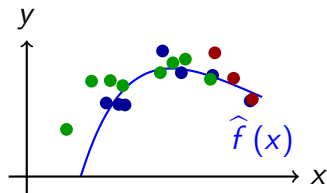


Gradient descents steps: intuition

How do the gradient descent steps work?

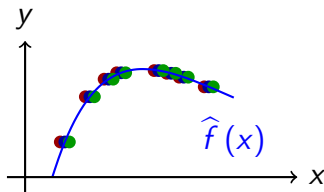
Weights a_k update: (τ_s fixed)

- 1 join all the shifted data sets
- 2 compute \hat{f} as before

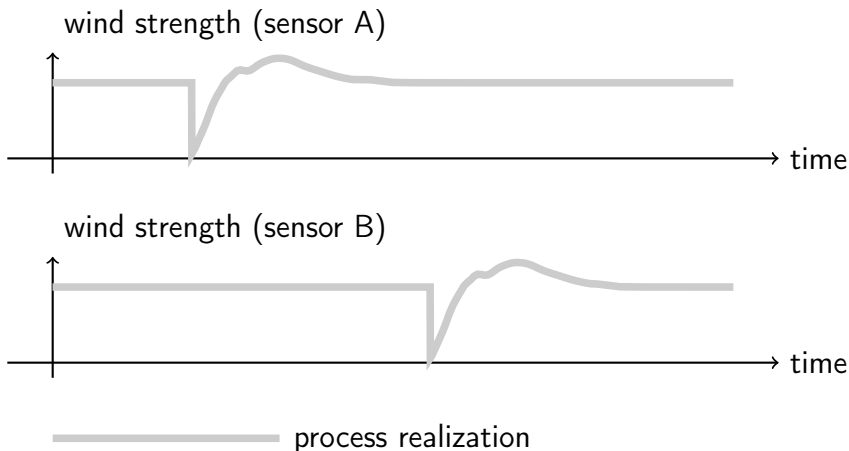


Time delays τ_s update: (a_k fixed)

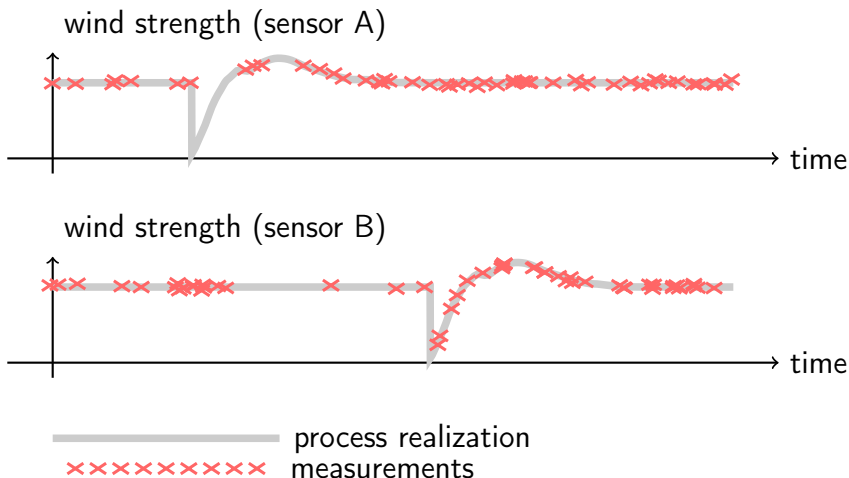
- 1 shift optimally each data set



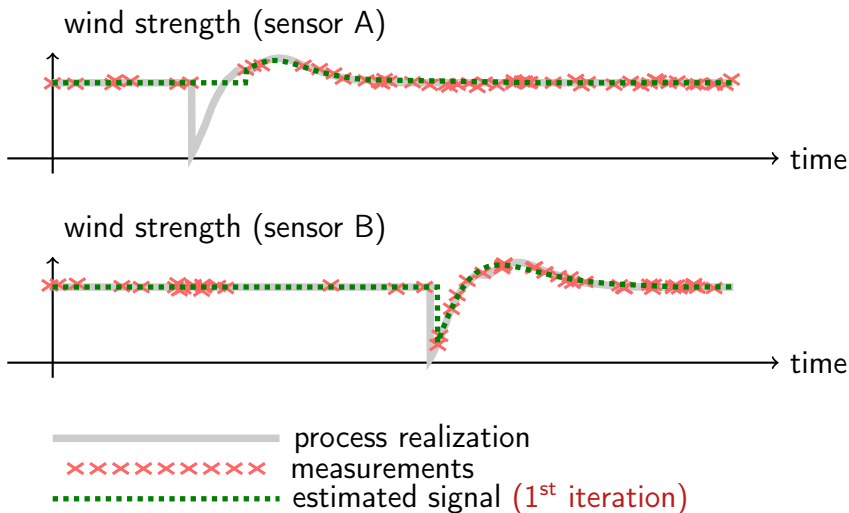
Simulations - distributed function estimation



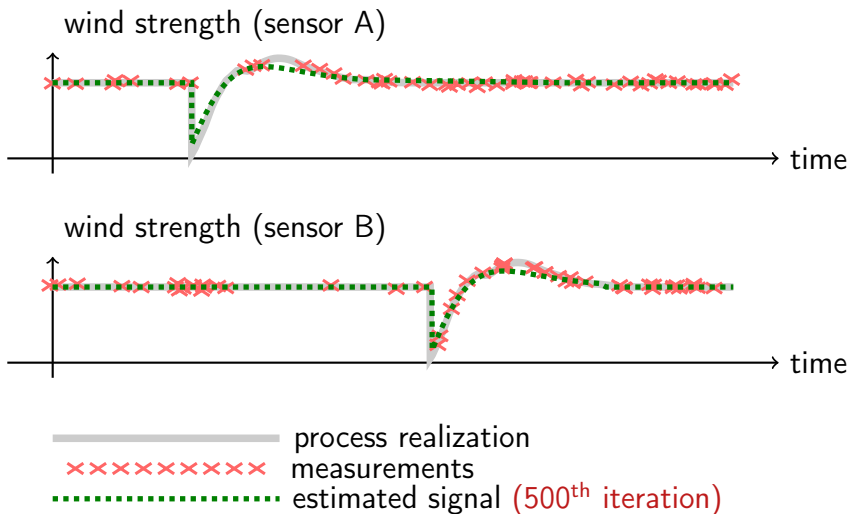
Simulations - distributed function estimation



Simulations - distributed function estimation



Simulations - distributed function estimation

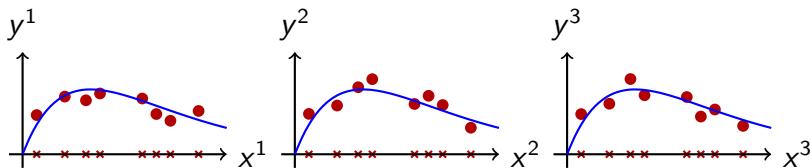


Characterization of the distributed algorithms

these algorithms can be effective \Rightarrow worthy to be characterized

let's start with the simplest case:

- 1 each sensor knows **exactly** S (n° of sensors)
- 2 **no time-delay** between measured signals
- 3 **common input-locations grid** among sensors



Simplest case: optimal distributed algorithm

there exists a distributed strategy **equivalent to the centralized** one:

- 1 (locally) make initial estimations:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}_s = \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T \left(C \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T + \Sigma_{\mathbf{e}} + \frac{\sigma^2}{S} I_M \right)^{-1} \mathcal{Y}_s$$

- 2 (distributedly) make an average consensus on the various $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_s$

Difference from pure local estimators: how to weight the measurement noise:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}_s^{\text{loc}} = \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T \left(C \Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} C^T + \Sigma_{\mathbf{e}} + \sigma^2 I_M \right)^{-1} \mathcal{Y}_s$$



Guessed distributed strategy

hypothesis removal: sensors do **not** know S (n° of sensors)



all sensors make the same guess: S_g (“g” = guess)

how distributed estimator changes?

distributed strategy:

- 1 (locally) make initial estimations:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}_s(S_g) = \Sigma_a C^T \left(C \Sigma_a C^T + \Sigma_e + \frac{\sigma^2}{S_g} I_M \right)^{-1} \mathcal{Y}_s$$

- 2 (distributedly) make an average consensus on the various $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_s(S_g)$

Comparisons between estimators performances

performance “=” estimation error variance

centralized vs local: centralized is always better than local

centralized vs guessed distributed: centralized is always better than guessed distributed (equal iff $S = S_g$, (guess is correct))

guessed distributed vs local: depends!!

Proposition

If $S_g \in [1, 2(S - 1)]$ then guessed distributed strategy is better than local independently of the kernel, noise power, number of measurements, etc.

Current research on performances characterization

remove the common grid hypothesis and perform **similar comparative analyses** between different algorithms of increasing complexity:

- simple average consensus of locally optimal estimates
- average consensus of local estimates with weighted measurement noise covariance
- local construction of pseudo-measurements on a common grid, then use the pseudo-measurements as before



Other research directions

- distributed number of sensors statistical estimation:
- (locally) generate y_s from a known probability distribution
 - (distributedly) combine these y_s using a known function $f(\cdot)$
 - (locally) use ML, MMSE or MAP strategies to estimate the actual number of sensors

distributed fault detection: (with faults on the measurements)

- make a distributed estimation
- make also a local estimation
- compare the local and the distributed estimations
- use statistical decision theory to locally say if there are problems on the measurements

Appendix



Bias vs. Variance tradeoff

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\text{data set}} \left[(y - f(x))^2 \right] &= \mathbb{E}_x \left[\mathbb{E}_y \left[(y - \mathbb{E}[y | x])^2 \mid x \right] \right] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_x \left[\mathbb{E}_y \left[(f(x) - \mathbb{E}[f(x)])^2 \mid x \right] \right] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_x \left[\mathbb{E}_y \left[(\mathbb{E}[y | x] - \mathbb{E}[f(x)])^2 \mid x \right] \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_x [\text{var}(y | x)] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_x [\text{var}(f(x))] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_x \left[(\text{bias}(f(x)))^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$



Riesz' representation theorem

Definition (dual of an Hilbert space)

If \mathcal{H}_K is a Hilbert space, then the space of the continuous linear functionals $L : \mathcal{H}_K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called its *dual* and indicated with \mathcal{H}_K^*

Theorem (Riesz' representation theorem)

If \mathcal{H}_K is a Hilbert space and \mathcal{H}_K^* is its dual, then

$$\forall L \in \mathcal{H}_K^* \quad \exists! g \in \mathcal{H}_K \text{ s.t. } L(f) = \langle g, f \rangle \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}_K$$