

SDS 385: Stat Models for Big Data

Lecture 11: Bootstrap and subsampling

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- So far we have talked about estimation, and ways to estimate statistical quantities quickly
- But often, you are interested in quantifying the variability of your estimate
- You can do this using the variance of your estimate or by producing a confidence interval
- What is a confidence interval?

Confidence Interval

- Data $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} P$
- Some estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of parameter of interest θ .
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- Then you will just return:

$$P\left(\hat{\theta} - \kappa_{1-\alpha}\hat{\sigma} \leq \theta \leq \hat{\theta} - \kappa_{\alpha}\hat{\sigma}\right) \geq 1 - 2\alpha,$$

where $\kappa_{\alpha}, \kappa_{1-\alpha}$ are the quantiles of $(\hat{\theta} - \theta)/\hat{\sigma}$

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- The distribution of $(\hat{\theta} - \theta)/\hat{\sigma}$ depends on P .
- Often this distribution is normal, but with unknown parameters.

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- The trouble is we don't know P .
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- What will we do if we did know P ?
- Draw B datasets of size n from P
- For the i^{th} dataset, calculate $\hat{\theta}^{(i)}$
- Now get the distribution of $\hat{\theta}^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{\theta}^{(B)}$ and get the C.I.

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- Drawing n points from this distribution boils down to?
- Sampling with replacement!

Bootstrap: plug in principle

True model	Bootstrapped model
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$\hat{\theta}$	$\hat{\theta}^*$
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$\hat{\sigma}$	$\hat{\sigma}^*$
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$\frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\hat{\sigma}}$	$\frac{\hat{\theta}^* - \hat{\theta}}{\hat{\sigma}^*}$
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Empirical bootstrap

How do you estimate P ?

Empirical Bootstrap $\hat{P} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \delta(x_i)$

Generate m samples $(X_1^*, \dots, X_n^*)^{(j)}$, $j = 1 : m$.

Each giving a $(\hat{\theta}^*, \hat{\sigma}^*)$ pair.

Compute the κ_α quantile

of the distribution of $\frac{\hat{\theta}^* - \hat{\theta}}{\hat{\sigma}^*}$

Parametric bootstrap $\hat{P} = P_{\hat{\theta}}$

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Lets try the simplest setting with $\theta = \mu := E[X_1]$

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$$\begin{aligned} E[\bar{X}^* | X_1, \dots, X_n] &= E \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i^* | X_1, \dots, X_n \right] \\ &= E[X_1^* | X_1, \dots, X_n] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \times \frac{1}{n} = \bar{X} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}[\bar{X}^* | X_1, \dots, X_n] &= \text{var} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^* | X_1, \dots, X_n \right] \\&= \frac{1}{n} \text{var} [X_1^* | X_1, \dots, X_n] \\&= \frac{1}{n} \left(E[(X_1^*)^2 | X_1, \dots, X_n] - \bar{X}^2 \right) \\&= \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i^2 - \bar{X}^2 \right)}_{\text{Sample Variance}}\end{aligned}$$

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- This makes sense, since the sample variance converges to the true variance, and we all know that the variance of \bar{X} is exactly σ^2/n

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- Its a normal, of course, like a lot of other estimators.
- With variance $\frac{1}{4nf(\tilde{\mu})^2}$, where $\tilde{\mu}$ is the population median and f is the density of P
- If we don't know P , we can't evaluate the above.

Does it always work?

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- What is the true limiting distribution?

$$P\left(\frac{n(\theta - X_{(n)})}{\theta} > x\right) = P\left(X_{(n)} \leq \theta(1 - x/n)\right) = (1 - x/n)^n \rightarrow e^{-x}$$

- The bootstrapped limiting distribution

$$P\left(\frac{n(X_{(n)} - X_{(n)}^*)}{X_{(n)}} = 0\right) = P(X_{(n)}^* = X_{(n)}) = (1 - (1 - 1/n)^n) \rightarrow 1 - 1/e$$

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- Rule of thumb: when the asymptotic distribution is normal.
- Another con is it will take forever if n is large, even if you parallelize
- What do you do when its not?

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- What to do? You will need to analytically correct the variability.

Subsampling - pros and cons

Pros

- Very fast, specially you have a super-linear estimation algorithm
- Works for statistics which bootstrap doesnt work for, i.e. requires far less conditions, as long as b grows to infinity with n , but at a slower rate.

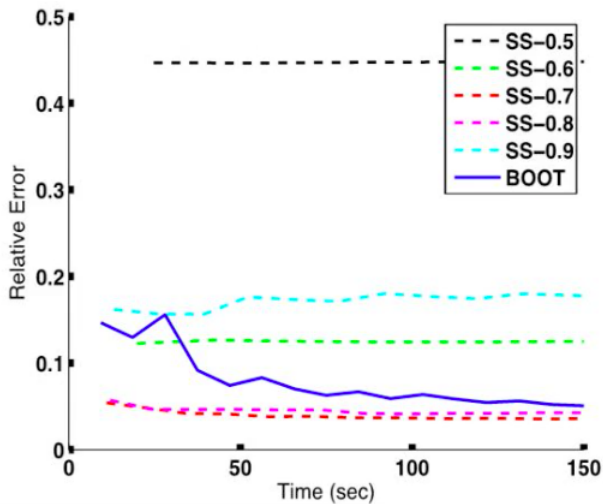
Cons

- Very sensitive to the choice of b (next two slides)
- You need to know the scaling factor to correct for using $b < n$

Subsampling - cons [See “Bag of little Bootstraps” paper]

- Multivariate linear regression with $d = 100$ and $n = 50,000$ on synthetic data.
- x coordinates sampled independently from StudentT(3).
- $y = w^T x + \varepsilon$, where w in \mathbb{R}^d is a fixed weight vector and ε is Gaussian noise.
- Estimate $\theta_n = w_n$ in \mathbb{R}^d via least squares.
- Compute a marginal confidence interval for each component of w_n and assess accuracy via relative mean (across components) absolute deviation from true confidence interval size.
- For subsampling, use $b(n) = n^\gamma$ for various values of γ .
- Similar results obtained with Normal and Gamma data generating distributions, as well as if estimate a misspecified model.

Subsampling - cons



Bag of little bootstraps

- In between subsampling and bootstrap
- Draw size m w/o replacement samples from the data
- Draw size n with replacement samples from each subsample

- Three main parts+ ϵ
- Large scale optimization:
 - Gradient descent, Newton Raphson
 - Stochastic gradient descent, proximal methods, subgradients, dual coordinate ascent, etc.

Summary

- Three main parts $+\epsilon$
- Large scale optimization:
 - Momentum methods:
 - SGD has trouble navigating ravines, i.e. areas where the surface curves much more steeply in one dimension than in another, which are common around local optima.
 - Momentum helps accelerate SGD in the correct direction by damping oscillation
 - It does this by adding a fraction of the update vector of the past time step to the current update vector:

Summary

- Three main parts
- Large scale optimization:
 - Adaptive methods:
 - John Duchi, Elad Hazan, Yoram Singer. "Adaptive Subgradient Methods for Online Learning and Stochastic Optimization." Journal of Machine Learning Research 2011
 - Adaptively learn learning rates for different coordinates – slow learning rates for frequent features, and large ones for infrequent features
 - Unfortunately the squared gradients keep accumulating and eventually learning rate goes to zero.
 - Diederik, Kingma; Ba, Jimmy (2014), "Adam: a Method for Stochastic Optimization"
 - ADAM uses exponentially decaying average of past squared gradients, and also does bias correction by estimating moments.

Summary

- Large scale optimization:
 - Stochastic gradient descent
 - Rie Johnson and Tong Zhang. Accelerating stochastic gradient descent using predictive variance reduction. In Advances in neural information processing systems, pages 315–323, 2013
 - Main point: Talks about dual coordinate ascent and shows how this leads to variance reduction

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 - Main point: Talks about dual coordinate ascent and shows how this leads to variance reduction
 - Wilson et al., The Marginal Value of Adaptive Gradient Methods in Machine Learning (NeurIPS 2017)
 - Talks about pitfalls of Adaptive methods using a simple overparameterized problem
 - Feng Niu, Benjamin Recht, Christopher Re, Stephen J. Wright, Hogwild!: A Lock-Free Approach to Parallelizing Stochastic Gradient Descent”, NIPS 2011.
 - Asynchronous SGD without locks—use the sparsity in data

- Nearest neighbor methods: locality sensitive hashing, random projections and Johnson-Lindenstrauss, tree structures
 - Random Features for Large-Scale Kernel Machines, Ali Rahimi, Ben Recht, NIPS 2007
 - Random hash functions to project data to a low dimensional space so that the inner products of the transformed data are approximately equal to those in the feature space of a kernel.
 - Weinberger, Kilian, et al. "Feature hashing for large scale multitask learning." ICML, 2009.
 - Random projection type hash functions to bring high dimensional data down to lower dimensional space while not affecting the dot products (which are important for a various number of tasks).

Summary

- PCA, Spectral clustering
- Semisupervised learning, Pagerank, connection using random walks
- Power method for eigenvectors
- Networks: blockmodels, mixed membership models, connections to spectral clustering
- Topic models: connection to mixed membership models and corner finding algorithms
- Bootstrap and subsampling