

STAT 432: Basics of Statistical Learning

Penalized Linear Regression

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- Best subset selection
 - Computationally expensive; not feasible when p is large
- Forward/backward selection
 - No guarantee to find the best global sub-model
 - The selection process is discrete (“add” or “drop”). The result highly depends on the inclusion/exclusion criterion.

Motivation

- The OLS estimator is a linear function of y , and it is the BLUE.
- Recall that the **prediction accuracy** is

$$\text{Irreducible Error} + \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance}$$

- Generally, by **regularizing** (shrinking, penalizing) the estimator in some way, we can create a new estimator
 - The estimator is biased
 - The variance is reduced
 - Overall, we can have a better prediction accuracy

Shrinkage Methods

Shrinkage Methods

- ℓ_2 penalty: Ridge regression
- ℓ_1 penalty: Lasso

Ridge Regression

- Definition of the Ridge regression
- How to derive the solution through connections with PCA?
- Effect of shrinkage and the degrees of freedom
- Selecting the tuning parameter

Ridge Regression

Penalizing the square of the coefficients

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|^2$$

- proposed by Hoerl and Kennard (1970); Tikhonov (1943)
- $\lambda \geq 0$ is a **tuning parameter** (penalty level) that controls the amount of shrinkage
- penalizing the ℓ_2 norm of β , hence is called the **ℓ_2 penalty**
- the coefficients $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}}$ are shrunk towards 0

Solution for Ridge Regression

- We can also write the Ridge regression in matrix form:

$$\text{minimize } (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda\boldsymbol{\beta}^T\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

- Similar to solving the linear regression, by taking the derivative of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, we have the normal equation

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= -2\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + 2\lambda\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \implies \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} &= (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I})\boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \implies \boldsymbol{\beta} &= (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$

- Why this helps fitting a linear model?

The Effect of Ridge Regression

- The Ridge regression is frequently used for addressing highly correlated variables
- When some variables are linearly correlated (e.g., $p > n$) \mathbf{X} do not have full column rank
- This makes $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ singular, hence inverting this matrix becomes impossible
- However, $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I}$ is always full ranked

The Effect of Ridge Regression

- Highly correlated variables makes the estimation unstable
- If $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ is close to singular,

$$\det(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}) \rightarrow 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \det((\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}) \rightarrow \infty$$

- Since $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\sigma^2$, the **variance of $\hat{\beta}$** (or certain combinations of $\hat{\beta}$) is **extremely large**.
- Trade that variance with some bias?

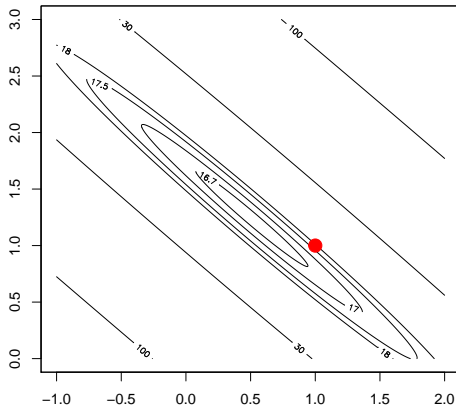
An Example

```
1 > library(MASS)
2 > set.seed(1)
3 > n = 30
4
5 > # highly correlated variables
6 > X = mvrnorm(n, c(0, 0), matrix(c(1,0.999, 0.999, 1), 2,2))
7 > y = rnorm(n, mean=1 + X[,1] + X[,2])
8
9 > # compare parameter estimates
10 > summary(lm(y~X))$coef
11
12      Estimate Std. Error   t value    Pr(>|t|)
13 (Intercept)  1.038007   0.1647551   6.300302 9.627026e-07
14 X1          -11.272638   4.6402098  -2.429338 2.205727e-02
15 X2           13.265586   4.6315269   2.864193 7.993486e-03
16
17 > # instead, the ridge regression
18 > lm.ridge(y~X, lambda=5)
19
20      X1      X2
21 1.1214448 0.8770568 0.9836474
```

Optimization Point-of-view

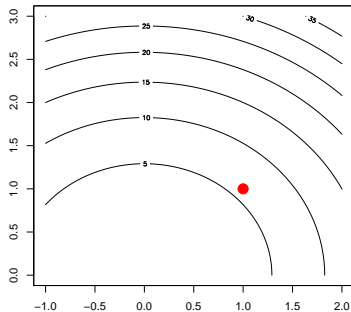
- The **instability** of having highly correlated variables can also be explained by the **lack of convexity** of the objective function
- The objective function of the OLS estimator is almost flat along certain combinations of the β parameters
- The optimal solution is greatly affected by the random errors
- The Ridge penalty $\lambda\beta^T\beta$ **forces some convexity**

Linear Regression

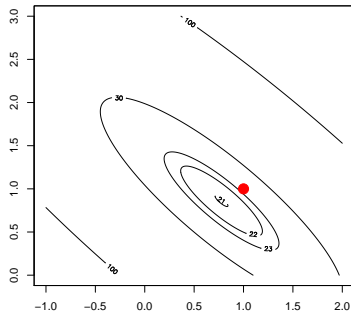


OLS loss function $(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$

Linear Regression



Ridge penalty: $\lambda \beta^T \beta$



Ridge objective function

Understanding the Shrinkage

- Suppose we have an **orthonormal design matrix** ($\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}$), then $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= (\mathbf{I} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}} \\ &= (1 + \lambda)^{-1} \hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}},\end{aligned}$$

- This means that we just need to shrink each element of $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}}$ by a factor of $(1 + \lambda)^{-1}$, i.e.,

$$\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ridge}} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda} \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}}, \text{ for all } j$$

Understanding the Shrinkage

- How about bias and variance under the orthonormal design
- $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ridge}}) = \frac{1}{(1+\lambda)^2} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}})$ (reduced from OLS!)
- $\text{Bias}(\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ridge}}) = \frac{-\lambda}{1+\lambda} \beta_j$ (biased!)
- There always exists a λ such that the prediction error of $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}}$ is smaller than $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}}$

Understanding the Shrinkage

- When the columns of \mathbf{X} are not orthogonal, we can utilize PCA
- The relationship between Ridge and PCA can be understood by (assuming \mathbf{X} centered) decomposing the covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D}^2 \mathbf{V}^T$$

- This means $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} = \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{D}^2 + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{V}^T$
- The Ridge fitted value $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ can be calculated as (since $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$)

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{y}} &= \mathbf{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ridge}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{D}^2 + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^p \mathbf{u}_j \left(\frac{d_j^2}{d_j^2 + \lambda} \mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{y} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Understanding the Shrinkage

- Hence, Ridge regression can be understood as
 - (1) Perform principle component analysis of \mathbf{X}
 - (2) Treat the principle components \mathbf{u}_j 's as new independent variables and project \mathbf{y} onto the them: $\mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{y}$ for each j
 - (3) Shrink the projections using the factor $d_j^2 / (d_j^2 + \lambda)$
- Directions with smaller eigenvalues d_j get more relative shrinkage.
- The ridge fitted value of $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is the sum of p shrunk projections.

- The Ridge regression solution is **not invariant with respect to the scale of the predictors!**
- The scale of variables determines d_j 's, hence affect the shrinkage.
- **A standard procedure:** perform centering and scaling on \mathbf{X} , perform centering on \mathbf{y} , and fit linear regression on the normalized data without intercept. The parameters on the original scale can be reversely solved.
- **The intercept term is not penalized.**
- Some packages (e.g. “**glmnet**” package, and **lm.ridge** function in **MASS** package) handles the centering and scaling automatically.

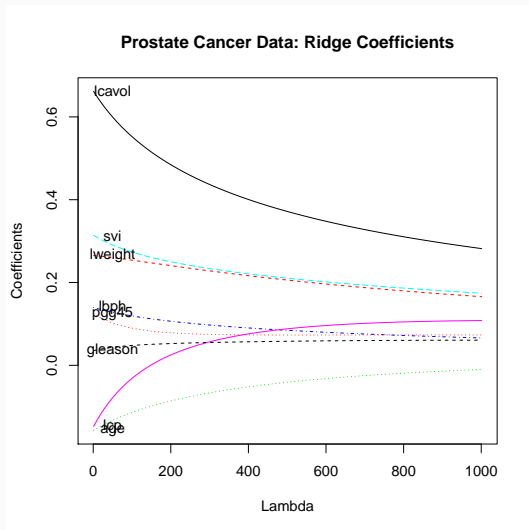
Tuning Parameter

- We need to tune the penalty term λ in a Ridge regression
- Cross-validation is possible, however, we also have some easier approach because Ridge regression, similar to linear regression, has some nice properties.
- The procedure is called GCV (generalized cross-validation)

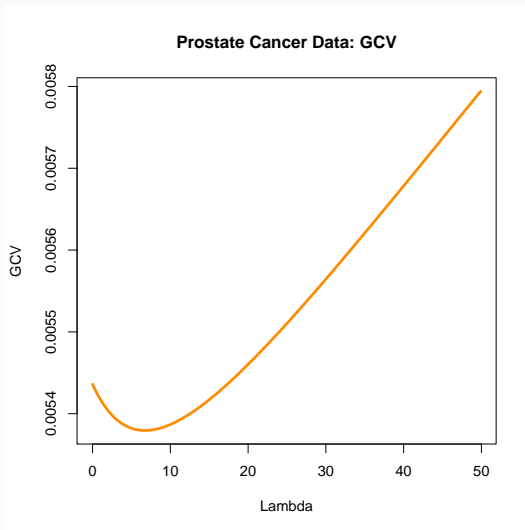
$$\text{GCV}(\lambda) = \frac{n^{-1} \|(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{S}_\lambda) \mathbf{y}\|^2}{(n^{-1} \text{Trace}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{S}_\lambda))^2}$$

- GCV is motivated from the leave-one-out cross-validation. This is implemented in `lm.ridge`.

Prostate Cancer Example



Prostate Cancer Example



An Example

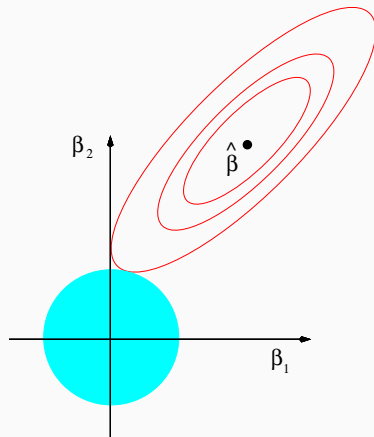
```
1 > library(ElemStatLearn)
2 > fit <- lm.ridge(lpsa~., prostate[, -10], lambda=seq(0,100,by=0.1))
3
4 > fit$lambda[which.min(fit$GCV)]
5
6 [1] 6.7
7
8 > round(fit$coef[, which.min(fit$GCV)], 4)
9
10 lcavol lweight age lbph svi lcp gleason pgg45
11 0.5812 0.2580 -0.1255 0.1247 0.2839 -0.0593 0.0454 0.0968
```


- An equivalent formulation is given by

$$\begin{array}{ll}\underset{\beta}{\text{minimize}} & \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \\ \text{subject to} & \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \leq s\end{array}$$

- There is a one-to-one correspondence between the parameters λ and s , but we can't find the explicit formula.

Ridge Regression



Ridge constrained solution

Degrees of Freedom

- Although $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}}$ is p -dimensional, it does not use the full potential of all p covariates due to the shrinkage.
- For example, if λ is very large, all the parameter estimates are 0. Then intuitively, the df should be close to 0. If λ is 0, then we reduce to the OLS with p df.
- The df of a Ridge regression is given by

$$\text{df}(\lambda) = \sum_{j=1}^p \frac{d_j^2}{d_j^2 + \lambda}$$

which is always between 0 and p .

Lasso: Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator

Motivation

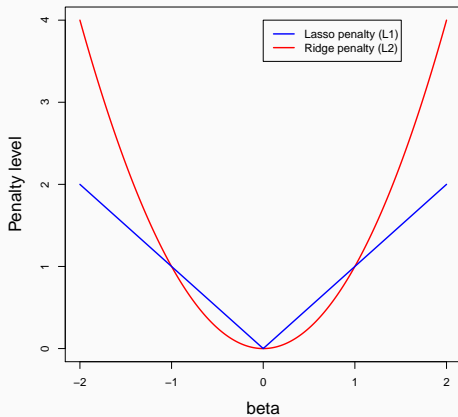
- The Ridge regression shrinks the coefficients towards 0, however, they are not exactly zero. Hence, we haven't achieve any "selection" of variables.
- **Parsimony**: we would like to select a small subset of predictions. Stepwise regression does not guarantee the global solution.
- Lasso provides a continuous process. We will discuss:
 - The formulation and convexity
 - The solution when \mathbf{X} is orthogonal
 - Some examples

Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (Tibshirani 1996)

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$

- Shrinkage of the ℓ_1 norm of the parameters
- **Property:** some will be exactly 0, hence achieves selection of parameters

Lasso



Lasso



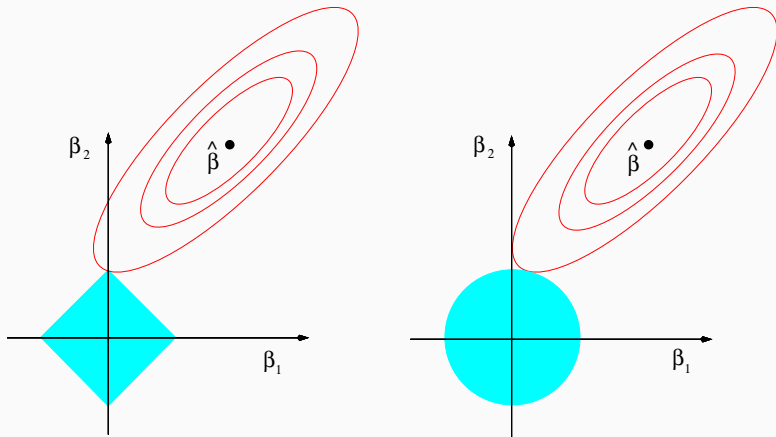
Equivalent Formulation

- The Lasso optimization problem is equivalent to

$$\begin{array}{ll}\underset{\beta}{\text{minimize}} & \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \\ \text{subject to} & \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \leq s\end{array}$$

- Each value of λ corresponds to a unique value of s .
- Compare Ridge and Lasso?

Ridge and Lasso



Comparing Lasso and Ridge solutions

Lasso Under Orthogonal Design

- Again, it will be helpful to view Lasso assuming orthogonal design, i.e., $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_{p \times p}$.
- We first analyze the loss part:

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 &= \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} + \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2\end{aligned}$$

- The cross-product term is

$$2(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}})^\top (\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 2\mathbf{r}^\top (\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0,$$

since the second term is in the column space of \mathbf{X} , while \mathbf{r} is orthogonal to that space.

Lasso Under Orthogonal Design

- Our Lasso problem can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} &= \arg \min_{\beta} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 \\ &= \arg \min_{\beta} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1\end{aligned}$$

- Since $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}}\|^2$ is not a function of β , this problem is reduced to

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \|\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$

Lasso Under Orthogonal Design

- Then, since $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_{p \times p}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{lasso}} &= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 \\&= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \boldsymbol{\beta})^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 \\&= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \boldsymbol{\beta})^\top (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ols}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 \\&= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sum_{j=1}^p (\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}} - \beta_j)^2 + \lambda |\beta_j|.\end{aligned}$$

- Note that each β_j is involved in a separate term, we can solve the lasso estimators individually from the OLS estimators.

Lasso Under Orthogonal Design

- Each of the β_j 's is essentially solving for an optimization problem

$$\arg \min_{\beta} (\beta - a)^2 + \lambda |\beta|, \quad \lambda > 0$$

- The solution is simply

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{lasso}} &= \begin{cases} \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}} - \lambda/2 & \text{if } \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}} > \lambda/2 \\ 0 & \text{if } |\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}}| \leq \lambda/2 \\ \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}} + \lambda/2 & \text{if } \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}} < -\lambda/2 \end{cases} \\ &= \text{sign}(\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}}) \left(|\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{ols}}| - \lambda/2 \right)_+ \end{aligned}$$

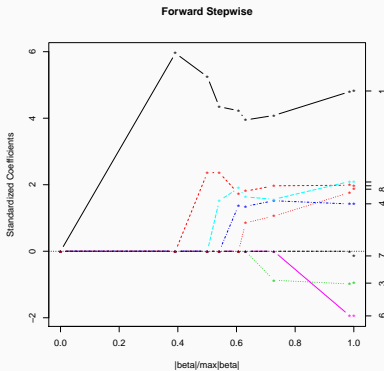
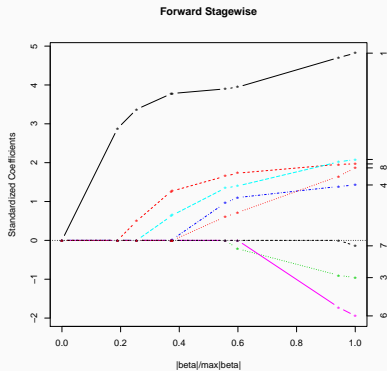
- A large λ will shrink some of the coefficients to exactly zero, which achieves “variable selection”.

Computation of Lasso Solution

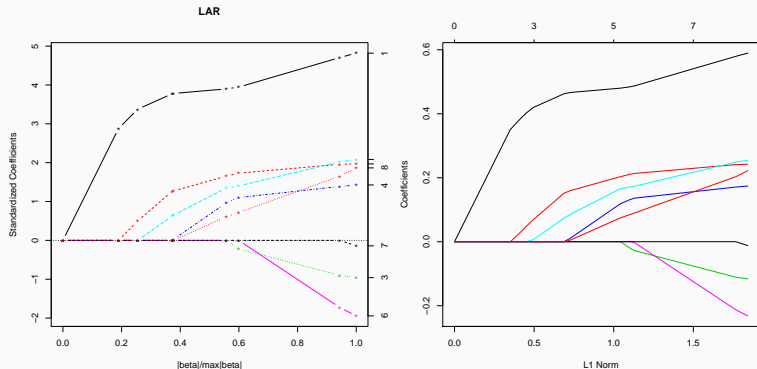
- When the covariates are not orthogonal, we will not be able to write down the explicit solution
- The Lasso problem is convex, although it may not be strictly convex in β when p is large
- The solution is a global minimum, but may not be **unique**

Computation of Lasso Solution

- There are algorithms that will produce equivalent solutions, although their computational costs are not the same
- Stage-wise regression (what is this?) Read ESL 3.3.3.
- Least angle regression (Efron et al. 2004) Read ESL 3.4.4.
- Coordinate descent (Friedman et al 2010): The most popular and fastest implementation, [glmnet](#) package
 - Also provides the solution path for an entire sequence of λ values
 - Start with the largest λ , use the previous estimation of β as a warm start for the solution of smaller λ



Comparing stagewise regression with stepwise regression



Comparing least angle regression with coordinate descent

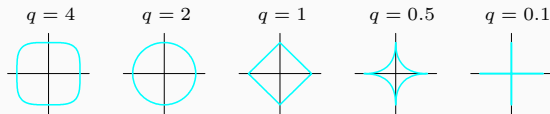


FIGURE 3.12. *Contours of constant value of $\sum_j |\beta_j|^q$ for given values of q .*

- Ridge is ℓ_2 penalty
- Lasso is ℓ_1 penalty
- Best subset is ℓ_0 penalty
- Elastic-net is a combination of Lasso and Ridge:

$$\lambda_1 \|\beta\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|\beta\|_2^2$$

R Functions

- Use [R](#) help and [R](#) manuals
- Linear models: function [lm](#)
- Ridge regression:
 - package [MASS](#) ; function [lm.ridge](#)
 - package [glmnet](#) ; function [glmnet](#) and [cv.glmnet](#) with [alpha = 0](#)
- Lasso:
 - package [lars](#) ; function [lars](#)
 - package [glmnet](#) ; function [glmnet](#) and [cv.glmnet](#) with [alpha = 1](#)
- Read more in [ISL Ch 6.2.1](#). Check [ESL Video](#).