# Finite Mixtures of Nonparametric Regression Cluster-Weighted Models with Generalized Additive Components

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#### The Model Recipe

- Review: Regression
- Mixture Models
- Cluster-Weighted Models
- Nonparametric Models

- Suppose we have a set of data  $\{(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , where each  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$  is a response (believed to be) based on  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- In simple regression, we assume that  $Y = f(\beta_0 + \beta^T \mathbf{X}) + \epsilon$ , where  $(\beta_0, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0$ , and  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a deterministic function

• Thus 
$$\mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = f(\beta_0 + \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x})$$

- When f(x) = Id, this is **linear regression**
- When Y is in the exponential family and f(·) = g<sup>-1</sup>(·) is a link function, we get a generalized linear model
- Etc.

### Regression Models: Example

In linear regression using **ordinary least squares**, we estimate the coefficients  $(\beta_{i0}, \beta_i)$  of  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i | \mathbf{X}_i] = \beta_{i0} + \beta_i^T \mathbf{X}_i$  by minimizing the sum of the (squared) distances between the estimated hyperplane  $\hat{y}_i$  and each data point  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , leading to the estimator  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$ .



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## Mixture Models: Motivation

What if we find that our data set appears to partition into several distinct groups, or **clusters**?



- Suppose  $\theta$  is a discrete random variable whose distribution places mass on the elements of  $\{1, 2, \ldots, G\}$ , and suppose we have G conditional random variables  $\{X_g | \theta = g \sim F_g(x)\}_{g=1}^G$  which follow their own distinct distributions
- It is easily shown that  $F(x) = \sum_{g=1}^{G} F_g(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\theta = g)$  defines a distribution function, which we call a **mixture distribution**
- Denoting each **mixing weight**  $\pi_g := \mathbb{P}(\theta = g) \in [0, 1]$  and observing that  $\sum_{g=1}^{G} \pi_g = 1$ , we see that  $F(x) = \sum_{g=1}^{G} \pi_g \cdot F_g(x)$  is simply a convex combination of distribution functions

Suppose we reach for one of two biased coins,  $C_{big}$  and  $C_{small}$ , such that  $\mathbb{P}(C_{big} = H) = 0.75$  and  $\mathbb{P}(C_{small} = H) = 0.25$ , and then we flip it. Due to their different sizes, we are twice as likely to grab  $C_{big}$  as we are  $C_{small}$ . We can model the distribution of the flipped coin C as a mixture of Bernoulli distributions:

$$\mathbb{P}(C = H) = \mathbb{P}(C = C_{big}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(C = H | C = C_{big}) \\ + \mathbb{P}(C = C_{small}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(C = H | C = C_{small}) \\ = \frac{2}{3} \cdot 0.75 + \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0.25 = \frac{7}{12} \\ \mathbb{P}(C = T) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(C = H) = \frac{5}{12}$$

This is nothing but the Law of Total Probability.

- Suppose that each distribution in a mixture comes from the same family F of distributions, defined on a parameter space  $\Theta$  so that  $F = \{F_g(x; \theta_g) : \theta_g \in \Theta, g = 1, ..., G\}$
- Let  $C = \{\sum_{g=1}^{G} \pi_g \cdot F_g(x; \theta_g) : \pi_g > 0, \sum_{g=1}^{G} \pi_g = 1, F_g(x; \theta_g) \in F\}$ be the convex hull of F
- *C* is **identifiable** all of its members are distinct, up to reordering of summations
- Mixtures that are not identifiable suffer from the **label-switching problem** and are difficult to estimate in general

- The mixture of Bernoullis is not identifiable!
- Suppose we did not know  $\mathbb{P}(C = C_{big})$  and  $\mathbb{P}(C = C_{small})$  beforehand
- $\mathbb{P}(C = H) = \pi \cdot 0.75 + (1 \pi) \cdot 0.25 = 0.5\pi + 0.25$  and  $\mathbb{P}(C = T) = 0.75 0.5\pi$  for any  $\pi \in (0, 1)$

#### Theorem (Yakowitz, Spragins (1968))

*C* is identifiable if and only if *F* is linearly independent over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

• With some mild constraints imposed, mixtures of linear regression models are identifiable

## Cluster Weighted Models: Motivation

When clusters of data are far away from each other, fitting a finite mixture model is relatively straightforward. But this is not always the case:



- Suppose that  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is a *multivariate* response,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is a vector of explanatory covariates, and  $\theta$  and  $\pi_g$  are as defined previously
- A cluster-weighted model is a specific finite mixture model where
  *f*(**x**, **y**) = ∑<sup>G</sup><sub>g=1</sub> *f*<sub>**Y**|**X**,θ=g</sub>(**y**|**x**, g) · *f*<sub>**X**|θ=g</sub>(**x**|g) · π<sub>g</sub> is given as the *joint density* of (**X**, **Y**)
- Here, each conditional density of y is weighted by both a mixing weight π<sub>g</sub> as well as a local density of x within group g (which is usually assumed to be Gaussian)
- Cluster-weighted models allow for modelling data whose clusters may not appear to be distinct

## Cluster Weighted Models: Example

A finite mixture of regressions model was fit using the EM algorithm:



The algorithm classified many points, but failed to correctly classify the cluster which spanned a small portion of the feature space

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## Cluster Weighted Models: Example

A cluster-weighted model was fit to the same data:



The algorithm correctly classified *all but five* points, and determined the actual lines that were used to generate the data almost perfectly

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- Traditionally, finite mixture models are **fully parametric**; that is, each probability distribution  $F_g(x)$  can be fully specified by a vector of fixed parameters  $\theta_g \in \Theta$ , where  $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is a finite-dimensional parameter space
  - For example, a mixture of Gaussian distributions of the form  $F(x) = \sum_{g=1}^{G} \pi_g \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mu_g, \sigma_g^2)$  is fully parametric, with  $\theta_g = (\pi_g, \mu_g, \sigma_g^2)$
- In nonparametric models, the components of the distributions are not assumed to be constant, but are instead taken to be unknown functions of the predictors {x<sub>i</sub>} themselves
- These functions require estimation

### Nonparametric Models: Example

$$\pi_{1}(x) = \frac{e^{\sqrt{x}}}{5(1+e^{\sqrt{x}})}, \quad \mu_{1}(x) = 4 - \frac{3}{2}x^{-\frac{1}{3}}\sin(5\pi x), \quad \sigma_{1}(x) = x^{\frac{4}{5}}$$
  
$$\pi_{2}(x) = \frac{x^{2}}{2}, \qquad \mu_{2}(x) = -1 + \cos(3\pi x), \qquad \sigma_{2}(x) = \frac{5}{2} - 3\sin(x)$$
  
$$\pi_{3}(x) = 1 - \pi_{1} - \pi_{2}, \quad \mu_{3}(x) = \frac{1}{x^{\frac{3}{10}}} - 3, \qquad \sigma_{3}(x) = 2x$$



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- Nonparametric models allow for much more freedom than parametric models, but there is a drawback
- In parametric models, parameters can be estimated from the data using straightforward approaches based on maximum likelihood estimation
  - In least squares regression, the ordinary least squares estimate is *the* MLE
  - In generalized linear models, quasi-Newton methods like the Fisher scoring algorithm numerically finds a root of the score equation
  - In mixtures of (parametric) Gaussian models, the EM algorithm uses a modified log-likelihood approach to estimate the parameters of the distributions as well as the mixing weights
- Likelihood estimation often fails for nonparametric models!

- In nonparametric models, component functions are usually estimated using kernels
- If we fix one data point  $x_0$ , then a kernel  $K_{x_0,\lambda}(x)$  assigns a weight  $W_{\lambda,j}(x) = \frac{K_{x_0,\lambda}(x-x_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K_{x_0,\lambda}(x-x_i)}$  to each  $x_j \in B_{\lambda}(x_0)$  based on its distance from  $x_0$
- In one dimension, a kernel  $K : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, bounded, symmetric about 0, and satisfies  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(x) dx = 1$
- In a regression setting,  $\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} W_{\lambda,i}(x) \cdot y_i$  is a **kernel smoother** that provides a smooth nonparametric estimate of the true function f(x), where  $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$

- In local regression, the radius  $\lambda = \lambda(x_0)$  is called the **bandwidth**
- Because in general, the data is spread out non-uniformly, variable bandwidth selection must be used to determine λ at each point
- Typically this is done by the *k*-nearest neighbours algorithm, which searches for the *k* points closest to x<sub>0</sub>
- In low dimensions, this is straightforward
- However, as the dimension grows, our feature space becomes sparser and we must search a much larger volume for the same k points
- This is an example of the curse of dimensionality
- To circumvent this, dimension reduction techniques or feature selection algorithms may be used that restrict the data used

- Recall that in our regression setting, we assumed that  $\mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = f(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p)$
- This model is useful, but the requirement that the argument of  $f(\cdot)$  be linear in the  $x_i$ 's is often too restrictive
- In a generalized additive model, we assume more generally that  $\mathbb{E}[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = f(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x_1) + \cdots + \alpha_p(x_p))$ , where each function  $a_i : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is smooth
- We can apply kernel smoothing techniques to each  $\alpha_i$  individually, and thus avoid the curse of dimensionality
- Smoothing splines are another choice

#### Generalized Additive Models: Example



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#### Generalized Additive Models: Continued

A GAM was fit to the above data:



 A cluster-weighted model with generalized additive components is a finite mixture model where the joint density of (X, Y) takes the form

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{g=1}^{G} f_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \theta=g} \left( \alpha_{g,0} + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \alpha_{g,j}(x_j) | \mathbf{x}, g \right) \cdot f_{\mathbf{X}|\theta=g}(\mathbf{x}|g) \cdot \pi_g$$

where each function  $\alpha_{\mathbf{g},\mathbf{h}}:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$  is smooth

- Finite mixture models are more versatile than "single" models because they allow for clustered data
- Cluster-weighted models are more versatile than finite mixture models because the additional weighting term allows for more accurate identifying of clusters
- Nonparametric models are more versatile than parametric models because they allow the components of distribution functions to vary
- GAMs are more versatile than simple additive models because they allow each covariate to vary in its own (smooth) way