#### Statistical Learning

Week 2 - Multidimensional Data (II)

Pedro Galeano
Department of Statistics
UC3M-BS Institute on Financial Big Data
Universidad Carlos III de Madrid
pedro.galeano@uc3m.es

Academic Year 2017/2018

Master in Big Data Analytics

uc3m Universidad Carlos III de Madrid

2 Standard descriptive measures for multivariate data sets

3 Multidimensional distributions and inference

4 Important facts about correlations in big data sets

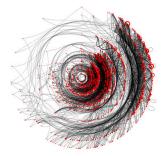
2 Standard descriptive measures for multivariate data sets

3 Multidimensional distributions and inference

4 Important facts about correlations in big data sets

- Graphical displays: Tools that help to understand better the contents of the data sets and to find important features.
- Important: Graphics strongly depends on the data structure.
- Examples: See the next slide.
- See course: Network analysis and data visualization.
- Here: We focus on informative plots for multidimensional data sets in a broad sense.





- Plots for a single qualitative variable:
  - Barplots and piecharts: Usual plots for single qualitative variables.
  - ► Goal: Show the absolute frequencies of the observed values of the variables.
  - Consequently: Show the proportions of data in each defined category.
  - Problem: When the number of classes is very large, it is recommendable to join classes.
- Plots for two qualitative variables:
  - Joint barplots: These are barplots that show the proportions of values of two qualitative variables.

#### • Week 2.R script:

- Barplots and piecharts: Variable spam in the spam data set and variable DMEDUC in the births2006 data set.
- Joint barplot: For the variables DMEDUC and SEX in the births2006 data set.

- Plots for a single quantitative variable:
  - Barplots: Also used for discrete variables, although if the number of different values is very large, it is sometimes advisable to use some of the plots described below.
  - Boxplots: Simple univariate devices that detects outliers variable by variable and that can compare distributions of the data among different groups.
  - Histograms and kernel densities: Basic techniques to estimate density functions of continuous variables, thus providing a quick insight into the shape of the distribution of the data.

- Week 2.R script:
  - ▶ Barplot: Variable capitalLong in the spam data set.

- Boxplots: Graphical representation of five statistics of the variable:
  - ▶ The sample minimum,  $x_{(1)}$ : The minimum observed value of the variable.
  - ► The sample lower quartile, Q<sub>L</sub>: The value that separates the smallest 25% observed values of the variable from the largest 75%.
  - ► The sample median, *M*: The value that separates the smallest 50% observed values of the variable from the largest 50%.
  - ► The sample upper quartile, Q<sub>U</sub>: The value that separates the smallest 75% observed values of the variable from the largest 25%.
  - ▶ The sample maximum,  $x_{(n)}$ : The minimum observed value of the variable.
- Usefulness: See the location, spread, skewness, tail length and outliers.

#### Summary of boxplot construction:

- ① Draw a box with borders at  $Q_L$  and  $Q_U$  (i.e., 50% of the data are in this box).
- 2 Draw the sample median as a solid line.
- **②** Draw whiskers from each end of the box to the most remote point that is not an outlier (data below  $Q_L 1.5 \times (Q_U Q_L)$ ) and data over  $Q_U + 1.5 \times (Q_U Q_L)$ ).
- Show outliers with special characters.

#### • Week 2.R script:

- Boxplots: Second gene in the NCI60 data set.
- Boxplot: Variable capitalAve in the spam data set.
- Boxplot: Logarithm of the variable capitalAve in the spam data set.
- Boxplot: Logarithm of the variable capitalAve in the spam data set in terms of the variable spam.

- Histograms: Estimates of the density function of the random variable.
  - Idea: Represent locally the density of the variable by counting the number of observations in a sequence of consecutive bins.
  - ► Then: The total area of histogram bars is normalised to unity (again, they are density estimates).

#### • Week 2.R script:

- Histograms: Second gene in the NCI60 data set.
- ► Histogram: Variable capitalAve in the spam data set.
- ► Histogram: Logarithm of the variable capitalAve in the spam data set.
- Histogram: Logarithm of the variable capitalAve in the spam data set in terms of the variable spam.

- Kernal densities: Smooth the histogram.
  - ▶ Idea: Replace the box in the histogram with a smooth function.
  - ► General form of a kernel density:

$$\widehat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right)$$

where  $K(\cdot)$  is a kernel function and h is called the bandwidth.

► Gaussian kernel:  $K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{u^2}{2}\right)$  leads to:

$$\widehat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-x_i)^2}{2h^2}\right)$$

#### • Week 2.R script:

- Kernel density: The second gene in the NCI60 data set.
- Kernel density: Variable capitalAve in the spam data set.
- ► Kernel density: Logarithm of the variable capitalAve in the spam data set.
- Kernel density: Logarithm of the variable capitalAve in the spam data set in terms of the variable spam.

- Plots for several quantitative variables:
  - Scatterplots: Bivariate plots of one variable against another that help us to understand the relationship among the two variables and allow for the detection of groups and outliers.
  - ► 3-D scatterplots: Three-variate plots against each other.
  - Scatterplot matrix: Draw all possible two-dimensional scatterplots for the variables allowing for building knowledge about dependencies and structures.
  - ► Parallel coordinate plots: Useful to detect outliers and/or groups.
- Dimensionality problem: Any of the previous plots have problems when we have many variables to plot.
- Suggestion: Dimension reduction techniques.

- Week 2.R script:
  - Scatterplot: Income and Rating in the Credit data set.
  - Three dimensional scatterplot: Income, Limit and Rating in the Credit data set.
  - ▶ Scatterplot matrix: Quantitative variables in the Credit data set.

- Parallel Coordinates Plots (PCP):
  - Idea: PCP draws coordinates in parallel axes and connects them with straight lines.
  - Variables: Drawn into the horizontal axis.
  - Values of the variables: Mapped onto the vertical axis.
  - Sensitive to the order of the variables: Certain trends in the data can be shown more clearly in one ordering than in another.

- Week 2.R script:
  - ▶ Parallel Coordinates Plots: Quantitative variables in the Credit data set.

2 Standard descriptive measures for multivariate data sets

3 Multidimensional distributions and inference

4 Important facts about correlations in big data sets

- Simple graphical devices: Help to understand the structure and dependency of multidimensional data sets.
- However: Many graphical tools are extremely useful in a modelling step but do not give the full picture of the data set.
- Why?: Graphical tools capture only certain dimensions of the data and do not concentrate on those dimensions or parts of the data under analysis that carry the maximum structural information.
- Topic 2: Will present powerful tools for reducing the dimension of a data set for doing this.
- As a starting point: Use simple and basic tools to describe dependency.
- In the following of this topic: Assume that the data matrix only contains quantitative variables or binary variables (maybe).

- Goal: Measure the center of the observations of the variable  $x_i$ .
- Sample mean of  $x_i$  in X:

$$\overline{x}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij}$$

- Goal: Measure the center of the observations of the data matrix X.
- Sample mean vector of X:

$$\overline{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{X}_1 \\ \overline{X}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \overline{X}_p \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} X' 1_n$$

where  $1_n = (1, 1, \dots, 1)'$  is the  $n \times 1$  vector of 1's.

- Week 2.R script:
  - ▶ Sample mean vector: Balance and income in the Default data set.

- Goal: Measure the dispersion of the observations of  $x_i$  with respect to  $\overline{x}_i$ .
- Sample variance of  $x_i$  in X:

$$s_j^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{ij} - \overline{x}_j)^2$$

- Sample standard deviation of  $x_j$  in X: Square root of  $s_j^2$ , denoted by  $s_j$ .
- Thus:  $s_i$  has the same unit of measurement than the variable  $x_i$ .

- Goal: Measure the linear dependency between the observations of  $x_j$  and  $x_k$  in X.
- Sample covariance of  $x_i$  and  $x_k$  in X:

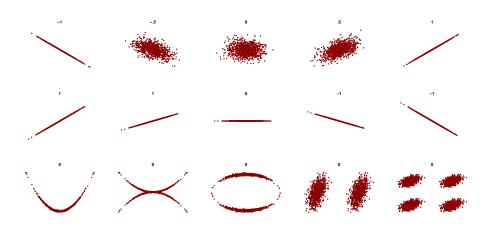
$$s_{jk} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \overline{x}_j) (x_{ik} - \overline{x}_k)$$

- Importantly:  $s_{jk}$  depends on the measurement units of  $x_j$  and  $x_k$ , so it is usually very difficult to interpret.
- Solution: Standardize the variables first (i.e., subtract the sample mean and divide by the sample standard deviation).
- Sample correlation coefficient of  $x_i$  and  $x_k$  in X:

$$r_{jk} = \frac{s_{jk}}{s_j s_k}$$



- Interpretation: Note that  $|r_{jk}| \le 1$  such that:
  - ▶ The closer  $r_{jk}$  to 1, the more positive linearly dependent the observations of  $x_j$  and  $x_k$ .
  - ▶ The closer  $r_{jk}$  to -1, the more negative linearly dependent the observations of  $x_i$  and  $x_k$ .
  - ▶ The closer  $r_{jk}$  to 0, the less linearly dependency between the observations of  $x_j$  and  $x_k$ .
- In particular: If  $r_{jk} = 0$ , we say that the observations of  $x_j$  and  $x_k$  are uncorrelated.
- Important: Understand properly the correlation coefficient.
- Question: What is the sample correlation coefficient between a quantitative variable and a binary variable?



- Week 2.R script:
  - ► Correlation coefficient: Income and student in the Default data set.

- Centered data matrix:  $\widetilde{X} = X 1_n \overline{x}'$ .
- Sample covariance matrix of X:

$$S_{x} = \frac{1}{n-1}\widetilde{X}'\widetilde{X} = \left( egin{array}{cccc} s_{1}^{2} & s_{12} & \cdots & s_{1p} \\ s_{21} & s_{2}^{2} & \ddots & s_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ s_{p1} & s_{p2} & \cdots & s_{p}^{2} \end{array} 
ight)$$

- Therefore:  $S_x$  contains all the information about the dispersion of the variables and the linear dependency of every pair of variables in X.
- Symmetry:  $S_x$  is a symmetric matrix because  $s_{jk} = s_{kj}$ .
- Eigenvalues of  $S_x$ : All are non-negative.

- Matrix of sample variances:  $D_x$  is a diagonal matrix with elements  $s_1^2, \ldots, s_p^2$ .
- Individual standardization of X:  $Y = \widetilde{X}D_x^{-1/2}$ .
- Sample mean vector of Y:  $\overline{y} = 0_p$ .
- Sample covariance matrix of Y:

$$S_{y} = D_{x}^{-1/2} S_{x} D_{x}^{-1/2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1p} \\ r_{21} & 1 & \ddots & r_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ r_{p1} & r_{p2} & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix} = R_{x}$$

- Sample correlation matrix of  $X: R_x$ .
- Symmetry:  $R_x$  is a symmetric matrix because  $r_{jk} = r_{kj}$ .
- Eigenvalues of  $R_x$ : All are non-negative.



- Useful tools: The sample covariance and correlation matrices are extremely useful tools in multidimensional data analysis for a number of purposes.
- Nevertheless: If  $p \simeq n$  or p > n, then both the sample covariance and correlation matrices might have certain non-desirable characteristics.
- Two solutions:
  - ▶ Dimension reduction: If there are many variables, try to reduce its number.
  - Alternative matrices: We will review alternative matrices more adequate to these cases later.

#### • Week 2.R script:

- Sample covariance matrix: Variables in the spam data set and NCI60 data set.
- Sample correlation matrix: Variables in the spam data set and NCI60 data set.

2 Standard descriptive measures for multivariate data sets

3 Multidimensional distributions and inference

4 Important facts about correlations in big data sets

#### Multidimensional distributions and inference

- For future developments: We will need some probabilistic concepts.
- Particularly: We need the concept of multidimensional distributions.
- Multivariate Gaussian distribution: Canonical example of multidimensional distribution.
- Maximum likelihood estimation: Usual method to estimate parameters of multidimensional distributions.
- Curse of dimensionality: When the dimension of the data set is large, estimation of model parameters becomes problematic.
- Sparse estimation methods: Restrict the number of parameters to estimate, thus avoiding estimation error.

#### Multidimensional distributions and inference

- Main assumption: We observe n observations of p single random variables, say  $x_1, \ldots, x_p$ .
- Multidimensional random variable: The random vector  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)'$ .
- Types of multidimensional random variables:
  - ▶ Continuous: If the variables  $x_1, ..., x_p$  are continuous.
  - ▶ Discrete: If the variables  $x_1, ..., x_p$  are discrete.
  - Mixed: If there are continuous as well as discrete variables.
- Simplicity: Focus on the continuous case.

• Cumulative distribution function (CDF) of x at point  $x^0$ :

$$F_{x}\left(x^{0}
ight) = \Pr\left(x \leq x^{0}
ight) = \Pr\left(x_{1} \leq x_{1}^{0}, \dots, x_{p} \leq x_{p}^{0}
ight)$$

where  $x = (x_1, ..., x_p)'$  and  $x^0 = (x_1^0, ..., x_p^0)'$ .

• Probability density function (PDF) of x at point  $x^0$ :

$$F_{x}\left(x^{0}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_{p}^{0}} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{x_{1}^{0}} f_{x}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{p}\right) dx_{1} \cdots dx_{p}$$

• Property:  $f_x$  is a continuous and non-negative function such that:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x_1, \dots, x_p) dx_1 \cdots dx_p = 1$$

• Marginal distribution of  $x_j$ : Each univariate random variable in x is a continuous random variable with its own CDF and PDF, denoted by  $F_{x_j}$  and  $f_{x_j}$ , respectively.

• Expectation or mean vector of x:

$$E[x] = \begin{pmatrix} E[x_1] \\ \vdots \\ E[x_p] \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $E[x_1], \ldots, E[x_p]$  are the expectations or means of the univariate random variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_p$ .

• Covariance matrix of x:

$$Cov[x] = E[(x - E[x])(x - E[x])'] = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \cdots & \sigma_{1p} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{p1} & \sigma_{p2} & \cdots & \sigma_p^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Diagonal elements of Cov[x]: Variances of the components of x, denoted by  $\sigma_i^2$ .
- Off-diagonal elements of Cov[x]: Covariances between pairs of components of x, denoted by  $\sigma_{jk}$ , for  $j, k = 1, \ldots, p$  and  $j \neq k$ .

Correlation matrix of x:

$$Cor\left[x\right] = \Delta_{x}^{-1/2} Cov\left[x\right] \Delta_{x}^{-1/2} = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & \rho_{12} & \cdots & \rho_{1p} \\ \rho_{21} & 1 & \ddots & \rho_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{p1} & \rho_{p2} & \cdots & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

where  $\Delta_x$  is a diagonal matrix with elements the variances of the components of x.

• Off-diagonal elements of Cor[x]: Correlations coefficients between pairs of components of x, denoted by  $\rho_{jk}$ , for  $j,k=1,\ldots,p$  and  $j\neq k$  and given by:

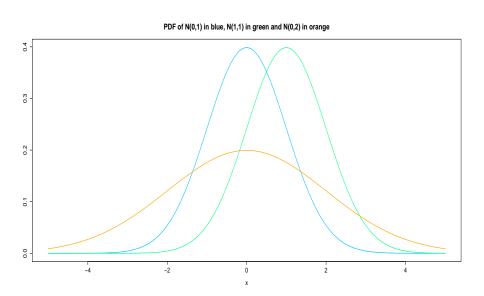
$$\rho_{jk} = \frac{\sigma_{jk}}{\sigma_j \sigma_k}$$

- Multidimensional Gaussian distribution: Generalization to two or more dimensions of the univariate Gaussian (or Normal) distribution.
- Bell curve: The MGD is often characterized by its resemblance to the shape of a bell.
- Importance: The MGD is used extensively in both theoretical and applied statistics.
- Data are rarely Gaussian: Although it is well known that real data rarely is Gaussian distributed, the MGD provide us with a useful approximation to reality.

• Univariate Gaussian distribution:  $x \sim N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$ , where  $\mu_x = E[x]$  and  $\sigma_x^2 = Var[x]$ , has PDF:

$$f_x(x) = (2\pi\sigma_x^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}\right) \qquad -\infty < x < \infty$$

• Important: Note that  $\mu_x$  and  $\sigma_x^2$  completely characterize the density.

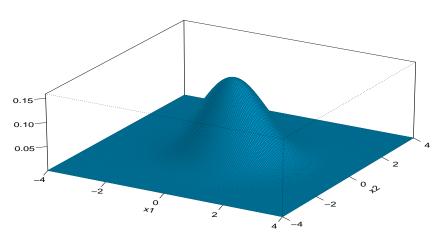


• Multidimensional Gaussian distribution:  $x \sim N_p(\mu_x, \Sigma_x)$ , where  $\mu_x = E[x]$  and  $\Sigma_x = Cov[x]$ , has PDF:

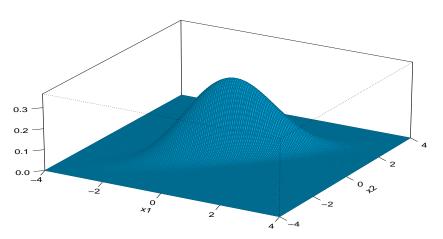
$$f_x(x) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\Sigma_x|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_x)' \Sigma_x^{-1} (x-\mu_x)}{2}\right) - \infty < x_j < \infty$$

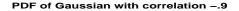
Examples: The next slides show some examples of PDFs of bivariate Gaussian distributions.

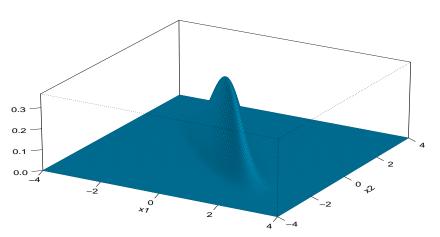










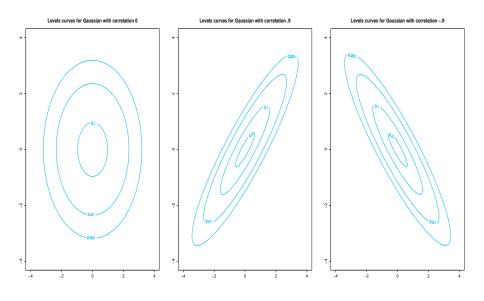


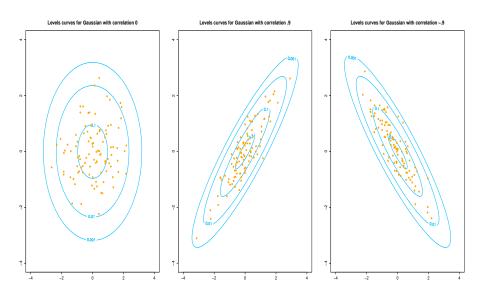
- Contours: Points with the same density value, i.e.,  $\{x_0 : f_x(x_0) = c\}$ , for a certain constant c.
- Level curves: In two dimensions, contours are called level curves and are obtained by cutting the PDF by parallel hyperplanes.
- Multidimensional Gaussian distribution: Contours are given by:

$$(x - \mu_x)' \Sigma_x^{-1} (x - \mu_x) = c^*$$

for a certain constant  $c^*$ .

- Consequence: Contours of multivariate Gaussian distributions are ellipsoids.
- Examples: The next two slides show level curves for GDs with and without a sample of 100 points generated from these distributions.





- Contours: Points with the same density.
- Idea: Assume that all points belonging to the same contour are at the same distance from the center of the distribution.
- Squared Mahalanobis distance between x and  $\mu_x$ : Implied by contours of the MGD:

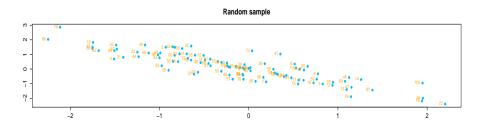
$$D_M(x, \mu_x)^2 = (x - \mu_x)' \Sigma_x^{-1} (x - \mu_x)$$

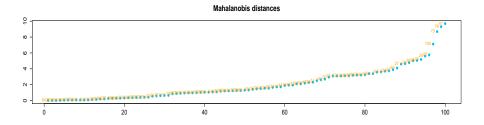
• Important role: The Mahalanobis distance plays an important role in many problems such as outlier detection, classification, clustering and so on.

- In practice: The Mahalanobis distance is computed for data which is not necessarily multivariate Gaussian distributed.
- Given a data matrix X of dimension  $n \times p$ : We can compute the Mahalanobis distance between each observation  $x_i$  and the sample mean vector of X,  $\overline{x}$ , by replacing  $\Sigma_x$  with  $S_x$ :

$$D_M(x_{i\cdot}, \overline{x})^2 = (x_{i\cdot} - \overline{x})' S_x^{-1} (x_{i\cdot} - \overline{x})$$

• Example: Mahalanobis distances between 100 points generated from a bivariate Gaussian distribution and the corresponding sample mean vector.





- Multidimensional outliers: The Mahalanobis distance has been routinely used to detect outliers.
- Nevertheless: The Mahalanobis distance has two main drawbacks for detecting outliers:
  - 1 It is mainly appropriate for approximately symmetric data sets.
  - The sample mean vector and the sample covariance matrices are largely influenced by the outliers.

#### Solutions:

- Try to transform the variables highly non-Gaussian (for instance, a very skewed variable) to something more symmetric (use logarithms).
- Replace the sample mean vector and the sample covariance matrices with robust estimates not influenced by outliers.

#### • What to do with outliers?:

- If an outlier is a gross errors due to data handling or something similar, the observation should be deleted from the data matrix for posterior analyses.
- If an outlier is a good observation but different than others in the data set, the observation should be kept in the analysis but then it is necessary to consider methods robust to its presence.

- Week 2.R script:
  - Outlier detection: The variables in the College data set (more information in the R script).

• Two multivariate random variables:

• 
$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)'$$
 with PDF  $f_x$ .

• 
$$y = (y_1, \ldots, y_q)'$$
 with PDF  $f_y$ .

- Joint probability density function:  $f_{x,y}(x,y)$ .
- Conditional density function of y given  $x = x^0$ :

$$f_{y|x=x^0}(y|x=x^0) = \frac{f_{x,y}(x^0,y)}{f_x(x^0)}$$

• Interpretation: The distribution of the random variable y use to change if we have information provided by another related random variable x.

• Independency:  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)'$  and  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_q)'$  are independent if:

$$f_{y|x=x^0}\left(y|x=x^0\right)=f_y\left(y\right)$$

and,

$$f_{x|y=y^0}\left(x|y=y^0\right)=f_x\left(x\right)$$

- Interpretation: Knowing  $x = x^0$  does not change the probability assessments on y and knowing  $y = y^0$  does not change the probability assessments on x.
- Consequence: x and y are independent if, and only if:

$$f_{x,y}(x,y) = f_x(x) f_y(y)$$



- One application: Imputation of missing values.
- Missing values: Some data is missing for some reason.
- Two different ways to impute missing values:
  - Unconditional approach.
  - Conditional approach.

- Unconditional approach for quantitative variables:
  - Consider the marginal distributions of the variables with missing values, thus ignore the information provided by the other variables.
  - Replace missing values with the sample mean or the sample median of the observed values of the variables.
- Qualitative variables: It is possible to replace missing values in qualitative values with the sample mode.
- However: This is not the best idea.
- Alternatively: Use conditional approaches, such as logistic regression (see Topic 4).

#### Conditional approach:

- ► Consider the conditional distributions of the variables with missing values given the information given by the other variables.
- ► Replace missing values with predicted values obtained from regression models:
  - \* Use the complete observations to estimate a linear regression of  $x_j$  on the rest of variables  $(x_j = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p)$ , producing an estimate  $\widehat{\beta}$  with covariance matrix  $\Sigma_{\widehat{\beta}}$ .
  - \* Draw a random sample of  $N\left(\widehat{\beta},\Sigma_{\widehat{\beta}}\right)$ , denoted by  $\widehat{\beta}^*$ .
  - $\star$  Use  $\widehat{eta}^*$  to predict all (including observed) the values of the variable  $x_j$ .
  - \* For each missing value of  $x_j$ , select the observations whose predicted values are close to the predicted value for the missing value.
  - \* Impute the missing value of  $x_i$  with one of those observations randomly chosen.
  - Repeat steps 2 through 5 with all the missing values.



- Week 2.R script:
  - Missing data: The variables in the birth2006 data set (more information in the R script).

- Many other multidimensional distributions:
  - Elliptical distributions: Their level curves are ellipsoids.
  - Heavy-tailed distributions: Have higher probability density in its tail area compared with a Gaussian distribution with the same mean vector and covariance matrix.
  - Copula distributions: Based on determining the marginals and then couple them through a certain multivariate function called the copula function.
  - Mixture distributions: Weighted linear combinations of several distributions (useful for supervised and unsupervised classification problems, see Topics 3 and 4).

- Data matrix: The data matrix, X, contains a sample  $x_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})'$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  of a multidimensional random variable  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)'$ .
- PDF of x:  $f_x(\cdot|\theta)$ , where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_r)'$  is the vector of parameters.
- Goal: Estimate  $\theta$  based on X.
- How to do this?: The most popular method to carry out this task is the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method.

- Key point: The sample is known (X, the data matrix) but  $\theta$  is unknown.
- Idea behind MLE: Estimates  $\theta$  with the value of the parameters that maximizes the PDF of  $\theta|X$ .
- Thus:  $\theta$  is treated as a variable.
- In other words: The MLE, denoted by  $\widehat{\theta}$ , is the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes the probability of obtaining X.

• The PDF of  $\theta|X$  is called the Likelihood function:

$$L(\theta|X) = f_{(x_1,\ldots,x_n)}(x_1,\ldots,x_n|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i|\theta)$$

• The MLE of  $\theta$ ,  $\widehat{\theta}$ :

$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} L\left(\theta|X\right)$$

• The log-likelihood or support function:

$$\ell(\theta|X) = \log L(\theta|X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log (f_{X}(x_{i\cdot}|\theta))$$

is easier to maximize.

Note that:

$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} \ell\left(\theta|X\right) = \arg\max_{\theta} L\left(\theta|X\right)$$



- In almost all the cases: Maximizing  $L(\theta|X)$  or  $\ell(\theta|X)$  involves the use of nonlinear optimization techniques (see the course Optimization for large-scale data).
- The multivariate Gaussian distribution: The MLE can be derived analytically.
- Assume:  $x \sim N(\mu_x, \Sigma_x)$ .
- Data matrix: X.

• The support function (up to a constant):

$$\ell\left(\mu_{x}, \Sigma_{x} | X\right) = -\frac{n}{2} \log |\Sigma_{x}| - \frac{n}{2} \left( \textit{Tr}\left(\Sigma_{x}^{-1} \widetilde{S}_{x}\right) + \left(\mu_{x} - \overline{x}\right)' \Sigma_{x}^{-1} \left(\mu_{x} - \overline{x}\right) \right)$$

where:

$$\widetilde{S}_{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i\cdot} - \overline{x}) (x_{i\cdot} - \overline{x})' = \frac{n-1}{n} S_{x\cdot}$$

- Note:  $\ell(\mu_x, \Sigma_x | X)$  only depends on  $\mu_x$  in the last term.
- Moreover: In terms of  $\mu_x$ ,  $\ell(\mu_x, \Sigma_x | X)$  is maximized if

$$(\overline{x} - \mu_x)' \Sigma_x^{-1} (\overline{x} - \mu_x) = 0$$

• Consequence: The MLE of  $\mu_x$  is the sample mean vector  $\widehat{\mu}_x = \overline{x}$ .

• MLE of  $\Sigma_x$ :

$$\ell\left(\Sigma_{x}|X,\widehat{\mu}_{x}=\overline{x}\right)=-\frac{n}{2}\log\left|\Sigma_{x}\right|-\frac{n}{2}\textit{Tr}\left(\Sigma_{x}^{-1}\widetilde{S}_{x}\right)$$

• Much more complicated: After some algebra it is possible to show that the MLE of  $\Sigma_x$  is:

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_{x} = \widetilde{S}_{x} = \frac{n-1}{n} S_{x}$$

- Consequence: The MLE of  $\Sigma_x$  is not  $S_x$ , but a re-scaled version of it.
- Unbiased estimators:  $E[\overline{x}] = \mu_x$  and  $E[S_x] = \Sigma_x$ .
- Thus:  $E\left[\widetilde{S}_{x}\right] = \frac{n-1}{n}\Sigma_{x}$ .



- Uses of MLE in this course:
  - Unsupervised classification: Model-based clustering in Topic 3.
  - ► Supervised classification: Bayes classifiers in Topic 4.

Visualizing multidimensional data sets

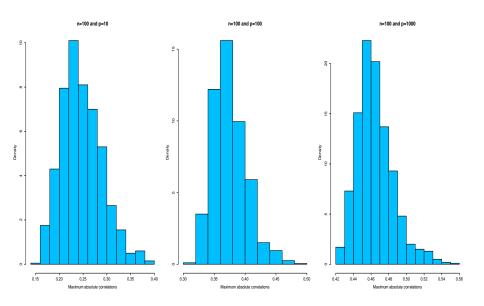
2 Standard descriptive measures for multivariate data sets

Multidimensional distributions and inference

- A popular mantra in big data analytics: Look for highly correlated variables
  if you want to study common effects or trends.
- For instance: https://www.google.com/trends/correlate/
- Correlations: Two important facts about sample correlations in big data sets.
  - Spurious correlations: Two variables can be highly correlated due to just simply a coincidence or the presence of another variable not taken into account.
  - Correlation does not imply causality: Causation and correlation are different things (this is usually completely ignored):
    - ★ Causation: A causes B.
    - ★ Correlation: A and B are usually observed simultaneously.

- Spurious correlation: One of the most important causes of false scientific discoveries and wrong statistical inferences.
- Examples: http://www.tylervigen.com/spurious-correlations
- Big data sets: Bring spurious correlation because many uncorrelated random variables may have high sample correlations in high dimensions.
- Simulation: Try to understand the next simulation exercise that illustrates this phenomenon.

- Generation of: 1000 data sets with n observations from a  $N(0_p, I_p)$ , for the three pairs (n, p) = (100, 10), (n, p) = (100, 100) and (n, p) = (100, 1000).
- For each data set: Obtain the sample correlation matrix and get the maximum absolute correlation.
- Figure in the next slide: Shows the histograms of the 1000 maximum absolute correlations obtained in the three situations.
- Consequence: The larger the dimension, the larger the maximum absolute correlations.
- Thus: True uncorrelated random variables may have high sample correlations in high dimensions.



#### Possible solutions:

- Dimension reduction: Once again, one option is to reduce the dimension of the data set (see Topic 2).
- Sparse methods: Reduce the number of correlations to estimate by shrinking to 0 those corresponding to true uncorrelated variables.

- Sparse methods: Becoming very popular for handling multidimensional data sets.
- Sparse model: Tries to explains many data with few parameters.
- Basic idea under sparse modeling is that of simplicity: A sparse model can be much easier to estimate and interpret than a dense model.
- Examples: Sparse covariance matrix estimation, sparse methods for principal component analysis and sparse supervised and unsupervised classification, among others.
- Here: Focus on sparse covariance matrix estimation.

- Cov [x]: Contains  $\frac{p(p+1)}{2}$  parameters (variances and covariances).
- Thus: The number of parameters to estimate grows with the square of the dimension *p*.
- Leading to: Inefficient estimation.
- Idea: Impose sparsity in *Cov* [x] by assuming that the covariances of true uncorrelated variables are just 0.
- Consequently: The number of parameters to estimate can be reduced substantially which decreases the estimation error.
- Problem: How to identify which are the covariances that can be assumed to be 0?

- Next: Present one of the most popular approaches to perform sparse covariance matrix estimation.
- Remember: Under the Gaussian likelihood, the support function (up to a constant) once  $\mu_x$  has been replaced with its MLE,  $\widehat{\mu}_x = \overline{x}$ :

$$\ell\left(\Sigma_{x}|X,\widehat{\mu}_{x}=\overline{x}\right)=-rac{n}{2}\log|\Sigma_{x}|-rac{n}{2}Tr\left(\Sigma_{x}^{-1}\widetilde{S}_{x}\right)$$

- The MLE of  $\Sigma_x$ :  $\widehat{\Sigma}_x = \widetilde{S}_x$ , obtained by maximizing  $\ell\left(\Sigma_x | X, \widehat{\mu}_x = \overline{x}\right)$  with respect to  $\Sigma_x$ .
- Note that:  $\widehat{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{x}} = \widetilde{S}_{\mathbf{x}}$  is obtained after estimating all the variances and covariances.

• Sparse estimator of  $\Sigma_x$ : Obtained after maximizing:

$$\widetilde{\ell}\left(\Sigma_{x}|X,\widehat{\mu}_{x}=\overline{x}\right)=-\frac{n}{2}\log|\Sigma_{x}|-\frac{n}{2}\text{Tr}\left(\Sigma_{x}^{-1}\widetilde{S}_{x}\right)-\lambda\|P*\Sigma_{x}\|_{1}$$

where:

- **1**  $\lambda$  is a penalization parameter (a positive number).
- ② P is a  $p \times p$  matrix given by:

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

- \* denotes elementwise multiplication.

- Therefore: The idea after maximizing the previous expression is to penalize the value of the covariances.
- Resolution: To solve this problem is necessary to rely in an optimization algorithm (generalized gradient descent).
- Key point: Select an appropriate value of the parameter  $\lambda$ .
- Best choice: Consider several values of  $\lambda$  and select the most stable solution.

- Week 2.R script:
  - ► Sparse covariance matrix estimation: Spam data set.

Visualizing multidimensional data sets

2 Standard descriptive measures for multivariate data sets

3 Multidimensional distributions and inference