Handling missing values: model-based approaches (continued)



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MSc Data Science

Recap on missing values

Mathematical framework

Statistical models of incomplete data

Recap on missing values Mathematical framework

Statistical models of incomplete data

Example: heath records

		Center	Acciden	t Age	Sex	Weight	Height	BM1	E BP	SBP	
1		Beaujon	Fall	54	m	85	NR	NR	180	110	
2		Lille	Other	33	m	80	1.8	24.69	130	62	
3	Pitie	Salpetriere	Gun	26	m	NR	NR	NR	131	62	
4		Beaujon	AVP moto	63	m	80	1.8	24.69	145	89	
6	Pitie	Salpetriere	AVP bicycle	33	m	75	NR	NR	104	86	
7	Pitie	Salpetriere	AVP pedestria	n 30	W	NR	NR	NR	107	66	
9		HEGP	White weapon	n 16	m	98	1.92	26.58	118	54	
10		Toulon	White weapon	20	m	NR	NR	NR	124	73	
	Sp02	Temperature	Lactates Hb	Glas	gow 1	ransfu	sion				
1	97	35.6	<na> 12.7</na>		12		yes				
2	100	36.5	4.8 11.1		15		no				
3	100	36	3.9 11.4		3		no				
4	100	36.7	1.66 13		15		yes				
6	100	36	NM 14.4		15		no				
7	100	36.6	NM 14.3		15		yes				
9	100	37.5	13 15.9		15		yes				
10	100	36.9	NM 13.7		15		no				

Figure: Traumabase data set (figure from Julie Josse).

Example: heath records

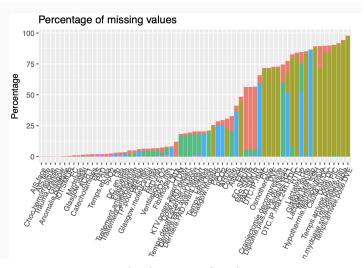


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The need for some assumptions

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Example 1 (bad thermometer): we have a thermometer that breaks when the temperature is above 39 degrees Celsius. Then, it is impossible to learn the distribution of temperatures above 39 degrees, even given a very large data set!

When learning with missing values, we need to make strong assumptions on the missingness process. We will see some of these assumptions today, in particular the ones called missing completely at random (MCAR) and missing at random (MAR).

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This explains why model-based approaches are a natural way to deal with missing values.

A mathematical framework for incomplete data

We assume that there exists a complete data matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$. We do not observe \mathbf{X} , and only have access to an incomplete version $\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ where some values have been replaced by NAs. The values of the observed data matrix \mathbf{Z} belong to $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\text{NA}\}$.

We also define a binary matrix $\mathbf{M} \in \{0,1\}^{n \times d}$ whose nonzero entries correspond to missing values.

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 9 \\ 2 & 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathtt{NA} & 3 & \mathtt{NA} \\ 2 & \mathtt{NA} & \mathtt{NA} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Keep in mind that \mathbf{X} is hidden: we only have access to \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{Z} , and we will need to build our models and algorithms accordingly.

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Supervised vs unsupervised

To keep things simple, we are going to consider unsupervised learning of continuous data $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$.

If you want to look at the supervised case, pretty much everything we're going to see today is still valid if you replace \boldsymbol{X} by $(\boldsymbol{X},\boldsymbol{Y})$. Of course, a few things will need to be adapted.

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- **(X, M)** lives in the easier-to-deal-with space $\mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \times \{0,1\}^{n \times p}$, and in the rest of the course, we learned how to create statistical models for data that lives in this kind of space,
- **a** joint model p(X, M) will imply a model p(Z), so we are still indirectly modelling Z.

Building a joint model p(X, M)

We will call p(X, M) a joint model, because it jointly models the features X and the missingness pattern M. Part of the features are not observed so this will be a latent-variable model (the latent variables being the missing values).

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Today, we will focus on models where the ordering of the observations does not matter, so we will assume that $(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{m}_1), ..., (\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{m}_n)$ (the rows of \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{M}), are independent and identically distributed samples from a distribution $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m})$. This means that the model can be written

$$p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{M}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{m}_i).$$

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In that context, what we "just" need to specify is $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m})$, a distribution over $\mathbb{R}^d \times \{0,1\}^d$. Now, we will look at the assumptions we mentioned in the beginning of the lecture.

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Building a joint model $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m})$

Using the product rule from probability theory, any model can be decomposed as

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Now, what's left is to specify $p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x})$. In general, this is very hard, and we usually need to have strong knowledge about the problem at hand. Indeed, let us go back to the election example: we would need to know which voters are more likely not to respond to model $p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x})$ properly (and knowing this is hard!). Suprisingly, under some suitable assumptions, it is actually possible to not model $p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x})$ at all, similarly to when we did not model $p(\mathbf{x})$ in logistic regression.

If we want to ignore modelling $p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x})$ like we ignored p(x) in logistic regression, we need to write down the likelihood. What is the likelihood of incomplete data?

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$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}) = p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss})p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}).$$

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We want to simplify

$$p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{m}) = \int p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}) p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}) d\mathbf{x}^{miss},$$

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A first way to do this is to assume that \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{x} are actually independent. This is called the missing completely at random (MCAR) assumption. In that case,

$$p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs},\mathbf{x}^{miss})=p(\mathbf{m}),$$

and we can write

$$p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{m}) = p(\mathbf{m}) \int p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}) d\mathbf{x}^{miss} = p(\mathbf{m})p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}).$$

Let's assume that we have chose a parametric model $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ for the features. Under the MCAR assumption, the likelihood of the data is

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{obs}, \mathbf{m}_{i}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(\mathbf{m}_{i}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{obs})$$
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and since the red term does not depend on θ , maximising $\ell(\theta)$ is equivalent to maximising

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{obs}),$$

which is the likelihood of the observed features only.

Going beyond MCAR

Under the quite strong MCAR assumption, we just have to maximise

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i^{obs}),$$

to find a good value for θ . What happens when the MCAR assumtion is violated? Kinda surprisingly, nothing changes under a much weaker assumption called missing at random (MAR).

We want to simplify

$$p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{m}) = \int p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}) p(\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}) d\mathbf{x}^{miss},$$

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Missing at random (MAR) assume that

$$p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs},\mathbf{x}^{miss}) = p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs}),$$

which means that ${\bf m}$ and ${\bf x}^{miss}$ are independent given the observed data ${\bf x}^{obs}$.

What happens under MAR with $p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs}, \mathbf{x}^{miss}) = p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{x}^{obs})$?

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which is the likelihood of the observed features only.

How to compute $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{obs})$ for a Gaussian?

Partitioned Gaussians

Given a joint Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ with $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\equiv\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ and

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= egin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \ \mathbf{x}_b \end{pmatrix}, & egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\mu} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\mu}_a \ oldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{pmatrix} \ oldsymbol{\Sigma} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}, & oldsymbol{\Lambda} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \ oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Conditional distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a|\mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1})$$
$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b).$$

Marginal distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a | \boldsymbol{\mu}_a, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa}).$$