Introduction to Machine Learning CS182

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Today:

- Linear Methods for Regression I
 - Linear regression models
 - The Gauss-Markov theorem
 - Subsets selection

Readings:

- The Elements of Statistical Learning (ESL), Chapters 3
- Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning (PRML), Chapter 3

Introduction

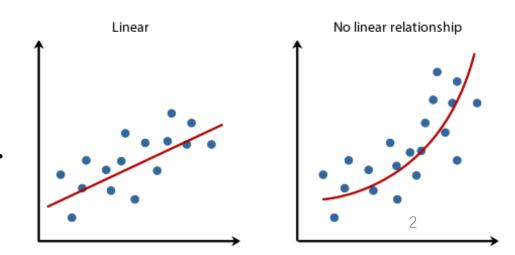
• A linear regression model assumes that,

Regression function $\min_f \text{EPE}(f)$

$$f(x) = \mathrm{E}(Y|X=x)$$

- \square linear in the inputs $X_1, X_2, ..., X_p$.
 - $p = 1 \rightarrow \text{simple linear regression}$
 - $p > 1 \rightarrow$ multiple linear regression

- Suitable for the situations:
 - small number of training samples
 - low signal-to-noise ratio
 - sparse data
- Generalize to many nonlinear techniques.



Linear Methods for Regression

--- Linear Regression Models

Simple Linear Regression

- Training set: $(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_N, y_N)$
 - x_i : value of predictor X (covariate, independent variable, feature,...)
 - y_i : value of response Y (dependent variable, label,...)
- We denote the regression function by

$$f(x) = \mathrm{E}(Y|X=x)$$

- \Box conditional expectation of Y given x
- The linear regression model assumes a specific linear form

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta x$$

usually thought of as an approximation to the truth

Simple Linear Regression

• Fitting the model by least squares

the values of β_0 , β for which $RSS(\beta_0, \beta)$ attains it's minimum.

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta} = \overline{\operatorname{argmin}_{\beta_0, \beta}} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta x_i)^2$$

• Solutions are

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}$$

Q: How to get the solutions?

• $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta} x_i$ are called the *fitted* or *predicted* values

•
$$r_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}x_i$$
 are called the *residuals*

sample mean:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i$$

- Given $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)^T$
- E(Y|X) is (approximately) linear:

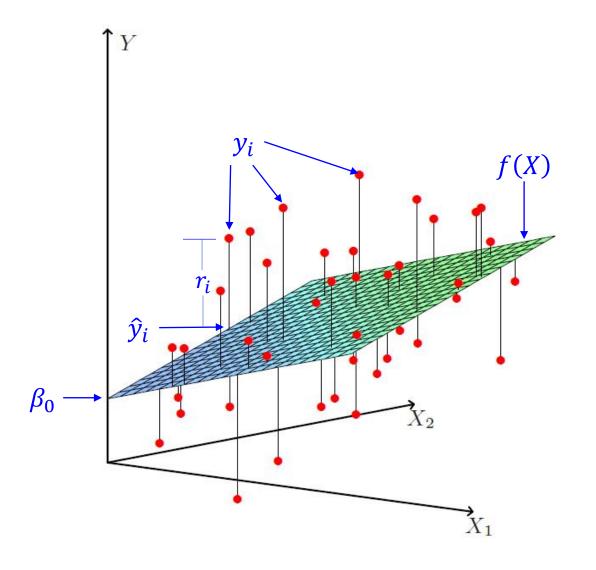
$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_j$$

- Sources of the variable X_i
 - quantitative inputs
 - transformation
 - basis expansions
 - dummy coding
 - interaction
- Linear in the parameters β

- Training data $(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_N, y_N)$
- Least squares:

RSS(
$$\beta$$
) = $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$
= $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{ij} \beta_j)^2$

- It is reasonable once
 - Observations (x_i, y_i) are randomly sampled from their population
 - Output y_i is conditionally independent w.r.t. the inputs x_i
- No guarantee on the validity of model



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- Minimization of $RSS(\beta)$
- Rewrite it by the vector form:

$$RSS(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

• Differentiating w.r.t. β

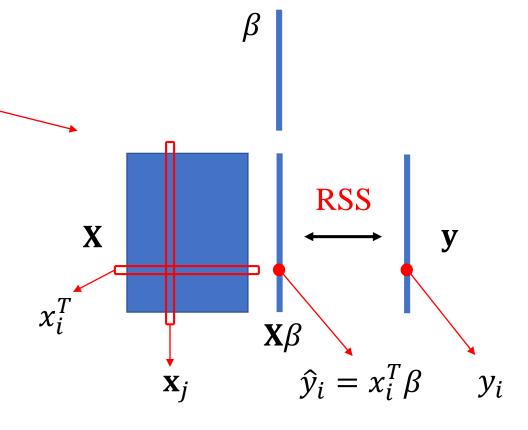
$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$$

• Set the first derivative to zero

$$\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0$$

• If X has full column rank,

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$



- Minimization of RSS(β)
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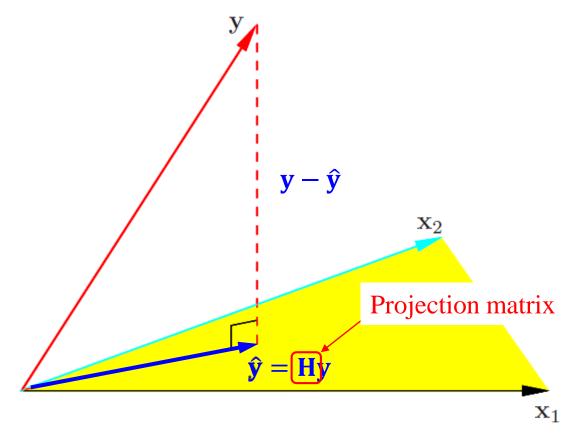
• Prediction on a test sample x_0

$$\hat{f}(x_0) = (1:x_0)^T \hat{\beta}$$

• The fitted values at the training inputs

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}$$

- The "hat" matrix H
 - like a hat put on y
- Geometrical interpretation
 - The optimal $\hat{\beta}$ makes the residual vector $\mathbf{y} \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ orthogonal to the subspace spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X}



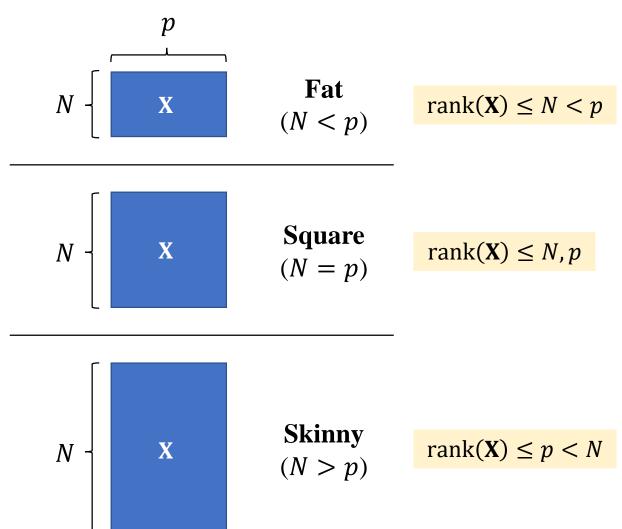
$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x_1}, ..., \mathbf{x_p}), \text{ where } \mathbf{x_j} = \left(x_{1j}, ..., x_{Nj}\right)^T \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

- Prediction on a test sample x_0 $\hat{f}(x_0) = (1:x_0)^T \hat{\beta}$
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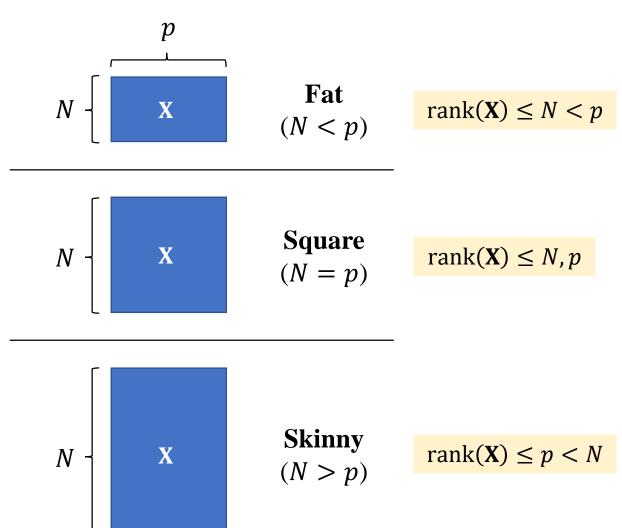
On the singularity of $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$

- Fat data matrix X
 - singular
- Square data matrix **X**
 - probably singular
 - nonsingular if $rank(\mathbf{X}) = p$
- *Skinny* data matrix **X**
 - probably nonsingular
 - singular if $rank(\mathbf{X}) < p$

The solution $\hat{\beta}$ is unique once $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is nonsingular (rank(\mathbf{X}) = p)



- Rank deficient X
 - coding qualitative inputs
 - > redundancy in columns of X
 - image and signal analysis
 - \rightarrow more features (p > N)
- Two ways to overcome it
 - feature selection (dimension reduction)
 - regularization



Multiple Output Regression*

- Multiple outputs $Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_K$
- Assume a linear model for each output

$$Y_k = \beta_{0k} + \sum_{j=1}^{p} X_j \beta_{jk} + \varepsilon_k = f_k(X) + \varepsilon_k$$

• In matrix notation

$$Y = XB + E$$

where $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (p+1)}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p+1) \times K}$ and $\mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times K}$.

• A generalization of the univariate loss function

RSS(**B**) =
$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_{ik} - f_k(x_i))^2 = ||\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}||_F^2$$

Multiple Output Regression*

• Our problem:

$$\hat{\mathbf{B}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{B}} \operatorname{RSS}(\mathbf{B}) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{B}} ||\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}||_F^2$$

- A quadratic function with global minimum
- Rewrite RSS(**B**) as follows RSS(**B**) = $\text{Tr}((\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B})^T(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}))$ = $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{Y}^T\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y}) + \mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B})$ = $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{Y}^T\mathbf{Y}) - 2\text{Tr}(\mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y}) + \text{Tr}(\mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B})$
- Differentiating w.r.t. **B**

$$\frac{\partial RSS(\mathbf{B})}{\partial \mathbf{B}} = -2\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}$$

• If $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is nonsingular, $\widehat{\mathbf{B}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$ $\widehat{\beta}_k = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}_k, \forall k$

Linear Methods for Regression

--- The Gauss-Markov Theorem

The Gauss-Markov Theorem

The least squares estimator has the lowest sampling variance within the class of linear unbiased estimators.

Proof: suppose $\tilde{\beta} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{y}$ is a linear estimator of $\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$, where $\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T + \mathbf{D}$, and $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times N}$ is a non-zero matrix

$$\mathbf{E}[\tilde{\beta}] = \mathbf{E}[Cy]
= \mathbf{E}[((X'X)^{-1}X' + D) (X\beta + \varepsilon)]
= ((X'X)^{-1}X' + D) X\beta + ((X'X)^{-1}X' + D) \mathbf{E}[\varepsilon]
= ((X'X)^{-1}X' + D) X\beta
= (X'X)^{-1}X'X\beta + DX\beta
= (Ip + DX)\beta.$$

$$\mathbf{E}[\varepsilon] = 0$$

If and only if $\mathbf{DX} = 0$, $\tilde{\beta}$ is unbiased.

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \operatorname{Var}(Cy) \qquad \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{y}) = E\left[\mathbf{y} - E\left[\mathbf{y}\right]\right]^{2} = \operatorname{Var}(\varepsilon)$$

$$= C \operatorname{Var}(y) C'$$

$$= \sigma^{2} CC'$$

$$= \sigma^{2} \left((X'X)^{-1}X' + D \right) \left(X(X'X)^{-1} + D' \right)$$

$$= \sigma^{2} \left((X'X)^{-1}X'X(X'X)^{-1} + (X'X)^{-1}X'D' + DX(X'X)^{-1} + DD' \right)$$

$$= \sigma^{2} (X'X)^{-1} + \sigma^{2}(X'X)^{-1} \left(DX \right) + \sigma^{2}DX(X'X)^{-1} + \sigma^{2}DD'$$

$$= \sigma^{2} (X'X)^{-1} + \sigma^{2}DD' \qquad \mathbf{DX} = 0$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^{2} (\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \qquad \operatorname{Positive semidefinite} \qquad 16$$

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Given an arbitrary test point x_0 , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Var}(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_0) &= \mathbf{Var}(\mathbf{x}_0^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \\ &= \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{Var}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \mathbf{x}_0 \\ &= \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \mathbf{x}_0 + \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{x}_0 \\ &= \mathbf{Var}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_0) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{x}_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}(\tilde{\beta}) &= \operatorname{Var}(Cy) \\ &= C \operatorname{Var}(y)C' \\ &= \sigma^2 CC' \\ &= \sigma^2 \left((X'X)^{-1}X' + D \right) \left(X(X'X)^{-1} + D' \right) \\ &= \sigma^2 \left((X'X)^{-1}X'X(X'X)^{-1} + (X'X)^{-1}X'D' + DX(X'X)^{-1} + DD' \right) \\ &= \sigma^2 (X'X)^{-1} + \sigma^2 (X'X)^{-1} (DX)' + \sigma^2 DX(X'X)^{-1} + \sigma^2 DD' \\ &= \sigma^2 (X'X)^{-1} + \sigma^2 DD' \\ &= \operatorname{Var}(\widehat{\beta}) + \sigma^2 DD' \end{aligned}$$

The Gauss-Markov Theorem

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Remarks

- Among the unbiased linear methods, least squares has the lowest MSE
 - \square MSE = Var + Bias²
- A biased methods probably has lower MSE
 - Var-Bias trade-off

Linear Methods for Regression

--- Subset Selection

Introduction

Two limitations of least squares

- prediction accuracy
 - low bias and high variance
 - → sacrifice a little bias to reduce the variance
- interpretation
 - hard to interpret a large number of input features
 - → find a subset of features exhibiting strong effects

We use model selection to overcome the limitations

- variable subset selection, shrinkage, dimension reduction.
- not restricted to linear models

Subset Selection

• Best-subset selection

For each $s \in \{0,1,...,p\}$, find the subset in size of s that gives lowest $RSS(\beta) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}^{(s)}\beta\|_{2}^{2}$

$$\binom{4}{2} = 6$$

p = 4 $s = 2$	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	$\mathbf{X}^{(s)}$
Model 1	√	√	×	×	$(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2)$
Model 2	√	×	√	×	$(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_3)$
Model 3	√	×	×	√	$(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_4)$
Model 4	×	√	√	×	$(\mathbf{x}_2,\mathbf{x}_3)$
Model 5	×	√	×	√	$(\mathbf{x}_2,\mathbf{x}_4)$
Model 6	×	×	√	√	$(\mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4)$

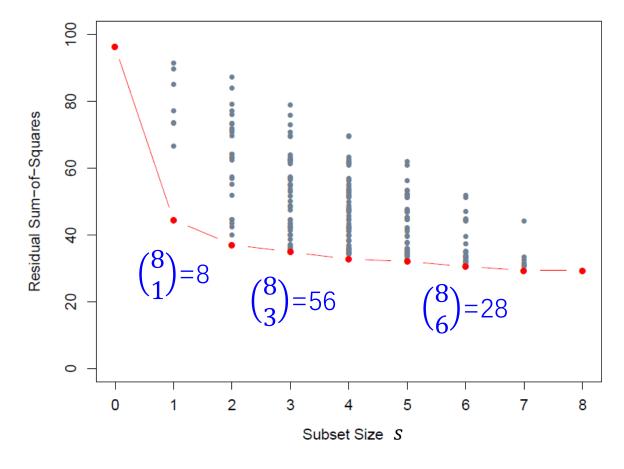
Subset Selection

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Example

- \Box prostate cancer example (p = 8)
- the red lower bound denotes the models eligible for selection
- the red lower bound keeps decreasing (s = 8?)
- cross-validation to estimate prediction error and select s
- Typically intractable for p > 40



All the subset models for the prostate cancer example.

Forward- and Backward-Stepwise Selection

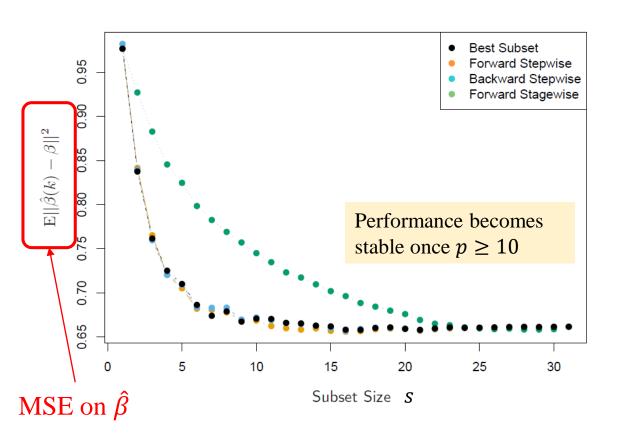
- Forward-stepwise
 - starts with intercept
 - sequentially adds the best predictor
- Greedy algorithm
 - sub-optimal
- Advantages
 - Computational
 - even $p \gg N$
 - Statistical
 - constrained search
 - lower variance, more bias

Forward- and Backward-Stepwise Selection

- Forward-stepwise
 - starts with intercept
 - sequentially adds the best predictor
- Greedy algorithm
 - sub-optimal
- Advantages
 - Computational
 - even $p \gg N$
 - Statistical
 - constrained search
 - lower variance, more bias

- Backward-stepwise
 - starts with the full model
 - sequentially deletes the worst predictor
- Greedy algorithm
- Only useful when N > p
 - linear regression
- Smart stepwise
 - group of variables
 - add or drop whole groups at a time

Forward- and Backward-Stepwise Selection



• Example

$$Y = X^T \beta + \varepsilon$$

$$N = 300, p = 31$$

- only 10 variables are effective
- similar performance

K-Fold Cross-Validation

- Each has a complexity parameter λ
 - the subset size in subset selection
 - the neighborhood size in *k*-NN
 - The coefficient of regularization
- K-fold cross validation
 - divide the training data into K roughly equal parts (K = 5 or 10)
 - for k = 1, ..., K,
 - fit the model with K-1 parts
 - compute the error E_k on the rest part
 - The *K*-fold cross validation error

$$E(\lambda) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} E_k(\lambda)$$

Repeat this for many values of λ , and choose the best value that makes $E(\lambda)$ lowest.

