S&DS 365 / 665
Intermediate Machine Learning

# **Sparse Regression**

Friday, September 1 (aka Monday, September 4)

### Welcome back!

- Course page: http://interml.ydata123.org
- iML page: https://ydata123.org/fa22/introml/calendar.html
- Quiz 1 posted on September 6
- Assignment 1 posted on September 13
- OH posted on Canvas / EdD
- Install IML environment (available from the course page)

## **Topics for today**

- Regression
- High dimensional regression
- Sparsity and the lasso

### Regression

We observe pairs  $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$ .

 $\mathcal{D} = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$  is called the *training data* 

 $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$  is the *response*;  $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is the *covariate* (or feature) vector

For example, suppose we have n subjects and  $Y_i$  is the blood pressure of subject i and  $X_i = (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ip})$  is a vector of p = 5,000 gene expression levels for subject i

Remember:  $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

Given a new pair (X, Y), we want to predict Y from X.

### Regression

Let  $\hat{Y}$  be a prediction of Y. The *prediction error* or *risk* is

$$R = \mathbb{E}(Y - \widehat{Y})^2$$

where  $\mathbb{E}$  is the expected value (mean).

The best predictor is the *regression function* 

$$m(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X=x) = \int y \, p(y|x) dy.$$

However, the true regression function m(x) is not known. We need to estimate m(x).

### Regression

Given the training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$  we want to construct  $\widehat{m}$  to make

prediction risk = 
$$R(\widehat{m}) = \mathbb{E}(Y - \widehat{m}(X))^2$$

small. Here, (X, Y) is a new pair.

### Bias-variance decomposition

$$R(\widehat{m}) = \int bias^2(x)p(x)dx + \int var(x)p(x) + \sigma^2$$

where

bias(x) = 
$$\mathbb{E}(\widehat{m}(x)) - m(x)$$
  
var(x) = Variance( $\widehat{m}(x)$ )  
 $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}(Y - m(X))^2$ 

### **Bias-Variance Tradeoff**

Prediction Risk = Bias<sup>2</sup> + Variance

Prediction methods with low bias tend to have high variance.

Prediction methods with low variance tend to have high bias.

For example, the predictor  $\widehat{m}(x) \equiv 0$  has 0 variance but will be badly biased.

To predict well, we need to balance the bias and the variance.

### **Bias-Variance Tradeoff**

More generally, we need to tradeoff approximation error against estimation error:

$$R(\widehat{f}) - R^* = \underbrace{R(\widehat{f}) - \inf_{f \in \mathcal{F}} R(f)}_{\text{estimation error}} + \underbrace{\inf_{f \in \mathcal{F}} R(f) - R^*}_{\text{approximation error}}$$

where  $R^*$  is the smallest possible risk and  $\inf_{f \in \mathcal{F}} R(f)$  is smallest possible risk using class of estimators  $\mathcal{F}$ .

- Approximation error is a generalization of squared bias
- Estimation error is a generalization of variance

## **Linear Regression**

Try to find the best linear predictor:

$$m(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p.$$

Important: We do *not* assume the true regression function is linear.

Can always define  $x_1 = 1$ ; then the intercept is  $\beta_1$  and we can write

$$m(x) = \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p = \beta^T x$$

where  $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)$  and  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)$ .

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### **Low Dimensional Linear Regression**

Assume for now that p (= length of each  $X_i$ ) is small. To find a good linear predictor we choose  $\beta$  to minimize the *training error*.

training error = 
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta^T X_i)^2$$

The minimizer  $\widehat{\beta} = (\widehat{\beta}_1, \dots, \widehat{\beta}_p)$  is called the *least squares estimator*.

## **Low Dimensional Linear Regression**

The least squares estimator is:

$$\widehat{\beta} = (\mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{X})^{-1} \mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{Y}$$

where

$$\mathbb{X}_{n \times p} = \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & \cdots & X_{1p} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & \cdots & X_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ X_{n1} & X_{n2} & \cdots & X_{np} \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\mathbb{Y}=(Y_1,\ldots,Y_n)^T.$$

Exercise: Show this

1:

## **Low Dimensional Linear Regression**

Summary: the least squares estimator is  $m(x) = \widehat{\beta}^T x = \sum_j \widehat{\beta}_j x_j$  where

$$\widehat{\beta} = (\mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{X})^{-1} \mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{Y}.$$

When we observe a new X, we predict Y to be

$$\widehat{Y} = \widehat{m}(X) = \widehat{\beta}^T X.$$

We can try to improve this by:

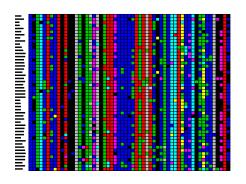
- (i) dealing with high dimensions
- (ii) using something more flexible than linear predictors.

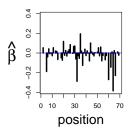
### Example

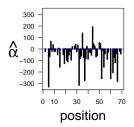
Y = HIV resistance

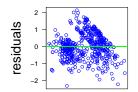
 $X_j$  = amino acid in position j of the virus.

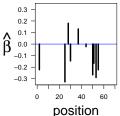
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_{100} X_{100} + \epsilon$$











Top left:  $\widehat{\beta}$  fitted values
Top right: marginal regression coefficients (one-at-a-time)

Bottom left:  $\widehat{Y}_i - Y_i$  versus  $\widehat{Y}_i$ 

Bottom right: a sparse regression (coming up soon)

## **Topics**

- Regression
- High dimensional regression
- Sparsity and the lasso

## **High Dimensional Linear Regression**

Now suppose p is large. We even might have p > n (more predictors than data points).

The least squares estimator is not defined since  $\mathbb{X}^T\mathbb{X}$  is not invertible. The variance of the least squares prediction is huge.

Recall the bias-variance tradeoff:

Prediction Error = Bias<sup>2</sup> + Variance

We need to increase the bias so that we can decrease the variance.

### **Ridge Regression**

Recall that the least squares estimator minimizes the training error  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Y_i-\beta^TX_i)^2$ .

Instead, we can minimize the penalized training error.

### Ridge regression

$$\widehat{\beta} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta^T X_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{n} \|\beta\|_2^2$$

where  $\|\beta\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_j \beta_j^2}$ . The solution is:

$$\widehat{\beta} = (\mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{X} + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{Y}$$

### **Ridge Regression**

The tuning parameter  $\lambda$  controls the bias-variance tradeoff:

$$\lambda = 0 \implies \text{least squares.}$$
 $\lambda = \infty \implies \widehat{\beta} = 0.$ 

We choose  $\lambda$  to minimize  $\widehat{R}(\lambda)$  where  $\widehat{R}(\lambda)$  is an estimate of the prediction risk.

## **Ridge Regression**

To estimate the prediction risk, do *not* use training error:

$$R_{\text{training}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \widehat{Y}_i)^2, \qquad \widehat{Y}_i = X_i^T \widehat{\beta}$$

because it is biased:  $\mathbb{E}(R_{\text{training}}) < R(\widehat{\beta})$ 

Instead, we use *leave-one-out cross-validation*:

- 1. leave out  $(X_i, Y_i)$
- 2. find  $\widehat{\beta}$
- 3. predict  $Y_i$ :  $\widehat{Y}_{(-i)} = \widehat{\beta}^T X_i$
- 4. repeat for each i

### Leave-one-out cross-validation

#### Can be shown that

$$\widehat{R}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \widehat{Y}_{(-i)})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(Y_i - \widehat{Y}_i)^2}{(1 - H_{ii})^2}$$

$$\approx \frac{R_{\text{training}}}{\left(1 - \frac{p_{\lambda}}{n}\right)^2}$$

$$\approx R_{\text{training}} + \frac{2p_{\lambda}\widehat{\sigma}^2}{n}$$

where

$$H = \mathbb{X}(\mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{X} + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbb{X}^T$$
 $p_{\lambda} = \text{trace}(H) = H_{11} + H_{22} + \cdots + H_{nn}$ 
"effective dimension" of the model

### **Example**

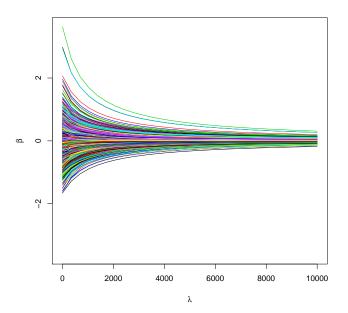
$$Y = 3X_1 + \dots + 3X_5 + 0X_6 + \dots + 0X_{1000} + \epsilon$$

$$n = 100, p = 1,000.$$

So there are 1000 covariates but only 5 are relevant.

What does ridge regression do in this case?

## **Ridge Regularization Paths**



## **Sparse Linear Regression**

Ridge regression does not take advantage of sparsity.

Maybe only a small number of covariates are important predictors. How do we find them?

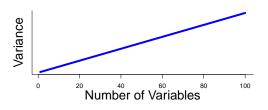
We could fit many submodels (with a small number of covariates) and choose the best one. This is called *model selection*.

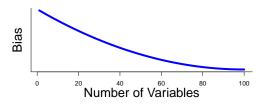
The inaccuracy is

prediction error = bias<sup>2</sup> + variance

Now the bias is the error due to omitting important variables. The variance is the error due to having to estimate many parameters.

### The Bias-Variance Tradeoff





### The Bias-Variance Tradeoff

This is a Goldilocks problem: Can't use too few or too many variables.

Have to choose just the right variables.

If there are p variables then there are  $2^p$  models.

Suppose we have 30,000 genes.

It seems we have to search through  $2^{30,000}$  models.

### Two things that save us

Two key ideas to make this feasible are sparsity and convex relaxation.

Sparsity: probably only a few genes are needed to predict some disease Y. In other words, of  $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_{30,000}$  most  $\beta_i \approx 0$ .

But which ones? (Needle in a haystack.)

Convex Relaxation: Replace model search with something easier.

It is the marriage of these two concepts that makes it all work.

### **Topics**

- Regression
- High dimensional regression
- Sparsity and the lasso

## **Sparsity**

Consider:

$$\beta = (5, 5, 5, 0, 0, 0, \dots, 0).$$

This vector is high-dimensional but it is sparse.

Here is a less obvious example:

$$\beta = (50, 12, 6, 3, 2, 1.4, 1, 0.8, 0.6, 0.5, \ldots)$$

It turns out that, if the  $\beta_j$ 's die off fairly quickly, then  $\beta$  behaves a like a sparse vector.

## **Sparsity**

We measure the (lack of) sparsity of  $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)$  with the *q*-norm

$$\|\beta\|_q = (|\beta_1|^q + \dots + |\beta_p|^q)^{1/q} = (\sum_j |\beta_j|^q)^{1/q}.$$

Which values of q measure (lack of) sparsity?

sparse: 
$$a = 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \cdots \quad 0$$
 not sparse:  $b = 1/\sqrt{p} \quad 1/\sqrt{p} \quad 1/\sqrt{p} \quad \cdots \quad 1/\sqrt{p}$  
$$\frac{\sqrt{\qquad \qquad }}{q=0 \quad q=1 \quad q=2} = \frac{\|a\|_q}{\|b\|_q} = \frac{1}{p} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} =$$

Upshot: Need to use  $q \le 1$  to measure sparsity.

## **Sparsity**

So we estimate  $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)$  by minimizing

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( Y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p X_{ip}) \right)^2$$

subject to the constraint that  $\beta$  is sparse i.e.  $\|\beta\|_q \leq \text{small}$ .

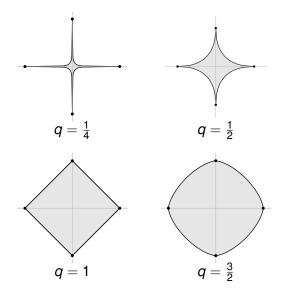
Can we do this minimization?

If we use q=0 this is same as searching through all  $2^p$  models, because  $\|\beta\|_q^q$  is the number of nonzero coefficients as  $q\to 0$ .

What about other values of *q*?

What does the set  $\{\beta: \|\beta\|_q \leq \text{small}\}\$ look like?

# The set $\|\beta\|_q \le 1$ when p = 2



## **Sparsity Meets Convexity**

We need these sets to have a nice shape (convex). If so, the minimization is no longer computationally hard. In fact, it is easy.

Sensitivity to sparsity:  $q \le 1$ Convexity (niceness):  $q \ge 1$ 

This means we should use q = 1.

## **Sparsity Meets Convexity**

### Lasso regression

$$\widehat{\beta} = \underset{\beta}{\text{arg min}} \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta^T X_i)^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$

where 
$$\|\beta\|_1 = \sum_j |\beta_j|$$
.

### Lasso

The result is an estimated vector

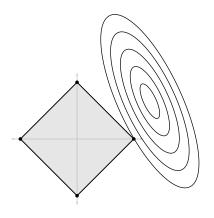
$$\widehat{\beta}_1,\ldots,\widehat{\beta}_p$$

Most are zero!

Magically, we have done model selection without searching (thanks to sparsity plus convexity).

The next picture gives intuition for why some  $\hat{\beta}_j = 0$ .

## **Sparsity: How corners create sparse estimators**



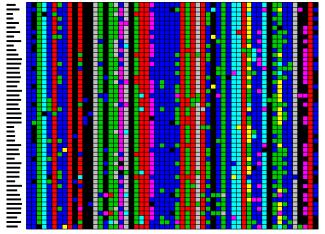
### **Standardization**

Note that, for both lasso and ridge regression, it's important to standarize the features — scale so that the standard deviation of each feature (column) is a constant.

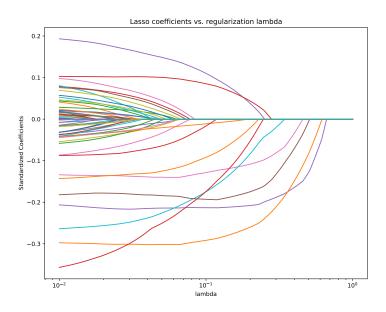
# Let's go to the notebook!

## The lasso: HIV example again

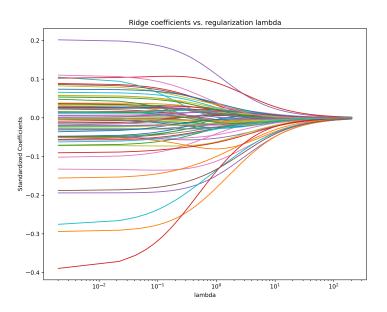
- Y is resistance to HIV drug.
- $X_j$  = amino acid in position j of the virus.
- p = 99,  $n \approx 100$ .



## The lasso: HIV example

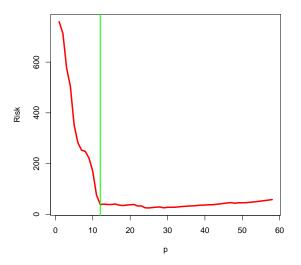


## **Contrast with ridge regression**

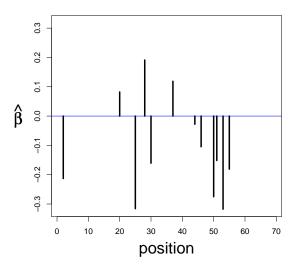


## Selecting $\lambda$

We choose the sparsity level by estimating prediction error.



### The lasso: An example



## **Sparsity and convexity**

Marriage of sparsity and convexity was one of biggest developments in statistics and machine learning in last 10-20 years

#### The lasso

•  $\widehat{\beta}(\lambda)$  is called the lasso estimator. Then define

$$\widehat{S}(\lambda) = \left\{ j : \ \widehat{\beta}_j(\lambda) \neq 0 \right\}.$$

• After you find  $\widehat{S}(\lambda)$ , you should re-fit the model by doing least squares on the sub-model  $\widehat{S}(\lambda)$ .

#### The lasso

Choose  $\lambda$  by risk estimation.

Re-fit the model with the non-zero coefficients. Then apply leave-one-out cross-validation:

$$\widehat{R}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \widehat{Y}_{(i)})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(Y_i - \widehat{Y}_i)^2}{(1 - H_{ii})^2} \approx \frac{1}{n} \frac{RSS}{(1 - \frac{s}{n})^2}$$

where *H* is the hat matrix and  $s = \#\{j : \widehat{\beta}_j \neq 0\}$ .

Choose  $\widehat{\lambda}$  to minimize  $\widehat{R}(\lambda)$ .

#### The lasso

#### The complete steps are:

- **1** Find  $\widehat{\beta}(\lambda)$  and  $\widehat{S}(\lambda)$  for each  $\lambda$ .
- **2** Choose  $\hat{\lambda}$  to minimize estimated risk.
- 3 Let  $\hat{S}$  be the selected variables.
- 4 Let  $\widehat{\beta}$  be the least squares estimator using only  $\widehat{S}$ .
- **5** Prediction:  $\widehat{Y} = X^T \widehat{\beta}$ .

## **Summary**

- For low dimensional (linear) prediction, we can use least squares.
- For high dimensional linear regression, we face a bias-variance tradeoff: omitting too many variables causes bias while including too many variables causes high variance.
- The key is to select a good subset of variables.
- The *lasso* ( $\ell_1$ -regularized least squares) is a fast way to select variables.
- If there are good, sparse linear predictors, lasso will work well.

# Some computational details (optional)



# Some convexity theory for the lasso

Consider a simpler model than regression: Suppose  $Y \sim N(\mu, 1)$ . Let  $\widehat{\mu}$  minimize

$$A(\mu) = \frac{1}{2}(Y - \mu)^2 + \lambda |\mu|.$$

How do we minimize  $A(\mu)$ ?

• Since A is convex, we set the subderivative = 0. Recall that c is a subderivative of f(x) at  $x_0$  if

$$f(x)-f(x_0)\geq c(x-x_0).$$

• The *subdifferential*  $\partial f(x_0)$  is the set of subderivatives. Also,  $x_0$  minimizes f if and only if  $0 \in \partial f$ .

## $\ell_1$ and soft thresholding

• If  $f(\mu) = |\mu|$  then

$$\partial f = \begin{cases} \{-1\} & \mu < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & \mu = 0 \\ \{+1\} & \mu > 0. \end{cases}$$

Hence,

$$\partial A = \begin{cases} \{\mu - Y - \lambda\} & \mu < 0 \\ \{\mu - Y + \lambda z : -1 \le z \le 1\} & \mu = 0 \\ \{\mu - Y + \lambda\} & \mu > 0. \end{cases}$$

## $\ell_1$ and soft thresholding

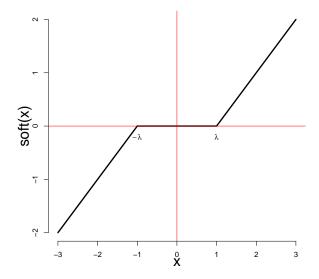
- $\widehat{\mu}$  minimizes  $A(\mu)$  if and only if  $0 \in \partial A$ .
- So

$$\widehat{\mu} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} Y + \lambda & Y < -\lambda \\ 0 & -\lambda \le Y \le \lambda \\ Y - \lambda & Y > \lambda. \end{array} \right.$$

This can be written as

$$\widehat{\mu} = \mathsf{soft}(Y, \lambda) \equiv \mathsf{sign}(Y) (|Y| - \lambda)_{+}.$$

## $\ell_1$ and soft thresholding



# The lasso: Computing $\widehat{\beta}$

To minimize  $\frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta^T X_i)^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$  by coordinate descent:

- Set  $\widehat{\beta} = (0, ..., 0)$  then iterate the following
- for j = 1, ..., p:
  - set  $R_i = Y_i \sum_{s \neq j} \widehat{\beta}_s X_{si}$
  - ▶ Set  $\widehat{\beta}_i$  to be least squares fit of  $R_i$ 's on  $X_i$ .
  - ▶  $\widehat{\beta}_j \leftarrow \mathsf{Soft}_{\lambda_j}(\widehat{\beta}_j)$  where  $\lambda_j = \frac{\lambda}{\frac{1}{n}\sum_i X_{ij}^2}$ .
- Then use least squares  $\widehat{\beta}$  on selected subset S.

#### Variations on the lasso

"Elastic net": minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta^T X_i)^2 + \lambda_1 \|\beta\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|\beta\|_2^2$$

Group lasso:

$$\beta = (\underbrace{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k}_{v_1}, \dots, \underbrace{\beta_t, \dots, \beta_p}_{v_m})$$

minimize:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \beta^{T} X_{i})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{m} ||v_{j}||$$