### CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 31.

### Nonlinear Regression

- 1. Review: joint distribution, LLSE
- 2. Quadratic Regression
- 3. Definition of Conditional expectation
- Properties of CE
- 5. Applications: Diluting, Mixing, Rumors
- 6. CE = MMSE

### Review

#### **Definitions** Let X and Y be RVs on $\Omega$ .

- ▶ Joint Distribution: Pr[X = x, Y = y]
- ► Marginal Distribution:  $Pr[X = x] = \sum_{y} Pr[X = x, Y = y]$
- ► Conditional Distribution:  $Pr[Y = y | X = x] = \frac{Pr[X = x, Y = y]}{Pr[X = x]}$
- ► LLSE: L[Y|X] = a + bX where a, b minimize  $E[(Y a bX)^2]$ .

We saw that

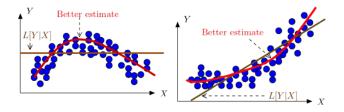
$$L[Y|X] = E[Y] + \frac{cov(X,Y)}{var[X]}(X - E[X]).$$

Recall the non-Bayesian and Bayesian viewpoints.

### Nonlinear Regression: Motivation

There are many situations where a good guess about *Y* given *X* is not linear.

E.g., (diameter of object, weight), (school years, income), (PSA level, cancer risk).



Our goal: explore estimates  $\hat{Y} = g(X)$  for nonlinear functions  $g(\cdot)$ .

### **Quadratic Regression**

Let X, Y be two random variables defined on the same probability space.

**Definition:** The quadratic regression of *Y* over *X* is the random variable

$$Q[Y|X] = a + bX + cX^2$$

where a, b, c are chosen to minimize  $E[(Y - a - bX - cX^2)^2]$ .

**Derivation:** We set to zero the derivatives w.r.t. a, b, c. We get

$$0 = E[Y - a - bX - cX^{2}]$$
  

$$0 = E[(Y - a - bX - cX^{2})X]$$
  

$$0 = E[(Y - a - bX - cX^{2})X^{2}]$$

We solve these three equations in the three unknowns (a, b, c).

**Note:** These equations imply that E[(Y - Q[Y|X])h(X)] = 0 for any  $h(X) = d + eX + fX^2$ . That is, the estimation error is orthogonal to all the quadratic functions of X. Hence, Q[Y|X] is the projection of Y onto the space of quadratic functions of X.

### **Conditional Expectation**

**Definition** Let X and Y be RVs on  $\Omega$ . The conditional expectation of Y given X is defined as

$$E[Y|X] = g(X)$$

where

$$g(x):=E[Y|X=x]:=\sum_{y}yPr[Y=y|X=x].$$

**Fact** 

$$E[Y|X=x] = \sum_{\omega} Y(\omega) Pr[\omega|X=x].$$

**Proof:** 
$$E[Y|X=x] = E[Y|A]$$
 with  $A = \{\omega : X(\omega) = x\}$ .

## Deja vu, all over again?

Have we seen this before? Yes.

Is anything new? Yes.

The idea of defining g(x) = E[Y|X = x] and then E[Y|X] = g(X).

Big deal? Quite! Simple but most convenient.

Recall that L[Y|X] = a + bX is a function of X.

This is similar: E[Y|X] = g(X) for some function  $g(\cdot)$ .

In general, g(X) is not linear, i.e., not a+bX. It could be that  $g(X)=a+bX+cX^2$ . Or that  $g(X)=2\sin(4X)+\exp\{-3X\}$ . Or something else.

$$E[Y|X=x] = \sum_{y} y Pr[Y=y|X=x]$$

#### **Theorem**

- (a) X, Y independent  $\Rightarrow E[Y|X] = E[Y]$ ;
- (b) E[aY + bZ|X] = aE[Y|X] + bE[Z|X];
- (c)  $E[Yh(X)|X] = h(X)E[Y|X], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (d)  $E[h(X)E[Y|X]] = E[h(X)Y], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (e) E[E[Y|X]] = E[Y].

#### **Proof:**

(a),(b) Obvious

(c) 
$$E[Yh(X)|X = x] = \sum_{\omega} Y(\omega)h(X(\omega)Pr[\omega|X = x])$$
  
=  $\sum_{\omega} Y(\omega)h(x)Pr[\omega|X = x] = h(x)E[Y|X = x]$ 

$$E[Y|X=x] = \sum_{y} yPr[Y=y|X=x]$$

#### **Theorem**

- (a) X, Y independent  $\Rightarrow E[Y|X] = E[Y]$ ;
- (b) E[aY + bZ|X] = aE[Y|X] + bE[Z|X];
- (c)  $E[Yh(X)|X] = h(X)E[Y|X], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (d)  $E[h(X)E[Y|X]] = E[h(X)Y], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (e) E[E[Y|X]] = E[Y].

#### **Proof:** (continued)

(d) 
$$E[h(X)E[Y|X]] = \sum_{x} h(x)E[Y|X=x]Pr[X=x]$$
  
 $= \sum_{x} h(x) \sum_{y} yPr[Y=y|X=x]Pr[X=x]$   
 $= \sum_{x} h(x) \sum_{y} yPr[X=x, y=y]$   
 $= \sum_{x} h(x) yPr[X=x, y=y] = E[h(X)Y].$ 

$$E[Y|X=x] = \sum_{y} yPr[Y=y|X=x]$$

#### **Theorem**

- (a) X, Y independent  $\Rightarrow E[Y|X] = E[Y]$ ;
- (b) E[aY + bZ|X] = aE[Y|X] + bE[Z|X];
- (c)  $E[Yh(X)|X] = h(X)E[Y|X], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (d)  $E[h(X)E[Y|X]] = E[h(X)Y], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (e) E[E[Y|X]] = E[Y].

#### Proof: (continued)

(e) Let h(X) = 1 in (d).

#### Theorem

- (a) X, Y independent  $\Rightarrow E[Y|X] = E[Y]$ ;
- (b) E[aY + bZ|X] = aE[Y|X] + bE[Z|X];
- (c)  $E[Yh(X)|X] = h(X)E[Y|X], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (d)  $E[h(X)E[Y|X]] = E[h(X)Y], \forall h(\cdot);$
- (e) E[E[Y|X]] = E[Y].

Note that (d) says that

$$E[(Y - E[Y|X])h(X)] = 0.$$

We say that the estimation error Y - E[Y|X] is orthogonal to every function h(X) of X.

We call this the projection property. More about this later.

# Application: Calculating E[Y|X]

Let X, Y, Z be i.i.d. with mean 0 and variance 1. We want to calculate

$$E[2+5X+7XY+11X^2+13X^3Z^2|X].$$

We find

$$E[2+5X+7XY+11X^2+13X^3Z^2|X]$$

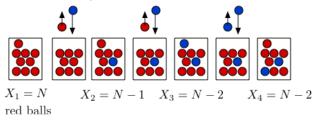
$$=2+5X+7XE[Y|X]+11X^2+13X^3E[Z^2|X]$$

$$=2+5X+7XE[Y]+11X^2+13X^3E[Z^2]$$

$$=2+5X+11X^2+13X^3(var[Z]+E[Z]^2)$$

$$=2+5X+11X^2+13X^3.$$

# **Application: Diluting**



At each step, pick a ball from a well-mixed urn. Replace it with a blue ball. Let  $X_n$  be the number of red balls in the urn at step n. What is  $E[X_n]$ ?

Given  $X_n = m$ ,  $X_{n+1} = m-1$  w.p. m/N (if you pick a red ball) and  $X_{n+1} = m$  otherwise. Hence,

$$E[X_{n+1}|X_n = m] = m - (m/N) = m(N-1)/N = X_n\rho,$$

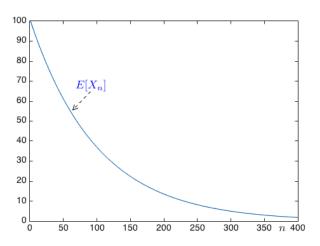
with  $\rho := (N-1)/N$ . Consequently,

$$E[X_{n+1}] = E[E[X_{n+1}|X_n]] = \rho E[X_n], n \ge 1.$$

$$\implies E[X_n] = \rho^{n-1}E[X_1] = N(\frac{N-1}{N})^{n-1}, n \ge 1.$$

# **Diluting**

### Here is a plot:



### **Diluting**

By analyzing  $E[X_{n+1}|X_n]$ , we found that  $E[X_n] = N(\frac{N-1}{N})^{n-1}, n \ge 1$ .

Here is another argument for that result.

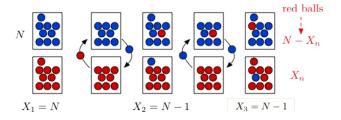
Consider one particular red ball, say ball k. At each step, it remains red w.p. (N-1)/N, when another ball is picked. Thus, the probability that it is still red at step n is  $[(N-1)/N]^{n-1}$ . Let

$$Y_n(k) = 1\{\text{ball } k \text{ is red at step } n\}.$$

Then,  $X_n = Y_n(1) + \cdots + Y_n(N)$ . Hence,

$$E[X_n] = E[Y_n(1) + \dots + Y_n(N)] = NE[Y_n(1)]$$
  
=  $NPr[Y_n(1) = 1] = N[(N-1)/N]^{n-1}$ .

# **Application: Mixing**



At each step, pick a ball from each well-mixed urn. We transfer them to the other urn. Let  $X_n$  be the number of red balls in the bottom urn at step n. What is  $E[X_n]$ ?

Given  $X_n = m$ ,  $X_{n+1} = m+1$  w.p. p and  $X_{n+1} = m-1$  w.p. q where  $p = (1 - m/N)^2$  (B goes up, R down) and  $q = (m/N)^2$  (R goes up, B down).

Thus,  $E[X_{n+1}|X_n] = X_n + p - q = X_n + 1 - 2X_n/N = 1 + \rho X_n, \ \rho := (1 - 2/N).$ 

# Mixing

We saw that  $E[X_{n+1}|X_n] = 1 + \rho X_n$ ,  $\rho := (1 - 2/N)$ . Hence,

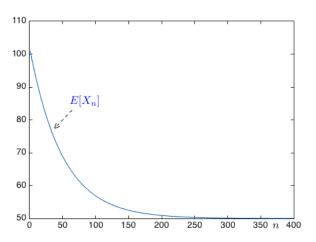
$$\begin{split} E[X_{n+1}] &= 1 + \rho E[X_n] \\ E[X_2] &= 1 + \rho N; E[X_3] = 1 + \rho (1 + \rho N) = 1 + \rho + \rho^2 N \\ E[X_4] &= 1 + \rho (1 + \rho + \rho^2 N) = 1 + \rho + \rho^2 + \rho^3 N \\ E[X_n] &= 1 + \rho + \dots + \rho^{n-2} + \rho^{n-1} N. \end{split}$$

Hence,

$$E[X_n] = \frac{1 - \rho^{n-1}}{1 - \rho} + \rho^{n-1} N, n \ge 1.$$

# Application: Mixing

Here is the plot.



# Application: Going Viral

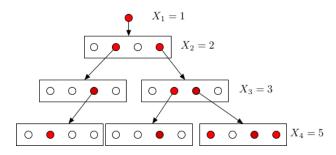
Consider a social network (e.g., Twitter).

You start a rumor (e.g., Walrand is really weird).

You have *d* friends. Each of your friend retweets w.p. *p*.

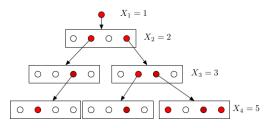
Each of your friends has *d* friends, etc.

Does the rumor spread? Does it die out (mercifully)?



In this example, d = 4.

# Application: Going Viral



**Fact:** Let  $X = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$ . Then,  $E[X] < \infty$  iff pd < 1.

#### **Proof:**

Given  $X_n = k$ ,  $X_{n+1} = B(kd, p)$ . Hence,  $E[X_{n+1}|X_n = k] = kpd$ .

Thus,  $E[X_{n+1}|X_n] = pdX_n$ . Consequently,  $E[X_n] = (pd)^{n-1}, n \ge 1$ .

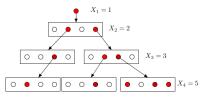
If pd < 1, then  $E[X_1 + \dots + X_n] \le (1 - pd)^{-1} \Longrightarrow E[X] \le (1 - pd)^{-1}$ .

If  $pd \ge 1$ , then for all C one can find n s.t.

$$E[X] \geq E[X_1 + \cdots + X_n] \geq C.$$

In fact, one can show that  $pd \ge 1 \implies Pr[X = \infty] > 0$ .

# Application: Going Viral



An easy extension: Assume that everyone has an independent number  $D_i$  of friends with  $E[D_i] = d$ . Then, the same fact holds.

To see this, note that given  $X_n = k$ , and given the numbers of friends  $D_1 = d_1, ..., D_k = d_k$  of these  $X_n$  people, one has  $X_{n+1} = B(d_1 + \cdots + d_k, p)$ . Hence,

$$E[X_{n+1}|X_n = k, D_1 = d_1, \dots, D_k = d_k] = p(d_1 + \dots + d_k).$$

Thus, 
$$E[X_{n+1}|X_n = k, D_1, \dots, D_k] = p(D_1 + \dots + D_k)$$
.

Consequently, 
$$E[X_{n+1}|X_n=k]=E[p(D_1+\cdots+D_k)]=pdk$$
.

Finally, 
$$E[X_{n+1}|X_n] = pdX_n$$
, and  $E[X_{n+1}] = pdE[X_n]$ .

We conclude as before.

# Application: Wald's Identity

Here is an extension of an identity we used in the last slide.

### Theorem Wald's Identity

Assume that  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  and Z are independent, where Z takes values in  $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$  and  $E[X_n] = \mu$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

Then,

$$E[X_1+\cdots+X_Z]=\mu E[Z].$$

#### **Proof:**

$$E[X_1+\cdots+X_Z|Z=k]=\mu k.$$

Thus, 
$$E[X_1 + \cdots + X_Z | Z] = \mu Z$$
.

Hence, 
$$E[X_1 + \cdots + X_Z] = E[\mu Z] = \mu E[Z]$$
.

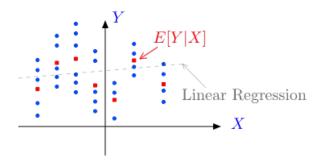
#### CE = MMSE

#### **Theorem**

E[Y|X] is the 'best' guess about Y based on X.

Specifically, it is the function g(X) of X that

minimizes 
$$E[(Y - g(X))^2]$$
.



#### CE = MMSE

#### Theorem CE = MMSE

g(X) := E[Y|X] is the function of X that minimizes  $E[(Y-g(X))^2]$ .

#### **Proof:**

Let h(X) be any function of X. Then

$$E[(Y - h(X))^{2}] = E[(Y - g(X) + g(X) - h(X))^{2}]$$

$$= E[(Y - g(X))^{2}] + E[(g(X) - h(X))^{2}]$$

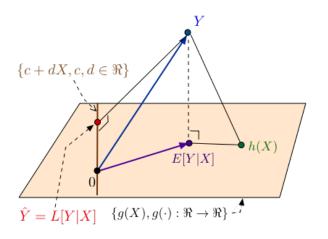
$$+2E[(Y - g(X))(g(X) - h(X))].$$

But,

$$E[(Y-g(X))(g(X)-h(X))]=0$$
 by the projection property.

Thus, 
$$E[(Y - h(X))^2] \ge E[(Y - g(X))^2]$$
.

# E[Y|X] and L[Y|X] as projections



L[Y|X] is the projection of Y on  $\{a+bX, a, b \in \Re\}$ : LLSE E[Y|X] is the projection of Y on  $\{g(X), g(\cdot) : \Re \to \Re\}$ : MMSE.

## Summary

### **Conditional Expectation**

- ▶ Definition:  $E[Y|X] := \sum_{y} yPr[Y = y|X = x]$
- Properties: Linearity,

$$Y - E[Y|X] \perp h(X); E[E[Y|X]] = E[Y]$$

- Some Applications:
  - ▶ Calculating E[Y|X]
  - Diluting
  - Mixing
  - Rumors
  - Wald
- ▶ MMSE: E[Y|X] minimizes  $E[(Y-g(X))^2]$  over all  $g(\cdot)$