Lecture 15 Ridge Regression and PCR

04 November 2015

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- the final problem set, 7, is formally due the last day of classes (but we'll accept them through December 14th)

Goals for today

- a note on numerical and statistical noise
- ridge regression formulation and link to SVD
- principal component analysis
- applications to image data

Statistical noise as numerical noise

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Consider the standard description of a statistical linear model:

$$y = X\beta + \epsilon$$

If we have some sort of inverse of *X*, we can try to write this as:

$$y' = X(\beta + X^{+}\epsilon)$$

And now the error is in β rather than in y.

Statistical noise as numerical noise, cont.

It turns out that the y values in the second equation will not be exactly the same as those generated by the original model for the same error terms. However, the least squares estimate of β will be the same.

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So, when considering statistical linear models we know that there is an equivalent problem involving the same X matrix and β vector for which the noise is only due to numerical or measurement error in β .

This is purely to justify why we care about condition numbers and linking concepts in numerical analysis with those in statistics. We would never actually convert the problem to this alternative format, partially because we cannot without knowledge of the error terms.

Ridge regression

The ridge regression estimator is the solution to the following modified least squares optimization problem for some value of $\lambda > 0$.

$$\widehat{\beta}_{ridge} = \arg\min_{b} \left\{ ||y - Xb||_2^2 + \lambda ||b||_2^2 \right\}$$

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- 1. The equation shrinks the coefficients towards zero, adding some bias but reducing the variance of the estimator.
- 2. Using the ℓ_2 -norm keeps the equation rotationally invariant.
- 3. Ridge regression has an analytical solution.

To see this write the criterion as a matrix equation:

$$(y - Xb)^{t}(y - Xb) + \lambda b^{t}b = y^{t}y + b^{t}X^{t}Xb - 2y^{t}Xb + \lambda b^{t}b$$

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$$(y - Xb)^t(y - Xb) + \lambda b^t b = y^t y + b^t X^t Xb - 2y^t Xb + \lambda b^t b$$

And take its derivative:

$$rac{\partial}{\partial eta} \left(y^t y + b^t X^t X b - 2 y^t X b + \lambda b^t b
ight) = 2 X^t X b - 2 X^t y + 2 \lambda b$$

Setting this to zero yields

$$2X^{t}X\widehat{\beta} + 2\lambda\widehat{\beta} = 2X^{t}y$$
$$(X^{t}X + I_{r}\lambda)\widehat{\beta} = X^{t}y$$

$$(X^{t}X + I_{p}\lambda)\widehat{\beta} = X^{t}y$$

 $\widehat{\beta} = (X^t X + I_p \lambda)^{-1} \cdot X^t y$

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This is a useful analytical form, though as with least squares we would generally not invert the matrix directly but instead use a stable matrix decomposition.

Now consider the singular value decomposition $U\Sigma V^t$ of the matrix X. We can write the projection matrix P in terms of this as:

$$P = X(X^{t}X)^{-1}X^{t}$$

$$= U\Sigma V^{t}(V\Sigma^{2}V^{t})^{-1}V\Sigma U^{t}$$

$$= U\Sigma V^{t}V\Sigma^{-2}V^{t}V\Sigma U^{t}$$

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This can be written as UU^t if we remember to use the *thin SVD*.

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Where P_0 is equal to the ordinary P. As was the case last time, this matrix maps y into the predicted values \hat{y} .

Notice that because VV^t is equal to the identity matrix, we can write the inner term of this projection matrix in a nice form:

$$X^{t}X + \lambda I_{p} = V\Sigma^{2}V^{t} + \lambda VV^{t}$$
$$= V(\Sigma^{2} + \lambda)V^{t}$$

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Where E_{λ} is a diagonal matrix with entries:

$$E_{\lambda} = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{max}^2 + \lambda}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sigma_{min}^2 + \lambda}\right)$$

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How does the incorporation of λ change our ability to invert the matrix?

$$P_{\lambda} = X(X^{t}X + \lambda I_{p})^{-1}X^{t}$$

$$= U\Sigma V^{t}(V^{t}\Sigma^{2}V + \lambda I_{p})^{-1}V\Sigma U^{t}$$

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For the diagonal matrix *D*:

$$D = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \lambda}, \dots, \frac{\sigma_p^2}{\sigma_p^2 + \lambda}\right) \tag{3}$$

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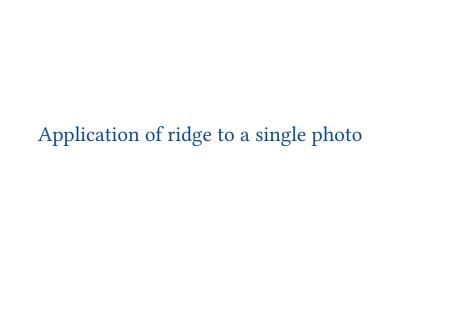
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So we are shrinking in the directions of the singular vectors, with more shrinkage on the smaller singular values.

Finally, and similarly, we can write the solution
$$\widehat{\beta}_{\lambda}$$
 as:

 $\widehat{eta}_{\lambda} = V \cdot \operatorname{diag}\left(rac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_1^2 + \lambda}, \dots, rac{\sigma_p}{\sigma_p^2 + \lambda}
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Principal component analysis

The principal components of the matrix X is a linear reparameterization T = XW of the matrix X such that:

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The principal components of the matrix X is a linear reparameterization T = XW of the matrix X such that:

- Each new coordinate is uncorrelated with the others; specifically, W is an orthogonal matrix called the *loadings*
- 2. The first component has the largest variance of all linear combinations of the columns of X, the second has the highest variance conditioned on being uncorrelated with the first, and so forth.

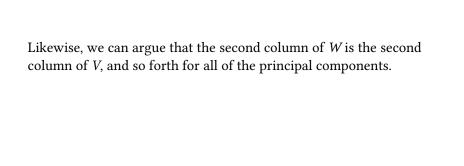
Considering the first column of the matrix W, we can write the condition as follows:

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$$\underset{w: ||w||_2=1}{\text{arg max}} \{||Xw||_2\}$$

However, we already know that this is maximized when w is a multiple of the first right singular vector. That is, the first column of V in the singular value decomposition $U\Sigma V^t$ of X.



Likewise, we can argue that the second column of *W* is the second column of *V*, and so forth for all of the principal components.

Therefore, the principal components are given by T = XV. This gives:

$$T = XV$$
$$= U\Sigma V^{t}V$$
$$= U\Sigma$$

So the components are the weighted columns of the left singular values.

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Notice that this can be simplified as:

$$\widehat{\beta}_k = V_k (\Sigma_k U^t U \Sigma_k)^{-1} \Sigma_k U_k y$$
$$= V_k \Sigma_k^{-1} U_k^t y$$

On problem set 5, you will show that when k is equal to p, the last line is equal to the ordinary least squares solution.

The variance matrix of the regression vector can be calculated as:

$$\operatorname{Var}(V_k \Sigma_k^{-1} U_k^t y) = \sigma^2 \cdot V_k \Sigma_k^{-1} U_k^t U_k \Sigma_k^{-1} V_k^t$$
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And the trace of this is given by:

$$\operatorname{Var}(V_k \Sigma_k^{-1} U_k^t y) = \sigma^2 \cdot V_k \Sigma_k^{-1} U_k^t U_k \Sigma_k^{-1} V_k^t$$

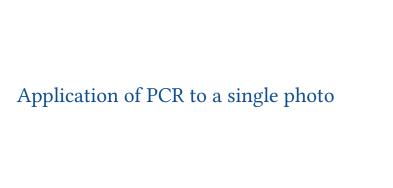
 $\operatorname{tr}\left(\operatorname{Var}\widehat{\beta}_{k}\right) = \sigma^{2} \cdot \operatorname{tr}\left(V_{k}\Sigma_{k}^{-2}V_{k}^{t}\right)$

 $=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_i^2}$

 $= \sigma^2 \cdot \operatorname{tr}(\Sigma_{L}^{-2})$

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\operatorname{\it Var}(\widehat{\beta}_1)\right) \leq \operatorname{tr}\left(\operatorname{\it Var}(\widehat{\beta}_2)\right) \leq \ldots \leq \operatorname{tr}\left(\operatorname{\it Var}(\widehat{\beta}_p)\right) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\operatorname{\it Var}(\widehat{\beta}_{\it ols})\right)$$

So PCR is another form of variance reduction.



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- 4. Both are invariant to rotations of the data matrix *X*
- 5. Both are sensitive to the scale and means of the columns *X*; typically a good idea to standardize these unless naturally on the same scale to begin with (color pixels is one example)

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- 5. The principal components provide dimension reduction in addition to shrinkage. The PCR can be preferable when you have a large number of variables and but want to preserve some sort of interpretability.
- 6. The principal components are also great for visualizations and as inputs in other machine learning algorithms.

What's next

Amazingly, we only have 4 more lectures before Thanksgiving break.

- 1. 11-09: Logistic regression revisited
- 2. 11-11, 11-16, 11-18: Lasso regression