# Probability Density Functionals and Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces* 

Emanuel Parzen, Stanford University


#### Abstract

The extraction, detection, and prediction of signals in the presence of noise are among the central problems of statistical communication theory. Over the past few years I have sought to develop an approach to those problems that would simultaneously apply to stationary or nonstationary, discrete parameter or continuous parameter, and univariate or multivariate time series and would distinguish between their statistical and analytical aspects. In particular, they would clarify the role played by various widely employed analytical techniques (such as the Wiener-Hopf equation and eigenfunction expansions).

In the development of this approach, two basic concepts are used: the notion of the probability density functional of a time series and the notion of a reproducing kernel Hilbert space. The purpose of this chapter is to sketch the relation between these concepts.


## 1. THE PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTIONAL OF A NORMAL TIME SERIES

Let $[S(t), t \in T]$ and $[N(t), t \in T]$ be time series, called, respectively, the signal process and the noise process. Let $\Omega$ be the space of all real-valued functions on $T$. Let $P_{N}$ and $P_{S_{+N}}$ be probability measures defined on the measurable subsets $B$ of $\Omega$ by

$$
\begin{align*}
P_{N}[B] & =\operatorname{prob}\{[N(t), t \in T] \in B\}  \tag{1}\\
P_{S+N}[B] & =\operatorname{prob}\{[S(t)+N(t), t \in T] \in B\} . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

We are trying to determine, if it exists, a function $p$ on $\Omega$ with the property that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{S+N}[B]=\int_{B} p d P_{N} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

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The function $p$ may be called the probability densily functional of $P_{S+N}$ with respect to $P_{N}$ in order to emphasize that its argument is a function $[X(t)$, $t \in T]$. It is also denoted $p[X(t), t \in T]$ and called the probability density functional of the signal-plus-noise process

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(t)=S(t)+N(t), t \in T \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

with respect to the noise process $[N(t), t \in T]$. The function $p$ is often written symbolically as a derivative,

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=\frac{d P_{S+N}}{d P_{N}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and called the Radon-Nikodym derivative of $P_{S+N}$ with respect to $P_{N}$ [see Halmos (1950), p. 329].

A necessary and sufficient condition that the probability density (5) exist is that $P_{S+N}$ be absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$ in the sense that, for every measurable subset $A$ of $\Omega$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{N}[A]=0 \text { implies } P_{S+N}[A]=0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order that $P_{S+N}$ be not absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$, it is necessary and sufficient that there exist a set $A$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{N}[A]=0 \text { and } P_{S+N}[A]>0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The probability measures $P_{N}$ and $P_{S+N}$ are said to be orthogonal if there exists a set $A$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{N}[A]=0 \text { and } P_{S+N}[A]=1 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can regard (8) as an extreme case of being not absolutely continuous.
The notion of orthogonality derives its importance from detection theory (the theory of testing hypotheses). The simple hypotheses

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{0}: X(\cdot)=N(\cdot) \\
& H_{1}: X(\cdot)=S(\cdot)+N(\cdot)
\end{aligned}
$$

are said to be perfectly detectable if there exists a set $A$ such that

$$
\begin{align*}
P_{N}[A] & =\operatorname{prob}\left\{[X(t), t \in T] \in A \mid H_{0}\right\}=0 \\
P_{S+N}[A] & =\operatorname{prob}\left\{[X(t), t \in T] \in A \mid H_{1}\right\}=1 \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Clearly, the hypotheses $H_{0}$ and $H_{1}$ are perfectly detectable if and only if $P_{N}$ and $P_{S+N}$ are orthogonal.

Given the probability measures $P_{N}$ and $P_{S+N}$, the following questions arise:

1. Determine whether $P_{N}$ and $P_{S_{+N}}$ are orthogonal.
2. Determine whether $P_{S_{+N}}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$.
3. Determine the Radon-Nikodym derivative (5) if it exists.

To answer these questions, the natural way to proceed is to approximate the
infinite dimensional case by finite dimensional cases. For any finite subset

$$
\begin{equation*}
T^{\prime}=\left(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}\right) \text { of } T \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

let $P_{N, T^{\prime}}$ and $P_{S_{+N, T^{\prime}}}$ denote the probability distributions of $\left[X(t), t \in T^{\prime}\right]$ under $P_{N}$ and $P_{S_{+N}}$, respectively. Assume that $P_{S_{+N}, T^{\prime}}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N, T^{\prime}}$, with Radon-Nikodym derivative denoted

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{T^{\prime}}=\frac{d P_{S+N, T^{\prime \prime}}}{d P_{N, T^{\prime}}} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

The divergence between $P_{S_{+N}}$ and $P_{N}$ on the basis of having observed $[X(t)$, $\left.t \in T^{\prime}\right]$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{T^{\prime}}=E_{S+N}\left(\log p_{T^{\prime}}\right)-E_{N}\left(\log p_{T^{\prime}}\right) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the theory of martingales, it may be shown that

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leqslant J_{T^{\prime}} \leqslant J_{T^{\prime \prime}} \quad \text { if } \quad T^{\prime \prime} \subset T^{\prime \prime} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently, the limit

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{T}=\lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T} J_{T^{\prime}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists and is finite or infinite. Further, it may be shown [see Hajek (1958)] that (a) if $J_{T}<\infty$, then $P_{S+N}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=\frac{d P_{S+N}}{d P_{N}}=\lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T} p_{T^{\prime}} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

(b) if $J_{T}=\infty$, and both the time series $[N(t), t \in T]$ and $[S(t)+N(t), t \in T]$ are normal, then $P_{S+N}$ and $P_{N}$ are orthogonal.

We next apply these criteria under the following assumptions.
The noise process $[N(t), t \in T]$ is a normal process with zero means and covariance kernel

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(s, t)=E[N(s) N(t)] \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is positive definite in the sense that for every finite subset $T^{\prime}=\left\{t_{1}\right.$, $\left.\cdots, t_{n}\right\}$ of $T$ the covariance matrix

$$
K_{T^{\prime}}=\left[K\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right)\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
K\left(t_{1}, t_{1}\right) & \cdots & K\left(t_{1}, t_{n}\right)  \tag{17}\\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
K\left(t_{n}, t_{1}\right) & \cdots & K\left(t_{n}, t_{n}\right)
\end{array}\right]
$$

is nonsingular, with inverse matrix denoted

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{T^{\prime}}^{-1}=\left[K^{-1}\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right)\right] \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

(It should be noted that the assumption of positive definiteness is made only for mathematical convenience in the present exposition; it can be omitted.)

In regard to the signal process, two cases are of most interest:

1. Sure signal case. $[S(t), t \in T]$ is a nonrandom function.
2. Stochastic signal case. $[S(t), t \in T]$ is a normal time series, independent of the noise process, with zero means and positive definite covariance kernel

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(s, t)=E[S(s) S(t)] \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

To employ the criterion (15), we first need to compute the divergence $J_{T^{\prime}}$, defined by (12). In this section we consider the sure signal case; the stochastic signal case is considered in Section 3.

In the sure signal case

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log p_{T^{\prime}}=(X, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}-\frac{1}{2}(S, S)_{K, T^{\prime}} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we define for any functions $f$ and $g$ on $T$

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f, g)_{K, T^{\prime}}=\sum_{s, t \in T^{\prime}} f(s) K^{-1}(s, t) g(t) . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{T^{\prime}}=E_{S+N}\left[(X, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}\right]-E_{N}\left[(X, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}\right]=(S, S)_{K, T^{\prime}} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{T}<\infty \text { if and only if } \lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T}(S, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}<\infty \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

In words, in the sure signal case, $P_{S+N}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$ if and only if $(S, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}$ approaches a limit as $T^{\prime}$ tends to $T$. Fortunately it is possible to characterize those functions $S(\cdot)$ that have this property. To do so, we introduce the notion of a reproducing kernel Hilbert space.

## 2. REPRODUCING KERNEL HILBERT SPACES

Let $K(s, t)$ be the covariance kernel of a time series $[X(t), t \in T]$. For each $t$ in $T$, let $K(\cdot, t)$ be the function on $T$ whose value at $s$ in $T$ is equal to $K(s, t)$. It may be shown [see Aronszajn (1950)] that there exists a unique Hilbert space, denoted $H(K ; T)$, with the following properties:

1. The members of $H(K ; T)$ are real-valued functions on $T$ [if $K(s, t)$ were complex-valued, they would be complex-valued functions].
2. For every $t$ in $T$

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(\cdot, t) \in H(K ; T) \tag{I}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. For every $t$ in $T$ and $f$ in $H(K ; T)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t)=(f, K(\cdot, t))_{K, T}, \tag{II}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the inner product between two functions $f$ and $g$ in $H(K ; T)$ is written $(f, g)_{K, T}$.

Example 1. Suppose $T=(1,2, \ldots, n)$ for some positive integer $n$ and that the covariance kernel $K$ is given by a symmetric positive definite matrix [ $K_{i j}$ ] with inverse $\left[K^{i j}\right]$. The corresponding reproducing kernel space $H(K ; T)$
consists of all $n$-dimensional vectors $\mathbf{f}=\left(f_{1}, \cdots, f_{n}\right)$ with inner product

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g})_{K, T}=\sum_{s, t=1}^{n} f_{s} K^{s t} g_{t} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

To prove (24) we need only to verify that the reproducing property holds for $u=1, \cdots, n$

$$
\left(\mathbf{f}, K_{\cdot u}\right)_{K, T}=\sum_{s, t=1}^{n} f_{s} K^{s t} K_{t u}=\sum_{s=1}^{n} f_{s} \delta(s, u)=f_{u}
$$

The inner product may also be written as a ratio of determinants:

$$
(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g})_{K, T}=-\left|\begin{array}{llll}
K_{11} & \cdots & K_{1 n} & f_{1}  \tag{25}\\
\cdot & & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdots & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot & \cdot \\
K_{n 1} & \cdots & K_{n n} & f_{n} \\
g_{1} & \cdots & g_{n} & 0
\end{array}\right| \div\left|\begin{array}{lll}
K_{11} & \cdots & K_{1 n} \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot \\
K_{n 1} & \cdots & K_{n n}
\end{array}\right|
$$

To prove (25), we again need only to verify the reproducing property. When the covariance matrix $\mathbf{K}$ is singular, we may define the corresponding reproducing kernel inner product in terms of the pseudo-inverse of the matrix $\mathbf{K}$.

Example 2. Let $T=[t: a \leqslant t \leqslant b]$ and let $[N(t), a \leqslant t \leqslant b]$ be the Wiener process; that is, it has independent increments and covariance function

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(s, t)=\sigma^{2} \min (s, t) \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some parameter $\sigma^{2}$. Consider the Hilbert spaces $H(K ; T)$ consisting of all functions $f$ on $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t)=f(a)+\int^{t} f^{\prime}(u) d u \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some square integrable measurable function $f^{\prime}$ on $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$ [which can be called the $L_{2}$-derivative of $f$ ], with inner product defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f, g)_{K, T}=\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\left[\frac{1}{a} f(a) g(a)+\int_{a}^{b} f^{\prime}(u) g^{\prime}(u) d u\right] . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we define

$$
\begin{align*}
I_{t}^{(u)} & =1 \quad \text { if } \quad a \leqslant u \leqslant t \\
& =0 \quad \text { if } \quad t<u \leqslant b \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

we may rewrite (27):

$$
f(t)=f(a)+\int_{a}^{b} f^{\prime}(u) I_{t}(u) d u
$$

Now the covariance kernel $K(s, t)$ may be represented as

$$
K(s, t)=\sigma^{2} a+\sigma^{2} \int_{a}^{b} I_{s}(u) I_{t}(u) d u
$$

Therefore, for each $t$ in $T, K(\cdot, t)$ belongs to $H(K ; T)$ with $L^{2}$ derivative

$$
\frac{d}{d s} K(s, t)=\sigma^{2} I_{t}(s)
$$

Further,

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f, K(\cdot, t))_{K, T} & =\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\left[\frac{1}{a} f(a) \sigma^{2} a+\int_{a}^{b} f^{\prime}(u) \sigma^{2} I_{t}(u) d u\right] \\
& =f(a)+\int_{a}^{t} f^{\prime}(u) d u=f(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we see that the reproducing kernel Hilbert space corresponding to the covariance kernel (26) consists of all $L_{2}$-differentiable functions on $T$ with inner product given by (28).

The relevance of the theory of reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces to the theory of probability density functionals derives from the following fact: it may be shown (using martingale theory) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T}(S, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}<\infty \quad \text { if and only if } \quad S \in H(K ; T) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further, if $S \in H(K ; T)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T}(S, S)_{K, T^{\prime}}=(S, S)_{K, T} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows in the sure signal case that $P_{S+N}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$ if and only if the signal function [ $S(t), t \in T$ ] belongs to the reproducing kernel Hilbert space $H(K ; T)$ corresponding to the covariance kernel $K$ of the noise process $[X(t), t \in T]$. If $S \in H(K ; T)$, then the probability density functional is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
p[X(t), t \in T]=\frac{d P_{S+N}}{d P_{N}}=\exp \left[(X, S)_{K, T}-\frac{1}{2}(S, S)_{K, T}\right] \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

where by $(X, S)_{K, T}$ we mean the limit (in the sense both of convergence with probability one and convergence in quadratic mean)

$$
\begin{equation*}
(X, S)_{K, T}=\lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T}(X, S)_{K, T^{\prime}} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

It should be emphasized that although we use inner product notation to write $(X, S)_{K, T}$ this is not a true inner product between two elements in a Hilbert space, since the sample function $[X(t), t \in T]$ does not belong to $H(K)$; that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{T^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow T^{\prime}}(X, X)_{K, T^{\prime \prime}} \text { is infinite with probability one. } \tag{3t}
\end{equation*}
$$

In practice, it will be clear how to define $(X, S)_{K, T}$ by suitably modifying the expression for the inner product between two functions in $H(K)$. Thus for
the covariance kernel given by (26), instead of the expression

$$
(X, S)_{K, T}=\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\left[\frac{1}{a} X(a) S(a)+\int_{a}^{b} S^{\prime}(u) X^{\prime}(u) d u\right]
$$

suggested by (28), we may show that

$$
(X, S)_{K, T}=\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}\left[\frac{1}{a} X(a) S(a)+\int_{a}^{b} S^{\prime}(u) d X(u)\right]
$$

There is a variety of ways in which one can determine whether a function $S$ belongs to a reproducing kernel Hilbert space $H(K ; T)$ and compute the norm $(S, S)_{K, T}$ and the random variable $(X, S)_{K, T}$. These are discussed elsewhere [see Parzen (1961)].

However, certain general principles deserve to be stated at this point.
Roughly speaking, a function $g(\cdot)$ belongs to a reproducing kernel Hilbert space $H(K ; T)$ only if it is at least as "smooth" as the functions $K(\cdot, t)$, since every function $g$ in $H(K ; T)$ is either a linear combination

$$
g(\cdot)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} K\left(\cdot, t_{i}\right)
$$

or a limit of such linear combinations. For example, if $T$ is an interval and $K$ is continuous on $T \otimes T$, then every function in $H(K ; T)$ is continuous; if $K$ is twice differentiable on $T \otimes T$, then every function in $H(K, T)$ is differentiable.

We are led to the following heuristic conclusion: In order that a signal not be perfectly detectable in the presence of a noise, it is necessary and sufficient that the signal be as smooth as the noise. In the case of a sure signal the signal is as smooth as the noise if and only if $S \in H(K ; T)$, where $K$ is the covariance kernel of the noise. In the case of stochastic signals the signal is as smooth as the noise if $S \in H(K ; T)$ for almost all sample functions of the signal process: a rigorous formulation of this assertion is given in Section 3.

A basic tool in the analytical evaluation of a reproducing kernel inner product is provided by the following theorem.

## Integral representation theorem

Let $K$ be a covariance kernel. If (a) a measurable space ( $Q, \mathbf{B}, \mu$ ) exists and (b) in the Hilbert space of all B-measurable real-valued functions on $Q$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f, f)_{\mu}=\int_{Q} f^{2} d \mu<\infty \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

there exists a family $[f(t), t \in T]$ of functions satisf ying

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(s, t)=(f(s), f(t))_{\mu}=\int_{Q} f(s) f(t) d \mu \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the reproducing kernel Hilbert space $H\left(K ; T^{\prime}\right)$ consists of all functions
$g$ on $T$, which may be represented as

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(t)=\int_{Q} g^{*} f(t) d \mu \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some unique function $g^{*}$ in the Hilbert subspace $L[f(t), t \in T]$ of $L_{2}(Q, \mathbf{B}, \mu)$ spanned by the family of functions $[f(t), t \in T]$. The norm of $g$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(g, g)_{K, T}=\left(g^{*}, g^{*}\right)_{\mu} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $[f(t), t \in T]$ spans $L_{2}(Q, \mathbf{B}, \mu)$, then $X(t)$ may be represented as a stochastic integral with respect to an orthogonal random set function $[Z(B), B \in \mathrm{~B}]$ with covariance kernel $\mu$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
X(t) & =\int_{Q} f(t) d Z  \tag{39}\\
E\left[Z\left(B_{1}\right) Z\left(B_{2}\right)\right] & =\mu\left(B_{1} B_{2}\right) \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

Further

$$
\begin{equation*}
(X, g)_{K, T}=\int_{Q} g^{*} d Z \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

As an immediate consequence of the integral representation theorem one obtains the following example.

Example 3. Stationary noise process. Let $T=[t:-\infty<t<\infty]$ and let [ $X(t),-\infty<t<\infty$ ] be a stationary time series with spectral density function $f(\omega)$ so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(s, t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \omega(s-t)} f(\omega) d \omega \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $H(K ; T)$ consists of all functions $g$ on $T$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^{*}(\omega) e^{i \omega t} f(\omega) d \omega \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

for which the norm

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|g\|_{K, T}^{2}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left|g^{*}(\omega)\right|^{2} f(\omega) d \omega \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

is finite. The corresponding random variable $(X, g)_{K, T}$ can be expressed in terms of the spectral representation of $X(\cdot)$. If

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i t \omega} d Z(\omega) \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
(X, g)_{K, T}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^{*}(\omega) d Z(\omega) \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume that the spectral density function $f(\omega)$ is uniformly bounded. Then $g(t)$, being the Fourier transform of the square integrable function $g^{*}(\omega) f(\omega)$, is square integrable. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(\omega)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i t \omega} g(t) d t . \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{*}(\omega) f(\omega)=G(\omega) . \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume now that $f(\omega)$ never vanishes. We may then write

$$
\begin{align*}
(g, g)_{K, T} & =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left|\frac{G(\omega)}{f(\omega)}\right|^{2} f(\omega) d \omega=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}|G(\omega)|^{2} \frac{1}{f(\omega)} d \omega  \tag{49}\\
(X, g)_{K, T} & =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{G(\omega)}{f(\omega)} d Z(\omega) . \tag{50}
\end{align*}
$$

To sum up, in the case of a stationary process whose spectral density function is uniformly bounded and never vanishes, the reproducing kernel Hilbert space $H(K ; T)$ for $T=(-\infty<t<\infty)$ consists of all space integrable functions $g(t)$ whose Fourier transforms $G(\omega)$ are such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}|G(\omega)|^{2} \frac{1}{f(\omega)} d \omega<\infty \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $f(\omega)$ vanishes, a similar conclusion holds. Let $N=[\omega: f(\omega)=0]$ and $N^{c}=[\omega: f(\omega)>0]$. Then $H(K ; T)$ consists of all square integrable functions $g(t)$ whose Fourier transforms $G(\omega)$ vanish on $N$ and such that

$$
\int_{N^{c}}|G(\omega)|^{2} \frac{1}{f(\omega)} d \omega<\infty .
$$

The foregoing results are easily extended to multiple time series $\left[X_{\alpha}(t)\right.$, $-\infty<t<\infty, \alpha=1,2, \cdots, M]$. Assume that for $\alpha, \beta=1,2, \cdots, M$ and $-\infty<s, t<\infty$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\alpha, \beta}(s, t)=E\left[X_{\alpha}(s) X_{\beta}(t)\right]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \omega(s-t)} f_{\alpha, \beta}(\omega) d \omega \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $H(K ; T)$ consists of all functions $g_{\alpha}(t)$ on

$$
\begin{equation*}
T=[(\alpha, t): \alpha=1, \cdots, M,-\infty<t<\infty] \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

satisfying the condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\alpha=1}^{M} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_{\alpha}^{2}(t) d t<\infty \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left[\sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^{M} G_{\alpha}(\omega) f^{\alpha \beta}(\omega) \overline{G_{\beta}(\omega)}\right] d \omega<\infty \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{z}$ denotes the complex conjugate of the complex number $z$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{\alpha}(\omega)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \omega t} g_{\alpha}(t) d t \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\left[f^{\alpha \beta}(\omega)\right]$ is the inverse of the matrix $\left[f_{\alpha \beta}(\omega)\right]$. Then $(g, g)_{K, T}$ is given by the expression in (55) and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(X, g)_{K, T}=\sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^{M} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overline{G_{\alpha}(\omega)} f^{\alpha \beta}(\omega) d Z_{\beta}(\omega), \tag{57}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{\alpha}(t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i t \omega} d Z_{\alpha}(\omega) \tag{58}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Direct Product Hilbert Spaces

The notion of a direct product space plays an important part in our considerations. Given two function spaces $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, consisting of functions defined on $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$, respectively, their direct product space, denoted $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$, is the Hilbert space completion of the set of functions $g$ on $T_{1} \otimes T_{2}$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
g\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right)=g_{1}\left(t_{1}\right) g_{2}\left(t_{2}\right) \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $g_{1} \in G_{1}$ and $g_{2} \in G_{2}$. The norm of a function in $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ of the form (59) is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|g\|_{G_{1} \otimes G_{2}}^{2}=\left\|g_{1}\right\|_{G_{1}}^{2}\left\|g_{2}\right\|_{G_{2}}^{2} . \tag{60}
\end{equation*}
$$

The function $g$ defined by (59) is on occasion denoted by $g_{1} \otimes g_{2}$.
It should be noted that if $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces, with respective reproducing kernels $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ defined on $T \otimes T$, then $G_{1} \otimes$ $G_{2}$ is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space with kernel $K_{1} \otimes K_{2}$, where $K_{1} \otimes K_{2}$ is a function of four real variables defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{1} \otimes K_{2}\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, t_{1}, t_{2}\right)=K_{1}\left(s_{1}, t_{1}\right) K_{2}\left(s_{2}, t_{2}\right) \tag{61}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(g, K_{1} \otimes K_{2}\left(\cdot, \cdot, t_{1}, t_{2}\right)\right)_{G_{1} \otimes G_{2}}=g\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right) . \tag{62}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $G_{1}=G_{2}=L_{2}(T, \mathbf{B}, \mu), G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ consists of all ( $\mathrm{B} \otimes \mathrm{B}$-measurable) functions $g$ on $T \otimes T$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|g\|_{G 1 \otimes G_{2}}^{2}=\int_{T} \int_{T} g^{2}(s, t) \mu(d s) \mu(d t)<\infty \tag{63}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are equal to the reproducing kernel Hilbert space consisting of all $L_{2}$-differentiable functions on the interval ( $t: a \leqslant t \leqslant b$ ) with norm squared

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|g\|_{G_{1}}^{2}=\frac{1}{a} g_{1}^{2}(a)+\int_{a}^{b}\left|g_{1}^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} d t, \tag{64}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space with norm squared

$$
\begin{align*}
&\|g\|_{G_{1} \otimes G 2}^{2}=\frac{1}{a^{2}} g^{2}(a, a)+\frac{1}{a} \int_{a}^{b}\left|\frac{\partial}{\partial s} g(s, a)\right|^{2} d s \\
&+\frac{1}{a} \int_{a}^{b}\left|\frac{\partial}{\partial t} g(a, t)\right|^{2} d t  \tag{65}\\
&+\int_{a}^{b} \int_{a}^{b}\left|\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} g(s, t)\right|^{2} d s d t .
\end{align*}
$$

## 3. STOCHASTIC SIGNAL CASE

In this section we shall determine conditions for the existence of the probability density functional (6) in the stochastic signal case described before (19).

We shall prove below that $P_{S_{+N}}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|R\|_{H(K) \otimes H(K+R)}<\infty . \tag{66}
\end{equation*}
$$

It may be shown that a sufficient condition for (66) to hold is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|R\|_{H(K) \otimes H(K)}<\infty . \tag{67}
\end{equation*}
$$

In practice, the condition we shall attempt to verify is (67). Consequently, before proving that (66) is necessary and sufficient for $p=d P_{S_{+N}} / d P_{N}$ to exist, let us show directly that (67) is a sufficient condition for $p$ to exist and let us obtain an explicit formula for $p$.

It may be shown that if (67) holds, then the signal process $[S(t), t \in T]$ may be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
S(t)=\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \eta_{\nu} \Phi_{\nu}(t) \tag{68}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $(a)\left[\eta_{\nu}\right]$ is a sequence of random variables satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left(\eta_{\alpha}, \eta_{\beta}\right)=\delta(\alpha, \beta) \lambda_{\alpha} \tag{69}
\end{equation*}
$$

for a suitable sequence $\left[\lambda_{\nu}\right.$ ], and (b) [ $\Phi_{\nu}$ ] is a sequence of functions in $H(K)$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\Phi_{\alpha}, \Phi_{\beta}\right)_{H(K)}=\delta(\alpha, \beta) . \tag{70}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, $\left[\lambda_{\nu}\right]$ are the eigenvalues and [ $\Phi_{\nu}$ ] are the corresponding eigenfunctions of the linear transformation R on $H(K)$ to itself defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{R} h(t)=(h, R(\cdot, t))_{H(K)} . \tag{71}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{\nu}^{2}=\|R\|_{H(K) \otimes H(K)}^{2}<\infty \tag{72}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $n=1,2, \cdots$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}(t)=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} \eta_{\nu} \Phi_{\nu}(t), V_{n}=\left(X, \Phi_{n}\right)_{K} \tag{73}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the developments of Section 1, it follows that $P_{S_{n}+N}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $P_{N}$ with probability density function

$$
\begin{align*}
p_{n}=\frac{d P_{S_{n}+N}}{d P_{N}} & =\prod_{\nu=1}^{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp \left(\eta_{\nu} V_{\nu}-\frac{1}{2} \eta_{\nu}^{2}\right) \frac{1}{\left(2 \pi \lambda_{\nu}\right)^{1 / 2}} \exp \left(\frac{-\eta_{\nu}^{2}}{2 \lambda_{\nu}}\right) d \eta_{\nu}  \tag{74}\\
& =\prod_{\nu=1}^{n}\left(1+\lambda_{\nu}\right)^{-1 / 2} \exp \left(\frac{1}{2} V_{\nu}^{2} \frac{\lambda_{\nu}}{1+\lambda_{\nu}}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

By martingale theory it may be shown that (72) implies that the probability
density function exists and is given by the limit,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d P_{S+N}}{d P_{N}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n} \tag{75}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \frac{d P_{S+N}}{d P_{N}}=\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty}\left[-\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1+\lambda_{\nu}\right)+\frac{1}{2} V_{\nu}^{2} \frac{\lambda_{\nu}}{1+\lambda_{\nu}}\right] \tag{76}
\end{equation*}
$$

If in addition to (72)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{\nu}<\infty \tag{77}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the probability density function may be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \frac{d P_{S+N}}{d P_{N}}=-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \log \left(1+\lambda_{\nu}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} V_{\nu}^{2} \frac{\lambda_{\nu}}{1+\lambda_{\nu}} \tag{78}
\end{equation*}
$$

The intuitive meaning of (77) is that almost all sample functions of the signal process $[S(t), t \in T]$ belong to $H(K)$, since from (68)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|S\|_{K}^{2} & =\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \eta_{\nu}^{2} \\
E\left[\|S\|_{K}^{2}\right] & =\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{\nu}
\end{aligned}
$$

It appears to establish (77) it would suffice to prove that

$$
E\left[\|S\|_{K}^{2}\right]<\infty .
$$

In order to obtain necessary and sufficient conditions that $P_{S_{+N}}$ be absolutely continuous to $P_{N}$ in the stochastic signal case, let us begin by rephrasing the problem. Let $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ be two positive definite covariance kernels, and let $P_{i}$ be the probability measure induced on $\Omega$ by a normal process $[X(t)$, $t \in T]$ with zero means and covariance kernel $K_{i}$. The following questions arise:

1. Determine whether $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are orthogonal.
2. Determine $d P_{2} / d P_{1}$ if it exists.

We use equations (10) to (15). Let

$$
\begin{align*}
p_{T^{\prime}} & =\frac{d P_{2, T^{\prime}}}{d P_{1, T^{\prime}}}=\frac{\left|K_{2, T^{\prime}}\right|^{-1 / 2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} X^{\mathrm{tr}} K_{2, T^{\prime}}^{-1} X\right)}{\left|K_{1, T^{\prime}}\right|^{-1 / 2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} X^{\mathrm{tr}} K_{1, T^{\prime}}^{-1} X\right)}  \tag{79}\\
J_{T^{\prime}} & =E_{P_{2}}\left(\log p_{T^{\prime}}\right)-E_{P_{1}}\left(\log p_{T^{\prime \prime}}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{trace}\left(K_{1, T^{\prime}}^{-1} K_{2, T^{\prime \prime}}-I-I+K_{2, T^{\prime}}^{-1} K_{1, T^{\prime \prime}}\right) \tag{80}
\end{align*}
$$

Amazingly enough, the right-hand side of (80) can be expressed as the norm of a function in the reproducing kernel Hilbert space corresponding to the kernel $K_{1} \otimes K_{2}$, which is a function of four variables $\left(s, s^{\prime}, t, t^{\prime}\right)$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{1} \otimes K_{2}\left(s, s^{\prime}, t, t^{\prime}\right)=K_{1}(s, t) K_{2}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right) \tag{81}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are nonsingular covariance matrices, we may verify that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{trace}\left(K_{1} K_{2}^{-1}\right)=\left(K_{1}, K_{1}\right)_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}} \tag{82}
\end{equation*}
$$

since

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(K_{1}, K_{1}\right)_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}} & =\sum_{s, s^{\prime}, t, t^{\prime}} K_{1}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right) K_{1}^{-1}(s, t) K_{2}^{-1}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right) K_{1}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\sum_{s^{\prime}, t, t^{\prime}} \delta\left(s^{\prime}, t\right) K_{2}^{-1}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right) K_{1}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)  \tag{83}\\
& =\sum_{t, t^{\prime}} K_{2}^{-1}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) K_{1}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{trace}\left(K_{1} K_{2}^{-1}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

It may also be proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { trace } I=\left(K_{1}, K_{2}\right)_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}} \tag{84}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this manner we may verify that

$$
\text { trace } \begin{align*}
\left(K_{1} K_{2}^{-1}+K_{2} K_{1}^{-1}-2 I\right) & =\left\|K_{1}-K_{2}\right\|_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}}  \tag{85}\\
X^{\operatorname{tr}} K_{1}^{-1} X-X^{\operatorname{tr}} K_{2}^{-1} X & =\left(K_{2}-K_{1}, X \otimes X\right)_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}} \tag{86}
\end{align*}
$$

where $X \otimes X$ is the function on $T \otimes T$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
X \otimes X(s, t)=X(s) X(t) \tag{87}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (85) and (86), we may rewrite (79) and (80):

$$
\begin{gather*}
p_{T^{\prime}}=\left|K_{2, T^{\prime}}^{-1} K_{1, T^{\prime}}\right|^{1 / 2} \exp \left[\frac{1}{2}\left(K_{2}-K_{1}, X \otimes X\right)_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}, T^{\prime} \otimes T^{\prime}}\right]  \tag{88}\\
J_{T^{\prime}}=\frac{1}{2}\left\|K_{2}-K_{1}\right\|_{K_{1} \otimes K_{2}, T^{\prime} \otimes T^{\prime}} \tag{89}
\end{gather*}
$$

The following conclusions can be immediately inferred:

1. In order that $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ be orthogonal, it is necessary and sufficient that it is not so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{2}-K_{1} \quad \text { belongs to } H\left(K_{1} \otimes K_{2} ; T \otimes T\right) \tag{90}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. If (90) holds, then the Radon-Nikodym derivative exists and is given by the limit (as $T^{\prime} \rightarrow T$ ) of (88). Formally, we may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d P_{2}}{d P_{1}}=D\left(K_{2}^{-1} K_{1}\right) \exp \left[\frac{1}{2}\left(K_{2}-K_{1}, X \otimes X\right)_{\left.K_{1} \otimes K_{2}, T \otimes T\right]}\right. \tag{91}
\end{equation*}
$$

if

$$
\begin{equation*}
D\left(K_{2}^{-1} K_{1}\right)=\lim _{T^{\prime} \rightarrow T}\left|K_{2, T^{\prime}}^{-1} K_{1, T^{\prime}}\right|^{3 / 2} \tag{92}
\end{equation*}
$$

is assumed to exist.

By using (91), we can sketch a proof of Woodward's theorem on linear transformation of Wiener integrals [Woodward (1961)].
Example 4. To illustrate the use of (67), we consider stationary time series with spectral density functions, so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R(s-t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \omega(s-t)} f_{S}(\omega) d \omega \\
& K(s-t)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \omega(s-t)} f_{N}(\omega) d \omega
\end{aligned}
$$

We now show that a sufficient condition for (67) to hold for any finite interval $T=(t: 0 \leqslant t \leqslant T)$ is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f_{S}(\omega)}{f_{N}(\omega)} d \omega<\infty \tag{93}
\end{equation*}
$$

To prove (93), we write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|R\|_{K \otimes K, T \otimes T}^{2} & =\left\|\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \omega s} e^{-i \omega t} f_{S}(\omega) d \omega\right\|_{K \otimes K, T \otimes T}^{2} \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \omega_{1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \omega_{2} f_{S}\left(\omega_{1}\right) f_{S}\left(\omega_{2}\right)\left(e^{i \omega_{1}(s-t)}, e^{i \omega_{2}(s-t)}\right) K \otimes K, T \otimes T \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \omega_{1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \omega_{2} f_{S}\left(\omega_{1}\right) f_{S}\left(\omega_{2}\right)\left|\left(e^{i \omega_{1} s}, e^{i \omega_{2} s}\right) K, T\right|^{2} \\
& \leqslant\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \omega f_{S}(\omega)\left\|e^{i \omega s}\right\|_{K, T}^{2}\right]^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

From (49) we may deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{T}\left\|e^{i \omega s}\right\|_{K, T}^{2} \leqslant \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \lambda\left[f_{N}(\lambda)\right]^{-1} \frac{1}{T}\left|\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{T} e^{i s(\omega-\lambda)} d s\right|^{2} \tag{94}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $T$ tends to $\infty$, the right-hand side of (94) tends to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[2 \pi f_{N}(\omega)\right]^{-1} \tag{95}
\end{equation*}
$$

as a limit in mean with respect to the finite measure on $-\infty<\omega<\infty$ with density function $f_{S}(\omega)$. The desired conclusion may now be inferred.

It might be noted that by using (94) and (95) we can give simple proofs of various extensions to continuous parameter time series of theorems on the asymptotic efficiency of least-squares estimates of regression coefficients given for discrete parameter time series by Grenander and Rosenblatt (1957).

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