


Localized Sufficient Dimension Reduction ¹

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Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Localized Sufficient Dimension Reduction
- 3 KNN Sliced Inverse Regression
- 4 Simulation Studies
- 5 Summary and Future Directions

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Challenge of High Dimensional Data

- **Easy** — Collect information
 - Biotech Data;
 - Financial Data;
 - Satellite image, etc.
- **Difficult** — Visualize and analyze data
 - Curse of dimensionality.

Data Structure

It is not uncommon that most of the data structure is concentrated on a low-dimensional subspace of the original high-dimensional space.

$$Y = f(\mathbf{X}, \epsilon) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p, \epsilon) \quad (1.1)$$

can be transformed to

$$Y = f(\beta_1^T \mathbf{X}, \beta_2^T \mathbf{X}, \dots, \beta_d^T \mathbf{X}, \epsilon) \quad (1.2)$$

where β 's are unknown $p \times 1$ vectors and $d < p$.

Sufficient Dimension Reduction

$(\beta_1^T \mathbf{X}, \beta_2^T \mathbf{X}, \dots, \beta_d^T \mathbf{X})$ captures all the information needed for the inference on \mathbf{Y} .

Sufficient dimension reduction — recover $(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_d)$ without model fitting.

Central Space

- Dimension reduction is to find a d -dimensional projection subspace $\mathcal{S} = \text{Span}(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_d)$ such that

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{X} \mid P_{\mathcal{S}} \mathbf{X} \quad (1.3)$$

\mathcal{S} is then called a *dimension reduction subspace* (DRS) for $Y \mid \mathbf{X}$.

- **Central subspace (CS)** $\mathcal{S}_{Y \mid \mathbf{X}}$ — the intersection of all subspaces satisfying (1.3) if it also satisfies (1.3).
- Under mild conditions (Cook, 1998; Yin, Li and Cook, 2008), the CS exists and is unique.

Inverse Regression Methods

- A major class of dimension reduction methods;
- Inverse regression methods study the (inverse) conditional distribution of $\mathbf{X}|Y$, $F_{\mathbf{X}|Y}$;
- **Linearity condition.** For the directions $\mathbf{B} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_d)$ in model (1.2) and any constant vector $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^p$, there exist constants $c_0 \in \mathbb{R}^1$ and $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ depending on \mathbf{b} such that

$$E(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{X} | \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{X}) = c_0 + \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{X}.$$

Sliced Inverse Regression

- *Sliced inverse regression* (SIR; Li 1991) is the first and the most commonly used SDR method;
- SIR is investigating the trajectory of the inverse mean curve $E(\mathbf{X}|Y)$;

Let $\mathbf{Z} = \Sigma_{\mathbf{X}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbf{X} - E(\mathbf{X}))$. Under linearity condition,

$$\mathcal{S}_{E(\mathbf{Z}|Y)} \subseteq \mathcal{S}_{Y|\mathbf{Z}} \quad (1.4)$$

Advantages

- Easy to implement;
 - Slicing Y ;
 - Calculating $E(\mathbf{X}|Y)$;
 - Performing weighted PCA.
- Nice asymptotic properties.
 - Asymptotic normality of estimates;
 - Sequential test for d .

Disadvantages

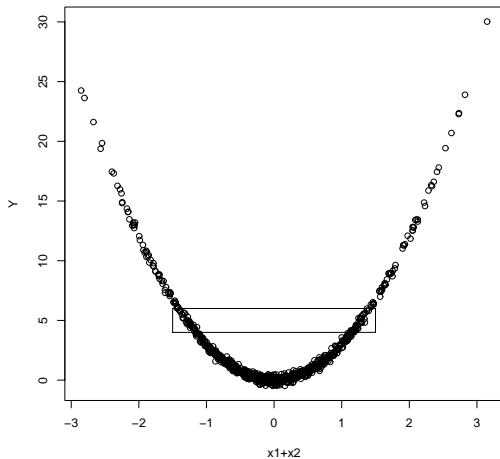
- Probabilistic assumption;
- Non-exhaustiveness (coverage condition; Cook, 2004) ;
- Interpretability.

Question: Can we develop a new class of dimension reduction methods to overcome these disadvantages while keeping computation efficient?

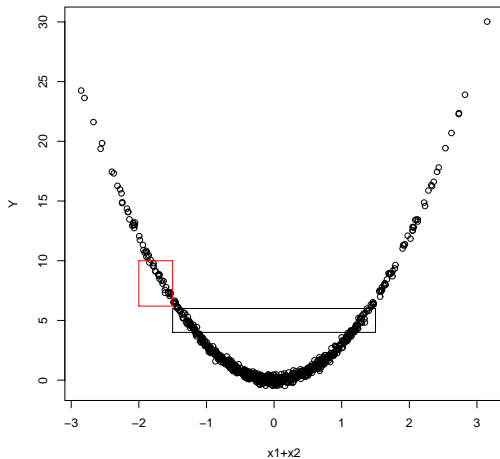
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Motivation I



Motivation I



Motivation II

$E(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{X})$ is a linear function of $\mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{X}$

Localization of Dimension Reduction Subspace

Theorem

Suppose $\Omega_{\mathbf{X}}$ is an open set in \mathbb{R}^p . Then

- 1 $\mathcal{S}_{Y|\mathbf{X}} = \text{span}\{\mathcal{S}_{Y_G|\mathbf{X}_G} : G \subseteq \Omega_{\mathbf{X}}\}$.
- 2 Furthermore, there exist finite number of open sets, say G_1, \dots, G_m in $\Omega_{\mathbf{X}}$, such that $\mathcal{S}_{Y|\mathbf{X}} = \text{span}\{\mathcal{S}_{Y_{G_i}|\mathbf{X}_{G_i}} : i = 1, \dots, m\}$.

Localization of Sliced Inverse Regression

Theorem

Suppose that, for a fixed $y \in \Omega_Y$, $g(y) > 0$, $h(y|\mathbf{x})$ is twice differentiable with respect to \mathbf{x} on \bar{G} , and the second derivatives are bounded on \bar{G} . Then, for any $\mathbf{x} \in G$, and almost everywhere on Ω_Y ,

$$h(y|\mathbf{x}) = h(y|\boldsymbol{\mu}_G + \mathbf{P}_{\beta_G}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_G)) + O(\|G\|^2) \text{ as } \|G\| \rightarrow 0.$$

Furthermore, as $\|G\| \rightarrow 0$, and almost everywhere on Ω_Y ,

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_G^{-1}[E(\mathbf{X}_G|y) - E(\mathbf{X}_G)] = \mathbf{P}_{\beta_G} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_G^{-1}[E(\mathbf{X}_G|y) - E(\mathbf{X}_G)] + O(\|G\|).$$

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Estimation Procedure

- (1) For an observation (\mathbf{X}_s, Y_s) , find a size- k neighborhood using Euclidean distance measure, $|\mathbf{X}_s - \mathbf{X}_j|$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$ and $j \neq s$;
- (2) Obtain the principal eigenvector, $\hat{\zeta}_{\mathbf{X}_s|y}$ and its eigenvalue ω_s in the neighborhood;
- (3) Repeat step 1-2 for $s = 1, \dots, n$;

Estimation Procedure (continue)

- (4) Keep m neighborhoods, where $m = 100\delta\% \times n$, and $\delta \in (0, 1)$ representing the fraction of the descending-ordered ω_s for $s = 1, \dots, n$;
- (5) For those neighborhoods that we keep, find the directions in the LCSs.
- (6) Combine the local estimates to estimate the CS. The first d eigenvectors corresponding to the first d largest eigenvalues of $\mathbf{V} = \sum_{s=1}^m \hat{\beta}_{ys} \hat{\beta}_{ys}^T$ form a basis of the CS.

Some issues in the estimation

- The choice of k
 - “Trade off” between a “good direction estimation” and a “good data reduction” (Härdle, 1990);
 - Empirically, $k = p$.
- The selection of neighborhoods
 - Threshold approach;
 - Empirically, $\delta = 0.5$.
- SIR in the neighborhood
 - Partial inverse regression (Li, Cook and Tsai, 2007)

Estimating d

- Permutation test ($d=0$ and $d>0$);
- Sphericity test ($d>0$);
- Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).

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Example

Consider the regression model

$$Y = \cos(X_1) + X_2^2 + 0.2\varepsilon$$

In this case we have $S_{Y|X} = \text{span}(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2)$. Both normal and non-normal predictors are considered. For the upper panel of Table 1 \mathbf{X} is generated from $N(\mathbf{0}, \mathcal{I}_p)$. The the lower panel \mathbf{X} is generated by the following scheme

$$X_1 \sim t_5, X_2 \sim F_{3,18}, X_3 \sim \chi_{10}^2, X_4 \sim F_{2,12}, x_5 \sim U(-1, 1), X_6, \dots, x_{10} \sim t_8.$$

Table 1: Accuracy of KNN-SIR

Normal predictor							
n	k	p	r	$\Delta(\mathbf{B}, \hat{\mathbf{B}})$	TPR	FPR	% of correct d by Sd
300	10	10	0.916(0.258)	0.511(0.172)	0.967	0.027	59.2
400	10	10	0.966(0.164)	0.424(0.147)	0.987	0.024	71.6
500	10	10	0.993(0.050)	0.363(0.108)	1.000	0.017	77.6
Non-normal predictor							
300	10	10	0.741(0.318)	0.646(0.219)	0.885	0.045	42.4
400	10	10	0.873(0.207)	0.553(0.188)	0.948	0.042	48.8
500	10	10	0.942(0.181)	0.490(0.168)	0.988	0.032	50.2

Example

Model: $Y = I[\beta_1^T \mathbf{X} + 0.2\epsilon > 1] + 2I[\beta_2^T \mathbf{X} + 0.2\epsilon > 0]$, where

$\beta_1 = \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3 + \mathbf{e}_4$, $\beta_2 = \mathbf{e}_7 + \mathbf{e}_8 + \mathbf{e}_9 + \mathbf{e}_{10}$ and

$S_{Y|\mathbf{X}} = \text{span}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$.

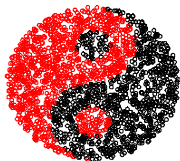
Table 2: Accuracy of KNN-SIR

n	r	$\Delta(\mathbf{B}, \hat{\mathbf{B}})$	% of correct d by Sd
300	0.829(0.157)	0.492(0.164)	58.0
400	0.903(0.068)	0.389(0.116)	69.0
500	0.930(0.049)	0.328(0.109)	80.0

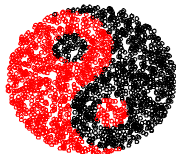
Example: Tai Chi



(a) Tai Chi Figure



(b) Training data in first two predictor directions



(c) Training data projected onto first two KNN-SIR directions

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Summary:

- 1 A novel theory of sufficient dimension reduction based on localization;
- 2 KNN-SIR and its sparse version;
- 3 Permutation, sphericity test and BIC for structural dimension d .

Future Directions

- 1 **KNN-logic regression and KNN-SVM;**
- 2 **A unified sphericity test for kernel dimension reduction matrix;**
- 3 **Applications.**

Thank you!