

# Statistics 452: Statistical Learning and Prediction

## Chapter 6, Part 4: Considerations in High Dimensions

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# High-Dimensional Data

- ▶ The “dimension” of the regression/prediction problem is the number of predictors,  $p$ , not the sample size,  $n$ .
- ▶ Low-dimensional: Traditional statistical inference was designed for  $n \gg p$ .
- ▶ When  $n \approx p$ , these methods are subject to over-fitting, or may fail.
- ▶ High-dimensional: Data collection technologies are allowing more predictors to be measured on observational units, but the number of units is still limited, leading to  $p \gg n$ .
- ▶ High-dimensional data example: Genome-wide association studies.
  - ▶ It is now possible to type about 1 million single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across the genome, but study sizes are still in the 1000's.  $p \approx 1,000,000 \gg n \approx 2000$ .

# What Goes Wrong When $p$ Large?

- ▶ In a word: overfitting.
- ▶ Replicate the experiment summarized in Figure 6.23 of the text.
  - ▶ Illustrates the importance of using test set error to evaluate model performance
- ▶ A response  $Y$  on  $n = 20$  subjects, completely unrelated to predictors  $X_1, \dots, X_{20}$ .

```
set.seed(1)
R2 <- function(fit,TSS) { RSS <- sum(fit$residuals^2); 1-RSS/TSS }
n <- 20
y <- rnorm(n)
X <- matrix(NA,nrow=n,ncol=n)
for(i in 1:n) {
  X[,i] <- rnorm(n)
} # Equivalent to X <- matrix(rnorm(n*n),nrow=n,ncol=n)
fit <- lm.fit(X,y)
TSS <- sum((y-mean(y))^2)
R2(fit,TSS)
```

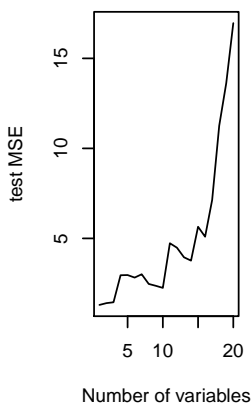
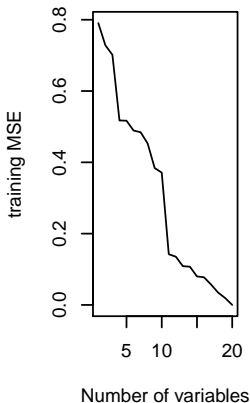
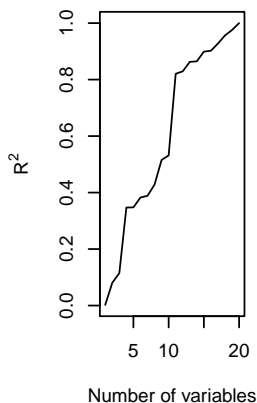
```
## [1] 1
```

```

# Simulate training data
Xtest <- matrix(rnorm(n*n),n,n)
ytest <- rnorm(n)
# Utility function to predict response based on lm.fit object
predict.lm.fit <- function(X,fit) { X%*%fit$coefficients }
R2vec <- trainMSE <- testMSE <- rep(NA,n) # vectors to hold our results
# Loop over different numbers of predictors
for(p in 1:n) {
  fit <- lm.fit(X[,1:p,drop=FALSE],y)
  R2vec[p] <- R2(fit,TSS)
  trainMSE[p] <- mean(fit$residuals^2)
  yhattest <- predict.lm.fit(Xtest[,1:p,drop=FALSE],fit)
  testMSE[p] <- mean((ytest-yhattest)^2)
}

```

```
opar <- par(mfrow=c(1,3))
plot(1:p,R2vec,xlab="Number of variables",ylab=expression(R^2),type="l")
plot(1:p,trainMSE,xlab="Number of variables",ylab="training MSE",type="l")
plot(1:p,testMSE,xlab="Number of variables",ylab="test MSE",type="l")
```

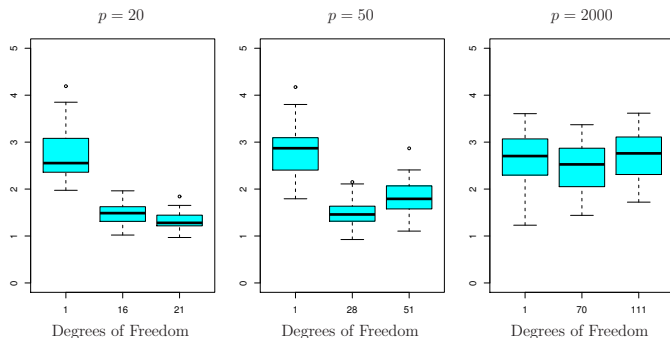


```
par(opar)
```

# High-Dimensional Regression ( $p \gg n$ )

- ▶ When  $p > n$  least squares has no unique solution.
- ▶ Other methods, such as forward selection, Lasso and PCR are useful.
- ▶ These approaches avoid overfitting by being less flexible than least squares.
- ▶ However, they also perform poorly if most of the predictors are noise.

# Illustration



- ▶ Text, Fig. 6.24: Lasso with  $n = 100$  and 20 predictors associated with response. Boxplots show test MSE for three values of tuning  $\lambda$  that lead to different numbers of non-zero coefficients (df).
  - ▶ When  $p = 20$ , no regularization (incl. all 21 terms) is best.
  - ▶ When  $p = 50$ , use a moderate amount of regularization.
  - ▶ When  $p = 2000$  even the lasso is overwhelmed by the noise, and no amount of regularization works.

# Curse of Dimensionality

- ▶ Notice that the test set error actually increases as the proportion of noise predictors increases.
- ▶ Conclusion: Adding noise predictors leads to a deterioration in the fitted model.



# Collinearity in High Dimensions

- ▶ Collinearity becomes severe in high dimensions.
  - ▶ Just as combinations of noise predictor variables can predict  $y$ , so can they predict other predictors.
  - ▶ E.G., 19 noise predictors explain about 60% of the variation in the 20th in our simulated data example

```
fit <- lm.fit(X[,1:19],X[,20])  
TSS20 <- sum((X[,20]-mean(X[,20]))^2)  
R2(fit,TSS20)
```

```
## [1] 0.592862
```

- ▶ When there are many predictors, a selected set is one of many that predicts the response.