

# Lecture 1 – Part 2

## Some Basics

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# Regression

- training data  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i); i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- want  $f(\cdot)$  so that we can predict  $y$  from  $\mathbf{x}$  with  $f(\mathbf{x})$
- mean squared error,

$$\text{MSE}(f) = \mathbb{E}[y - f(\mathbf{x})]^2,$$

a common criterion for how good  $f$  is

$$\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$$

Let  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$ , and  $h(\mathbf{x})$  be any other function of  $\mathbf{x}$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}[y - h(\mathbf{x})]^2 \\ = & \mathbb{E}[y - g(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})]^2 \\ = & \mathbb{E}[y - g(\mathbf{x})]^2 + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[g(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})]^2}_{\geq 0} + 2 \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[(y - g(\mathbf{x}))(g(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}))]}_{=0} \\ \geq & \mathbb{E}[y - g(\mathbf{x})]^2. \end{aligned}$$



main task for regression: “go after” the function,  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$

**Exercise** Show that  $\mathbb{E}[(y - g(\mathbf{x}))(g(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}))] = 0$ . (Hint: Use  $\mathbb{E}(\cdot) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(\cdot|\mathbf{x})]$ .)

# Ex I: Linear Regression

- for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , can start by modelling  $\mathbb{E}(y|x)$  as

$$f(x) = \alpha + \beta x$$

- further justification:  $\mathbb{E}(y|x)$  linear in  $x$  if  $(x, y)$  have a **joint normal distribution**
- just have to estimate  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  from training data
- for  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , simply

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}$$

## Ex II: Nearest-Neighbor Regression

- may feel uncomfortable with assuming  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$  to be linear
- can choose to estimate  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$  by

$$\hat{\mathbb{E}}(y|\mathbf{x}) = \text{average} \{y_i : \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x})\},$$

where  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x})$  denotes a “neighborhood” around  $\mathbf{x}$

- meaning of  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$ : the **average** of  $y$  given a particular  $\mathbf{x}$
- almost literal interpretation of  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$
- relaxes “**given a particular  $\mathbf{x}$** ” to “**within a neighborhood of  $\mathbf{x}$** ”

## Ex II: Nearest-Neighbor Regression

- for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , suppose

$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \left\{ x_i : \frac{|x_i - x|}{h} < 1 \right\}$$

- can express estimate as

$$\hat{\mathbb{E}}(y|x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n I\left(\frac{|x_i - x|}{h} < 1\right) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n I\left(\frac{|x_i - x|}{h} < 1\right)}$$

- need to specify  $h$  a priori ... called a **tuning parameter**

## Ex III: Kernel Regression

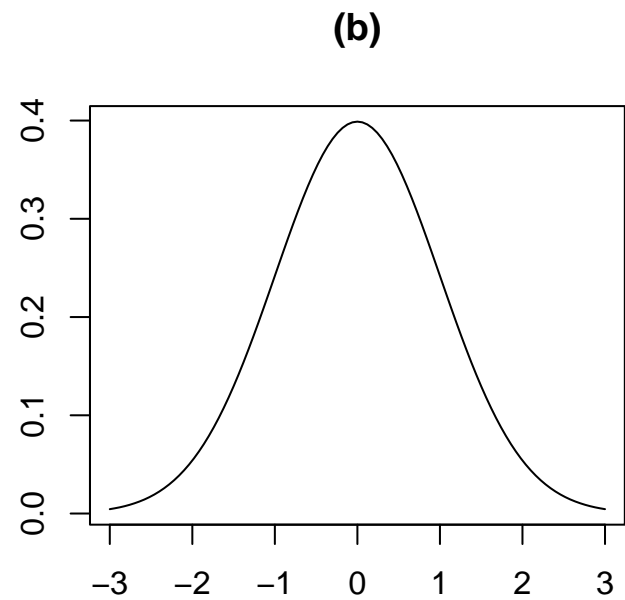
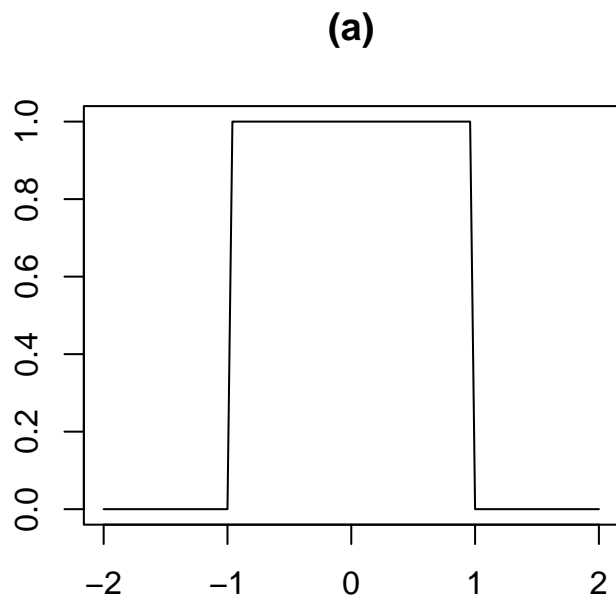
- can further generalize to

$$\widehat{\mathbb{E}}(y|x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right)},$$

where  $K(u)$  is a **kernel function** such that

$$\int K(u)du = 1, \quad \int uK(u)du = 0, \quad \int u^2 K(u)du < \infty$$

- simple average vs weighted average



(a)  $K(u) = \frac{1}{2}I(|u| < 1)$ ; (b)  $K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-u^2/2}$ .



# Bias-Variance Analysis

- typical model assumption:

$$y_i = f(x_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_i) = 0, \quad \text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2, \quad \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$

- let

$$w_i = \frac{\frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_j - x}{h}\right)} \quad \text{so that} \quad \hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i$$

- further simplifying assumption:  $x_i \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$

# Bias

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum w_i y_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{E} [\hat{f}(x)] = \sum w_i \mathbb{E}(y_i) = \sum w_i f(x_i)$$

$$f(x_i) \approx f(x) + (x_i - x)f'(x) + \frac{1}{2}(x_i - x)^2 f''(x)$$

↓

$$\mathbb{E} [\hat{f}(x)] \approx$$

$$f(x) \underbrace{\sum w_i}_{=1} + f'(x) \underbrace{\sum w_i (x_i - x)}_{\approx 0} + \frac{1}{2} f''(x) \underbrace{\sum w_i (x_i - x)^2}_{\approx h^2 [\int u^2 K(u) du]}$$

$$\therefore \text{Bias} [\hat{f}(x)] \approx h^2 B_0 \quad \text{where} \quad B_0 = \frac{1}{2} f''(x) \left[ \int u^2 K(u) du \right]$$

# Variance

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum w_i y_i \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var} [\hat{f}(x)] &= \sum w_i^2 \text{Var}(y_i) = \sigma^2 \underbrace{\left[ \sum w_i^2 \right]} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{nh} \left[ \int K^2(u) du \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{Var} [\hat{f}(x)] \approx \frac{1}{nh} V_0 \quad \text{where} \quad V_0 = \sigma^2 \left[ \int K^2(u) du \right]$$

# Discussion

$h \uparrow \Rightarrow$  bias  $\uparrow$  and variance  $\downarrow$

$h \downarrow \Rightarrow$  bias  $\downarrow$  and variance  $\uparrow$

Are these intuitively “obvious”?

## Some Details

First,

$$\sum w_i(x_i - x) = \frac{\sum \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right) (x_i - x)}{\sum \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right)},$$

where

$$\text{numerator} \approx \int \left(\frac{v - x}{h}\right) K\left(\frac{v - x}{h}\right) dv \stackrel{(*)}{=} h \int u K(u) du = 0,$$

and

$$\text{denominator} \approx \int \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{v - x}{h}\right) dv \stackrel{(*)}{=} \int K(u) du = 1.$$

$$(*) \quad u = (v - x)/h, \quad du = (1/h)dv$$

## Some Details

Likewise,

$$\sum w_i (x_i - x)^2 = \frac{\sum \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right) (x_i - x)^2}{\sum \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right)},$$

where

denominator  $\approx 1$  (previous slide)

and

$$\text{numerator} \approx \int h \left(\frac{v - x}{h}\right)^2 K\left(\frac{v - x}{h}\right) dv = h^2 \int u^2 K(u) du.$$

## Some Details

**Exercise** Use the same argument to “show” that

$$\sum w_i^2 \approx \frac{1}{nh} \left[ \int K^2(u) du \right].$$

# Bias-Variance Trade-Off

$$\begin{aligned}\text{MSE}(\hat{f}) &\equiv \mathbb{E}(\hat{f} - f)^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{f}) + \mathbb{E}(\hat{f}) - f]^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{f})]^2}_{\text{Var}(\hat{f})} + \underbrace{[\mathbb{E}(\hat{f}) - f]^2}_{\text{Bias}^2(\hat{f})} + \underbrace{2\mathbb{E}[(\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{f}))(\mathbb{E}(\hat{f}) - f)]}_{=0}\end{aligned}$$

**Exercise** Show that  $\mathbb{E}[(\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{f}))(\mathbb{E}(\hat{f}) - f)] = 0$ .



# Bias-Variance Trade-Off

- for kernel regression,

$$\text{MSE} = \text{Var} + \text{Bias}^2 \approx h^4 B_0^2 + \frac{V_0}{nh}$$

- can find the “optimal”  $h$  (in terms of the MSE):

$$\frac{d}{dh} \text{MSE} \approx 4B_0^2 h^3 - \frac{V_0}{nh^2} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad h^* \sim O(n^{-1/5})$$

- general phenomenon, not just for kernel regression

# Curse of Dimensionality

For  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , neighborhood-based methods such as kernel regression **still apply** (“just” use  $K(\mathbf{u})$  for  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ) but they become **increasingly difficult**.

**Example** Suppose data are uniformly distributed inside the unit ball,  $\{\mathbf{x} : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1\}$ . Consider a neighborhood around  $\mathbf{0}$  with radius  $h < 1$ . What fraction of data does the neighborhood contain?

$$(\text{fraction of data}) = \frac{\text{vol}(\text{neighborhood})}{\text{vol}(\text{unit ball})} = \frac{\frac{\pi^{d/2}}{\Gamma(d/2 + 1)} h^d}{\frac{\pi^{d/2}}{\Gamma(d/2 + 1)} 1^d} = h^d.$$

Thus, in  $d = 100$  dimensions, even a neighborhood with radius  $h = 0.95$  contains  $< 0.6\%$  of the data.

# Classification

- training data  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i); i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$
- want  $f(\cdot)$  so that we can classify  $y$  from  $\mathbf{x}$  with  $f(\mathbf{x})$
- mean 0-1 error,

$$\text{error}(f) = \mathbb{E}[I(y \neq f(\mathbf{x}))],$$

a common criterion for how good  $f$  is

$$\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$$

**Exercise** Show that the function that minimizes the mean 0-1 error is

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{k=1,\dots,K} \mathbb{P}(y = k|\mathbf{x}).$$



main task for classification: “go after” the function,  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$

**Remark** For binary  $y \in \{0, 1\}$ , also have  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}(y = 1|\mathbf{x})$ .

# Two Strategies

- “go after”  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$  directly
- use Bayes theorem,

$$\mathbb{P}(y = k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\pi_k p_k(\mathbf{x})}{\pi_1 p_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + \pi_K p_K(\mathbf{x})},$$

and “go after”  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$  indirectly by first “going after”

- $p_k(\mathbf{x})$ , the conditional distribution of  $\mathbf{x}|y = k$ , and
- $\pi_k$ , the prior probability of class  $k$ ,

for each  $k = 1, \dots, K$

## Ex IV: Logistic Regression

- for binary  $y \in \{0, 1\}$ , can model

$$\mathbb{P}(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp\{\alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}^\top \mathbf{x}\}}{1 + \exp\{\alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}^\top \mathbf{x}\}},$$

or, equivalently,

$$\log \frac{\mathbb{P}(y = 1|\mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(y = 0|\mathbf{x})} = \alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}^\top \mathbf{x}$$

- just have to estimate  $\alpha$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  from training data

# Ex V: Linear Discriminant Analysis

- alternatively, can model

$$p_k(\mathbf{x}) \sim \text{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \quad k = 0, 1$$

- recall multivariate normal density function

$$p_k(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) \right]$$

## Ex V: Linear Discriminant Analysis

- then,

$$\log \frac{\mathbb{P}(y = 1|\mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(y = 0|\mathbf{x})} = \log \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_0} + \log \frac{p_1(\mathbf{x})}{p_0(\mathbf{x})}$$

where

$$\log \frac{p_1(\mathbf{x})}{p_0(\mathbf{x})} = -\frac{1}{2} [(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) - (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)]$$

- just have to estimate  $\pi_1, \pi_0, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\mu}_0$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  (actually,  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ )



# Comparison

- slight rearrangement of the last equation from the previous slide gives

$$\log \frac{\mathbb{P}(y = 1|\mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(y = 0|\mathbf{x})} = \underbrace{\log \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_0} - \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)}_{\alpha} + \underbrace{(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

- **linear discriminant analysis** and **logistic regression**: two different ways of “going after” the same, linear decision boundary

# Which Is Better?

B. Efron (1975), “The efficiency of logistic regression compared to normal discriminant analysis”, *JASA* **70**, pp. 892–898.

- $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; fixed  $d$
- if  $p_k$  normal, logistic regression less efficient
- loss of efficiency between  $1/3$  to  $1/2$

# Enter “Big Data”

- if all this sounds easy, don't forget  $\Sigma$  is  $d \times d$
- very hard for relatively large  $d$
- $\Sigma^{-1}$  can be estimated by the **graphical LASSO** (Friedman, Hastie & Tibshirani, 2008; *Biostatistics*)
- Fan, Feng & Wu (2009; *Ann. Appl. Stat.*) applied gLASSO-estimated  $\Sigma^{-1}$  to perform linear discriminant analysis
- Cai & Liu (2012; *JASA*) proposed to estimate  $\beta \equiv \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_0)$  directly with sparsity constraints

**Research** Perform an analysis like that of Efron (1975) when  $d \rightarrow \infty$  as well.

## Ex VI: Naïve Bayes

- may feel uncomfortable with assuming  $p_k(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$
- data scientists have long used (and still like) the model,

$$p_k(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{j=1}^d f_{k,j}(x_j),$$

where each  $f_{k,j}(\cdot)$  can be estimated separately

- especially helpful if the predictors are of mixed types (e.g., some [continuous](#), some [categorical](#))

## Ex VI: Naïve Bayes

- may feel uncomfortable with assuming independence
- but

$$\begin{aligned} \log \frac{\mathbb{P}(y = 1|\mathbf{x})}{\mathbb{P}(y = 0|\mathbf{x})} &= \underbrace{\log \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_0}}_{\alpha} + \sum_{j=1}^d \underbrace{\log \frac{f_{1,j}(x_j)}{f_{0,j}(x_j)}}_{g_j(x_j)} \\ &\equiv \alpha + \sum_{j=1}^d g_j(x_j), \end{aligned}$$

and most people comfortable with generalizing **linear** logistic regression to **additive** logistic regression

# Ex VII: Neural Networks

- sigmoid function

$$\sigma(u) = \frac{e^u}{1 + e^u}$$

- hidden layer  $\ell = 1, 2, \dots, L-1$

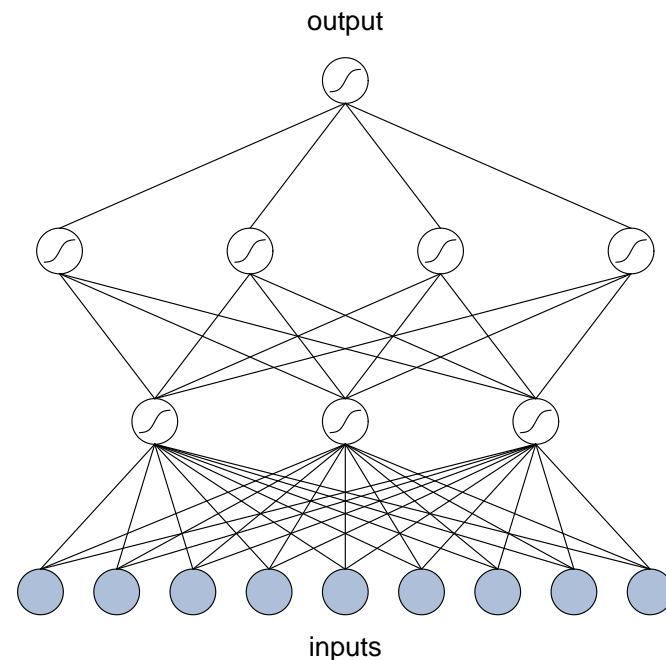
$$z_t^{(\ell)} = \sigma \left( \alpha_t^{(\ell)} + \sum_b w_{t,b}^{(\ell)} z_b^{(\ell-1)} \right)$$

- top layer  $L$

$$z_t^{(L)} = \mathbb{P}(y = t | \dots)$$

- bottom layer 0

$$z_b^{(0)} = x_b, \quad b = 1, 2, \dots, d$$



## Ex VIII: Nearest-Neighbor Classifier

- can also estimate  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$  by

$$\hat{\mathbb{P}}(y = k|\mathbf{x}) = \text{fraction} \{y_i = k : \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x})\},$$

where  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x})$  denotes a “neighborhood” around  $\mathbf{x}$

# Bayes Error

**Myth** If my misclassification error is not very close to zero, my classifier must not be very good.

**Myth** If I know the true model, my misclassification error must be zero.

**Truth** Even if we knew  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$  (or  $p_k(\mathbf{x}), \pi_k, \dots$ ) perfectly, we might still have considerable misclassification error — these errors are called the **Bayes error**.



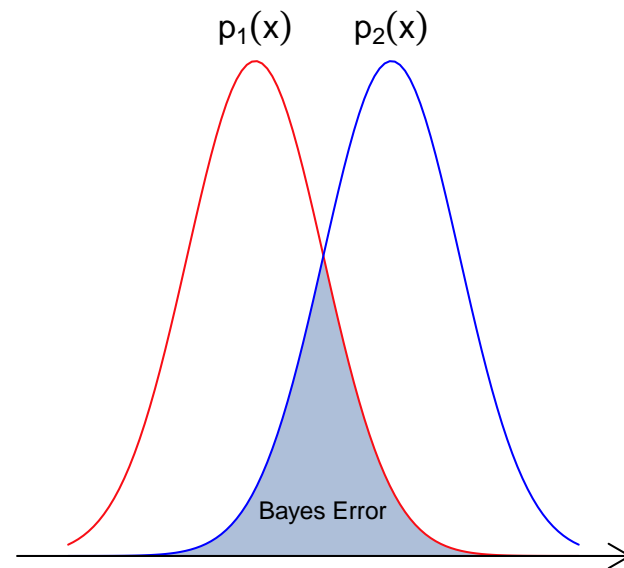
# Bayes Error

$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\pi_1 = \pi_0 = 1/2$$

$$p_1(x) \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma^2)$$

$$p_0(x) \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma^2)$$



**Exercise** How does the Bayes error change with  $\Delta \equiv |\mu_1 - \mu_0|$ , and with  $\sigma^2$ ?

**Question** Can we reduce the Bayes error?

# Summary

- key ideas:
  - regression; mean squared error;  $\mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$
  - bias-variance trade-off; curse of dimensionality
  - classification; mean 0-1 error;  $\mathbb{P}(y|\mathbf{x})$ ; Bayes error
- specific methods:
  - linear regression; nearest-neighbors; kernel regression
  - logistic regression; linear discriminant analysis
  - naïve Bayes; neural network
  - graphical LASSO
- didn't discuss:
  - actual estimation procedures

## Next ...

- course administration, logistics, etc