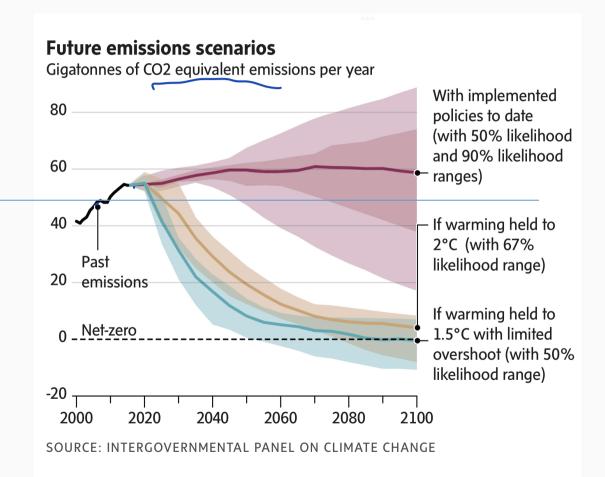
Mathematical Statistics II

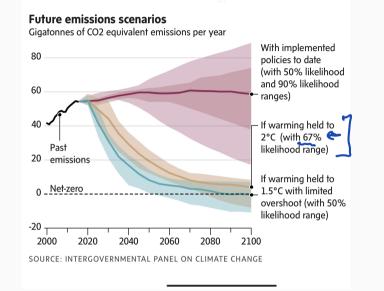
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Week 11

March 28 2023

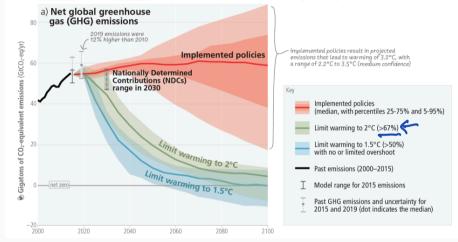


IPCC Report



Limiting warming to 1.5°C and 2°C involves rapid, deep and in most cases immediate greenhouse gas emission reductions

Net zero CO₂ and net zero GHG emissions can be achieved through strong reductions across all sectors



Today

[t,

- 1. Recap
- 2. Directed acyclic graphs
- 3. Aspects of classification

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Upcoming

• April 4 10.00 – 13.00 Math Stat II Project presentations

please submit slides (pdf) by April 3

April 11 9.30 – 12.30 Hydro Room 9016
 Informal discussion of large language models



- observational studies can provide some evidence towards causality
- but care must be taken re confounding variables Simpson's "paradox"
 if all confounding variables are adjusted for, we have stronger evidence of the causal effect of a treatment on outcome
 this requires an assumption of "no unmeasured confounding"

• Bradford-Hill guidelines for strengthening support for causality

in the absence of randomized treatment assignment



• one popular approach to causality is through the notion of counterfactuals

 $\mathcal{E}(C_1 - C_2)$

- the causal treatment effect is $\theta = Y(1) Y(0)$, the difference in outcome for an individual with X = 1 compared to her outcome with X = 0
- also called the causal risk difference
- since both outcomes cannot be observed, we must assume that in our data the units are "similar enough" that we can average over the treated and control to estimate θ

•
$$\alpha = E(Y | X = 1) - E(Y | X = 0)$$
 estimated by $\overline{Y}_1 - \overline{Y}_0$ association
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Z

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- causal risk difference $\theta = Y(1) Y(0)$
- causal risk difference as a function of an additional covariate Z

$$\theta(z) = E(Y(1) \mid Z = z) - E(Y(0) \mid Z = z) = E(C_1 \mid Z = z) - E(C_0 \mid Z = z)$$

• causal regression function $\begin{array}{c}
 1.v. \quad \overline{w} \quad a \quad dv_{S} \quad Th \\
 \hline \begin{array}{c}
 C(x) & \sim & \beta \\
 \hline \end{array} \quad \overline{E(Y|x)} \quad \theta(x) = E\{C(x)\} \\
 \hline \end{array} \quad v \quad x \quad v \quad x \quad f(x) = E(Y \mid X = x) \\
 \hline \end{array} \quad \text{Thm 16.4: If X assigned at random } \theta(x) = r(x)
\end{array}$

Thm 16.6: no unmeasured confounding continuous exposure *X*

CCOC, JIX 12

$$\theta(x) \neq \Lambda(x)$$
 unless

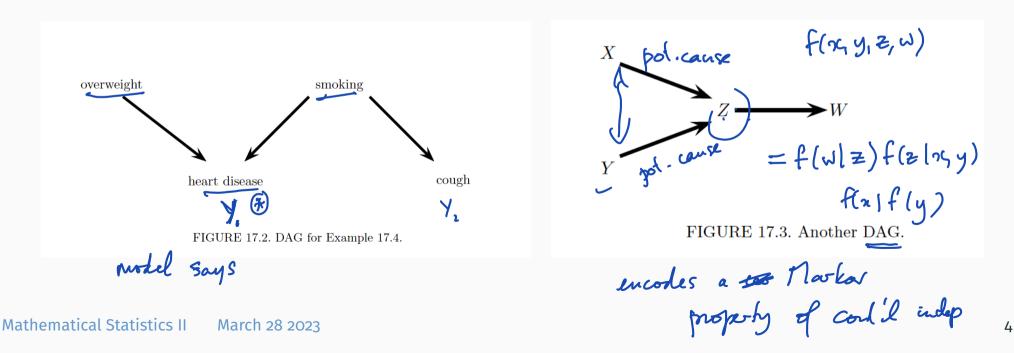
Directed graphs

• graphs can be useful for clarifying dependence relations among random variables

SM Markov random fields

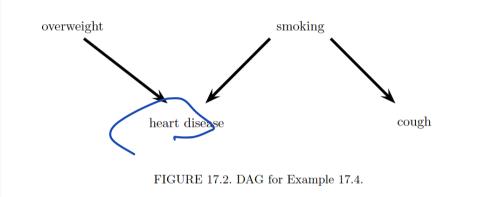
AoS 17; HR 6; SM 6.2

• a Directed Acyclic Graph has random variables on the vertices and edges joining random variables

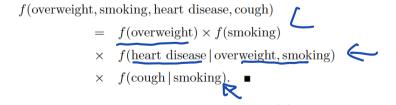


Directed graphs and conditional independence

 χ' S



17.4 Example. Figure 17.2 shows a DAG with four variables. The probability function for this example factors as



17.5 Example. For the DAG in Figure 17.3, $\mathbb{P} \in M(\mathcal{G})$ if and only if its probability function f has the form

Mathematical Statistics II March 28 2023 $f(x, y, z, w) = f(x)f(y)f(z \mid x, y)f(w \mid z)$.

Directed graphs and causality

- variables at parent nodes are potential causes for responses at child nodes
- probability distribution on a DAG represents causality if and only if the probability distribution is Markov wrt the DAG AoS 17.5; HR Ch 6
- DAGs can be used to represent confounders

 $f(y_t|y_{t-1}, \dots, y_i)$

 $= f(y_{\ell} | y_{\ell-r})$

Tasker chi

Classification

covariate space X ⊂ ℝ^d; prediction space Y = {0,1}
or Y = {1,...,K}

-... An

 $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$

• data $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n); \qquad X_i \in \mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d, \quad Y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$



AoS 22; ISLR 4

2

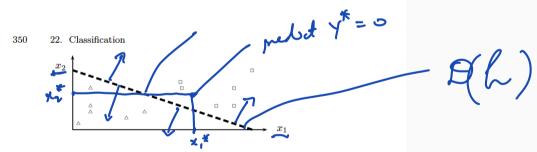


FIGURE 22.1. Two covariates and a linear decision boundary. \triangle means Y = 1. \Box means Y = 0. These two groups are perfectly separated by the linear decision boundary; you probably won't see real data like this.

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0-1 Loss function

• loss function for classifier *h*:

• empirical error rate

$$L(h) = \operatorname{pr}\{h(X) \neq Y\}$$

$$y = \{0, 1\}$$

 $h(x) = \{0\\1\}$

training error rate

8

• empirical error rate training error rate $\hat{L}_n(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{''} \mathbb{1}\{h(X_i) \neq Y_i\}$ • special case $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ $\hat{L}_n(h) =$ symmetric • Bayes theorem $pr(Y = 1 | X = x) = \frac{f_1(x)\pi}{f_1(x)\pi + f_0(x)(1 - \pi)}$

 $L(h) = \operatorname{pr}\{h(X) \neq Y\}$

0 - 1 Loss function

• loss function for classifier *h*:

 $P_{\Lambda}(Y_{z|} | X \in x, x \in dx) = \frac{f_{1}(x) dx \pi_{1}}{f_{1}(x) dx \pi_{1} \in f_{2}(n) dx \pi_{0}}$

AoS 22.2

 $T_{1}=(-\pi)$

8

Mathematical Statistics II March 28 2023

Bayes classifier



• Bayes theorem

$$pr(Y = 1 | X = x) = \frac{f_1(x)\pi}{f_1(x)\pi + f_0(x)(1 - \pi)} = r(x)^{t_0} = \frac{1}{2}$$
• Bayes classifier
• Bayes classifier
• $h^*(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & r(x) > 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1 & (\pi f_1(x) > (1 - \pi) f_0(x) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \frac{f_1(\pi)}{f_0(x)} > \frac{\pi}{f_0(x)} > \frac{\pi}{f_0(x)}$

$$R(\tilde{\Theta}, \Theta) = \underset{x \mid \Theta}{\mathsf{E} \{ L(\tilde{\Theta}(x), \Theta) \}}$$

$$L(\tilde{\Theta}(x), \Theta) = (\tilde{\Theta}(x) - \Theta)^{2}$$

$$E\{ \qquad \beta = \mathsf{E} \{ \qquad \beta = n \text{ish } f^{2} \}$$

Bayes with
$$\int \mathcal{P}(\hat{\sigma}, \sigma) \pi(\sigma) d\Theta$$

= $\int f(\hat{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}), \sigma) f(\mathbf{x}|\Theta| d\mathbf{x} \cdot \pi(\Theta) d\Theta$
= $\int \int L(\hat{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}), \sigma) \pi(\Theta|\mathbf{x}|) d\Theta d\mathbf{x}$
 $\widetilde{\sigma}$: $\int L(\hat{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}), \sigma) \pi(\Theta|\mathbf{x}|) d\Theta = E_{\Theta|\mathbf{x}} L(\hat{\Theta}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}), \Theta)$

• Bayes classifier:

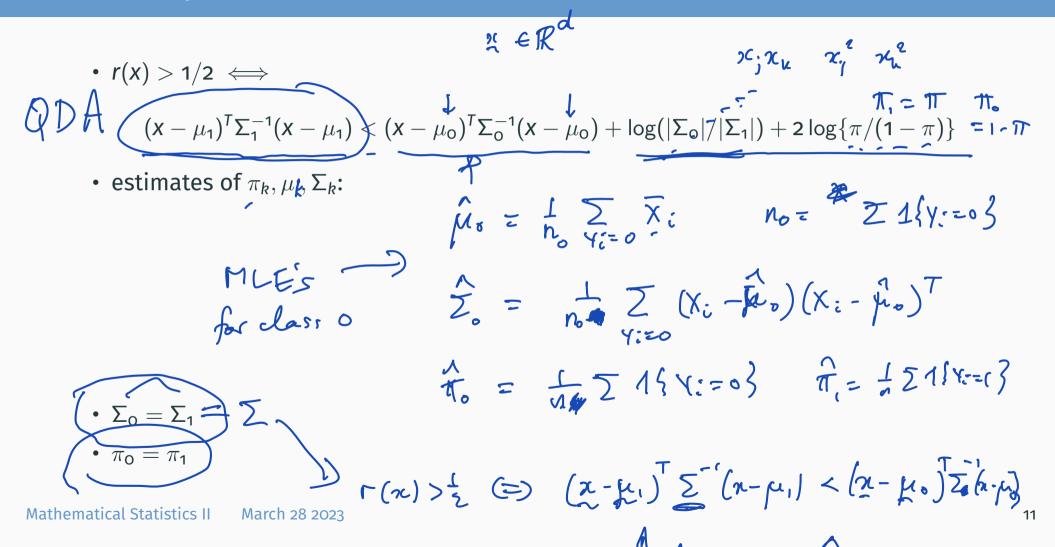
$$h^*(x) = 1\{r(x) > 1/2\}, \quad r(x) = \frac{f_1(x)\pi}{f_1(x)\pi + f_0(x)(1-\pi)}$$

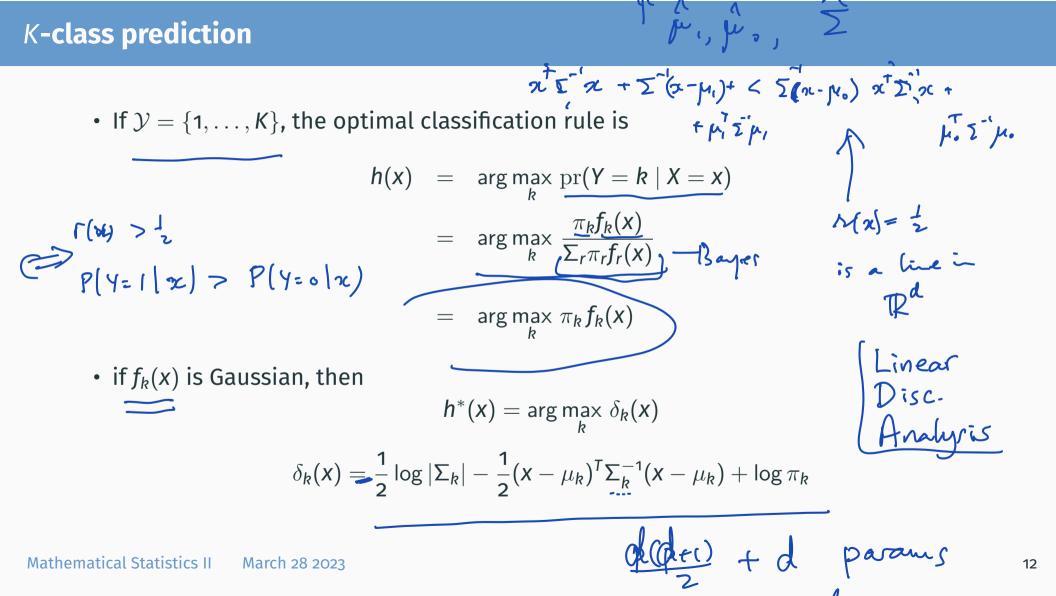
• multivariate normal

$$f_{k}(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_{k})^{T} \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x - \mu_{k})\} \qquad k = 0, 1$$

$$\cdot r(x) > 1/2 \iff \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} |\Sigma_{i}|^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_{i})^{T} \Sigma_{i}^{-1}(u - \mu_{i})^{T} \sum_{i}^{-1}(u - \mu_{i}$$

... Gaussian special case









• if $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ and $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1 = \Sigma$, and $\pi_1 = \pi_0 = 1/2$, then

Fisher's LDA

• if
$$\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$$
 and $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1 = \Sigma$, and $\pi_1 = \pi_0 = 1/2$, then
• define $w = S_W^{-1}(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_0)$, $S_W =$ posted cor · extracte
• estimated Bayes classifier is
 $h^*(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & w^T x > m \\ 1 & w^T x < m \end{cases} \qquad m = \frac{1}{2}(\bar{X}_0 + \bar{X}_1)$
• $w = \arg \max_w \frac{w^T S_B w}{w^T S_W w}$ is world
• $w^T x \in \mathbb{R}$ maximizes between group variation, relative to within group variation

AoS 22.3

LDA

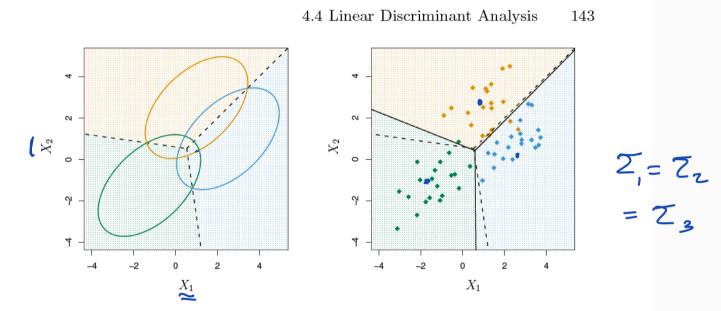


FIGURE 4.6. An example with three classes. The observations from each class are drawn from a multivariate Gaussian distribution with p = 2, with a class-specific mean vector and a common covariance matrix. Left: Ellipses that contain 95 % of the probability for each of the three classes are shown. The dashed lines are the Bayes decision boundaries. Right: 20 observations were generated from each class, and the corresponding LDA decision boundaries are indicated using solid black lines. The Bayes decision boundaries are once again shown as dashed lines. Ch 28 2023

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Error rates



- confusion matrix classified as 0 classified as 1 y = 0 277 y = 1 116 • misclassification rate (25 + 116)/(25 + 116 + 277 + 44) = 0.31 $(x) \ge \frac{1}{2}$
- see ISLR §4.4 for discussion of changing cut-off from 1/2 to other thresholds
- changing the loss function to be asymmetric

QDA example





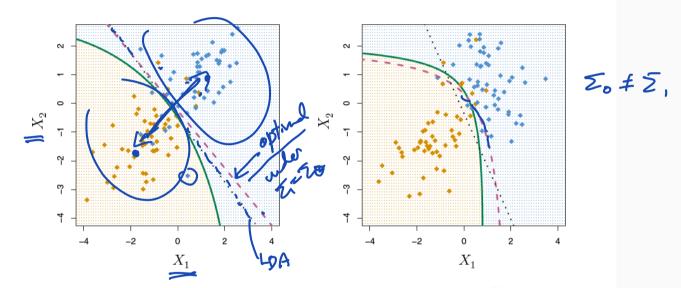


FIGURE 4.9. Left: The Bayes (purple dashed), LDA (black dotted), and QDA (green solid) decision boundaries for a two-class problem with $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$.) The shading indicates the QDA decision rule. Since the Bayes decision boundary is linear, it is more accurately approximated by LDA than by QDA. Right: Details are as given in the left-hand panel, except that $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$. Since the Bayes decision boundary is non-linear, it is more accurately approximated by QDA than by LDA.

Logistic regression

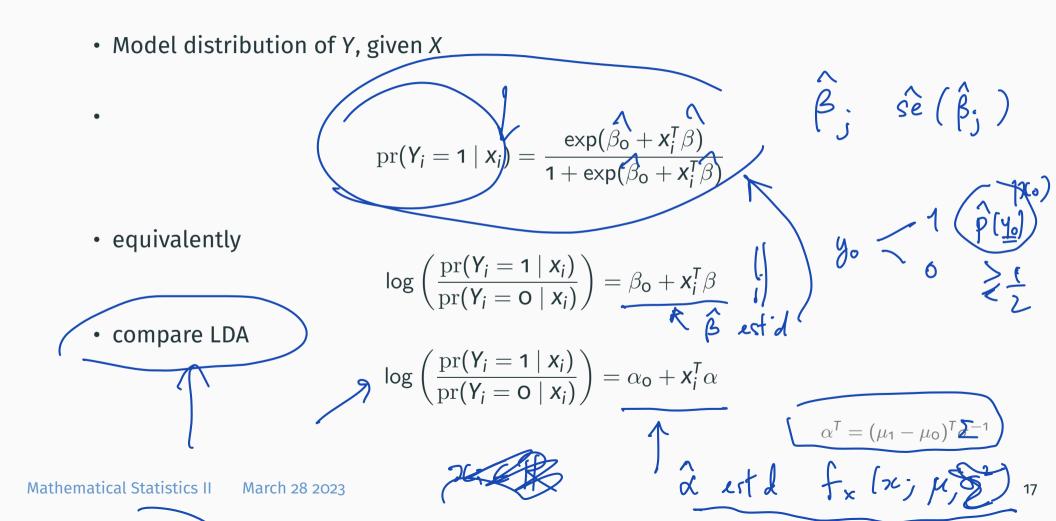
•

• Model distribution of *Y*, given *X*

$$\operatorname{pr}(\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{1} \mid \mathbf{X}_i) = \frac{\exp(\beta_{\mathsf{o}} + \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathsf{T}}\beta)}{\mathbf{1} + \exp(\beta_{\mathsf{o}} + \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathsf{T}}\beta)}$$

Logistic regression

AoS 22.5



(22.7)

Naive Bayes

.

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$$h(\mathbf{x}) = rg\max_k \hat{\pi}_k \hat{f}_k(\mathbf{x})$$

 $\hat{\pi}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum \mathbf{1}\{\mathbf{Y}_i = k\}$

$$\hat{f}_k(x) = \prod_{j=1}^d \hat{f}_{kj}(x)$$

classifier

• K-class again:

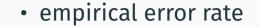
• pretend
$$X_j$$
 are independent $j = 1, \ldots, d$

• one-dim density estimates from class *k*:

• we could estimate
$$f_k(x)$$
 instead of assuming Gaussian, but $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$h(x) = \arg\max_{k} \operatorname{pr}(Y = k \mid X = x) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} f_{k}(x) \approx \pi_{k} f_{k}(x)$$

Error rates



misclassification rate

training set error

• increasing dimension of X_i decreases training error

e.g. adding variables in logistic regression

- true error rate
- test error rate
- average test error rate

$$F_{L}(h) = \operatorname{pr}\{h(X) \neq Y\} \qquad f_{X,Y}(x,y)$$

$$L(\hat{h}) = \operatorname{pr}\{\hat{h}(X_{0}) \neq Y_{0} \mid T\} \qquad (X_{0}, Y_{0} \mid X_{n} \mid Y_{n})$$

$$E_{T}\{L(\hat{h})\} \qquad f_{rainey} \qquad Q$$

 $\hat{L}_n(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{h(X_i) \neq y_i\}$

... Error rates

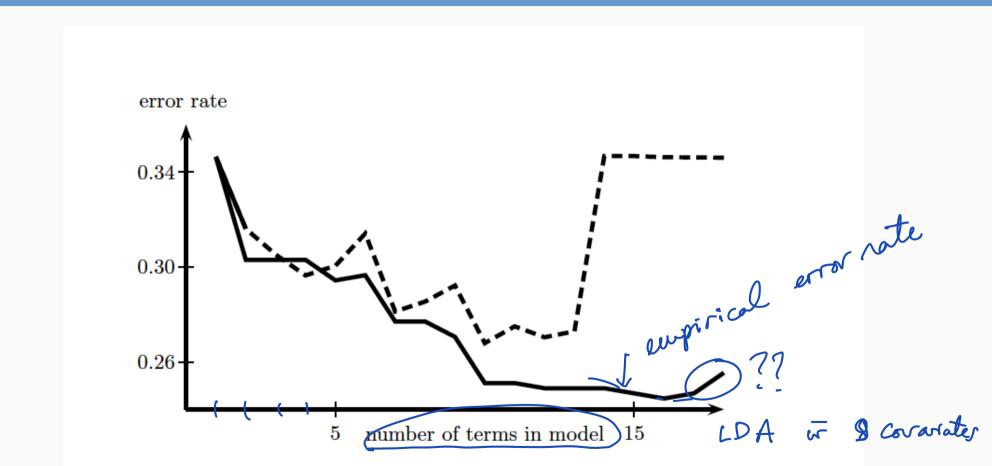


FIGURE 22.5. The solid line is the observed error rate and dashed line is the Mathematical Statistic stores-validation estimate of true error rate.

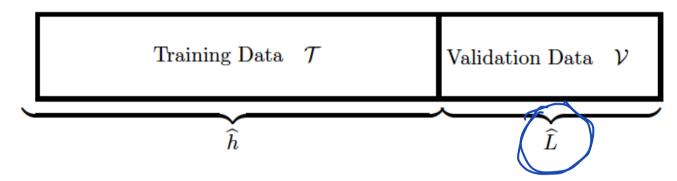
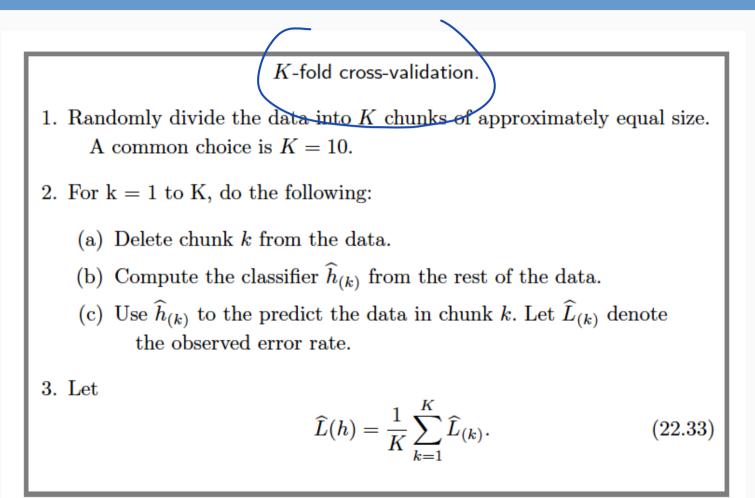


FIGURE 22.6. Cross-validation. The data are divided into two groups: the training data and the validation data. The training data are used to produce an estimated classifier \hat{h} . Then, \hat{h} is applied to the validation data to obtain an estimate \hat{L} of the error rate of \hat{h} .

• estimate test error rate with

$$\hat{L}_m(h) rac{1}{m} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} \mathbb{1}\{\hat{h}(X_i) \neq Y_i\}$$

Cross-validation



Error rates



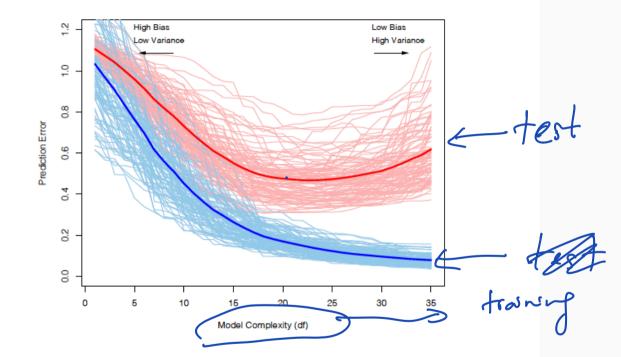


FIGURE 7.1. Behavior of test sample and training sample error as the model complexity is varied. The light blue curves show the training error $\overline{\text{err}}$, while the light red curves show the conditional test error Err_T for 100 training sets of size 50 each, as the model complexity is increased. The solid curves show the expected test error Err and the expected training error $\text{E}[\overline{\text{err}}]$.

Other classification methods

- KNN: *K* nearest neighbours
- choose a distance measure on $\mathcal X$
- estimate $pr(Y_1 | x)$ by averaging over "nearest neighbours" of x

2. Statistical Learning

40

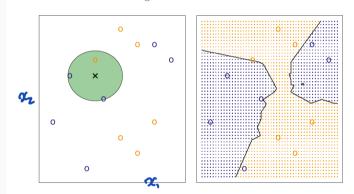


FIGURE 2.14. The KNN approach, using K = 3, is illustrated in a simple situation with six blue observations and six orange observations. Left: a test observation at which a predicted class label is desired is shown as a black cross. The three closest points to the test observation are identified, and it is predicted that the test observation belongs to the most commonly-occurring class, in this case blue. Right: The KNN decision boundary for this example is shown in black. The blue grid indicates the region in which a test observation will be assigned to the blue class, and the orange grid indicates the region in which it will be assigned to the orange class.

ISLR 2.2

AoS 22.7,9,12; ISLR 2.2

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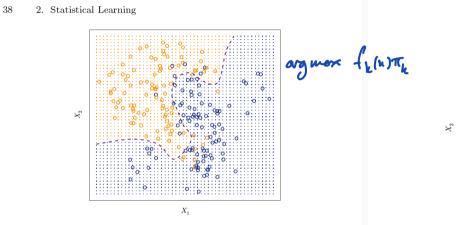


FIGURE 2.13. A simulated data set consisting of 100 observations in each of two groups, indicated in blue and in orange. The purple dashed line represents the Bayes decision boundary. The orange background grid indicates the region in which a test observation will be assigned to the orange class, and the blue background grid indicates the region in which a test observation will be assigned to the blue class.

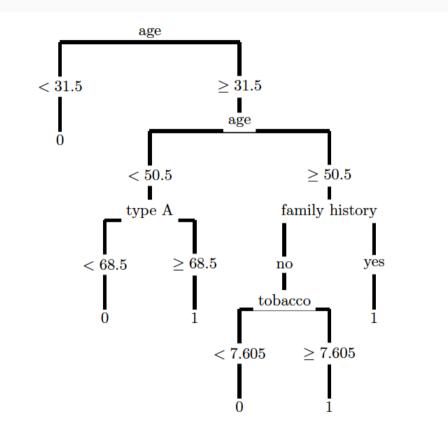
 X_1 FIGURE 2.15. The black curve indicates the KNN decision boundary on the data from Figure 2.13, using K = 10. The Bayes decision boundary is shown as a purple dashed line. The KNN and Bayes decision boundaries are very similar.

.0.

KNN: K=10

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Classification trees



Mathematical Statistics II MarcFIGU2022.7. Smaller classification tree with size chosen by cross-validation.

Other classification methods

- tree-based methods: bagging, boosting, random forests
- support vector machines; kernelized SVMs
- smoothing logistic regression
- neural networks
- double-descent in deep learning

ISLR 9; ESLII 12

ISLR 8; ELSII 10

ISLR 7.7.2

ELSII 13

link