

Linear Models in Matrix Form

$$y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$
$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Estimating β

Suppose we have a vector data y from a linear model

$$y = X\beta + \varepsilon,$$

where X is a known design matrix.

To estimate the parameter vector β we can use a least-square approach:

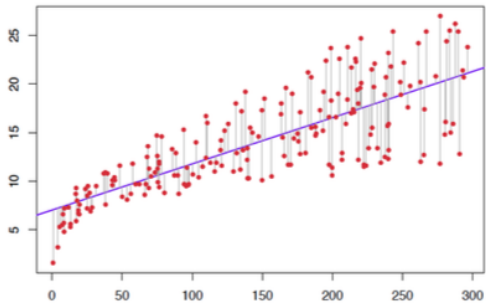
Find $\widehat{\beta} = (\widehat{\beta}_0, \dots, \widehat{\beta}_p)^\top$ such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \{\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} + \widehat{\beta}_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \widehat{\beta}_p x_{ip}\})^2 \text{ is minimal.}$$

We write as:

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\beta}^{\text{OLS}} &= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \beta^\top x^{(i)})^2 \\ &= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}_{\text{least squares}}\end{aligned}$$

Least Squares



It can be shown that this gives the least squares estimate

$$\widehat{\beta}^{\text{OLS}} = (X^{\top} X)^{-1} X^{\top} y,$$

where $(X^{\top} X)^{-1}$ is the inverse of the matrix $X^{\top} X$.

The issue with large datasets: $p \gg n$

- Simple linear model: $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$

	Gene 1	Gene 2	Gene 2000
Sample 1	0.5	5.5	10.5
Sample 2	1.5	2.5	-1.1
Sample 20	2.5	-5.8	1.2

	Phn 1
Sample 1	0.5
Sample 2	1.5
Sample 20	2.5

$$\widehat{\beta}^{\text{OLS}} = (X^{\top} X)^{-1} X^{\top} y,$$

$\hookrightarrow (X^{\top} X)$ is not invertible if $p > n$ or in presence of strong collinearity.

Alternative: Ridge regression

Ridge regression is like least squares but shrinks the estimated coefficients towards zero.

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \beta^\top x^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \underbrace{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}_{\text{Loss}} + \lambda \underbrace{\|\beta\|_2^2}_{\text{Penalty}}\end{aligned}$$

Here $\lambda \geq 0$ is a **tuning parameter**, which controls the strength of the penalty term.

Theorem

The solution to the ridge regression problem is given by

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

Remind that:

$$\widehat{\beta}^{\text{OLS}} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

Note the similarity to the ordinary least squares solution, but with the addition of a "ridge" down the diagonal.

Implementation: OLS and Ridge

```
matX <- matrix(rnorm(20*10),ncol=20,nrow=10)
beta <- c(rep(1,5),rep(0,15))
beta
```

```
[1] 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
```

```
y <- matX%%beta + rnorm(10,sd=0.1)
mod <- lm(y~matX)
summary(mod)
```


Implementation: OLS and Ridge

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ matX - 1)
```

Residuals:

ALL 10 residuals are 0: no residual degrees of freedom!

Coefficients: (10 not defined because of singularities)

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
matX1	0.78954	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX2	0.93865	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX3	1.17603	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX4	0.78489	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX5	1.20890	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX6	-0.03265	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX7	0.19857	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX8	-0.32279	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX9	0.06134	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX10	0.24272	NaN	NaN	NaN
matX11	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX12	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX13	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX14	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX15	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX16	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX17	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX18	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX19	NA	NA	NA	NA
matX20	NA	NA	NA	NA

Residual standard error: NaN on 0 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 1, Adjusted R-squared: NaN

F-statistic: NaN on 10 and 0 DF, p-value: NA

Inverse the design matrix

```
solve(t(matX)%*%matX)
# Error in solve.default(t(matX) %*% matX) :
#system is computationally singular: reciprocal condition number = 7.65949e-19
```

Ridge model with MASS package

```
require(MASS)
lm.ridge(y~matX-1,lambda=0.1)
```

```
##      matX1      matX2      matX3      matX4      matX5      matX6
##  0.81391545  0.53677792  0.76455741  0.89437115  0.54794319  0.08616459
##      matX7      matX8      matX9      matX10     matX11     matX12
## -0.55896591 -0.25240448  0.34549913  0.30462063 -0.25491506  0.28705247
##      matX13     matX14     matX15     matX16     matX17     matX18
##  0.04316652 -0.27902114 -0.03797998 -0.22352521 -0.10017168  0.16558377
##      matX19     matX20
## -0.25023519 -0.05049615
```

Ridge model with glmnet package

```
require(glmnet)
model <- glmnet(matX,y,alpha=0,lambda = 0.1)
as.vector(model$beta)
```

```
## [1] 0.89315873 0.47423307 0.60033542 0.81764680 0.52854941 0.08287656
## [7] -0.54911709 -0.25200421 0.35006137 0.30629861 -0.20745540 0.22934065
## [13] 0.14385838 -0.28709342 -0.04065775 -0.21941942 -0.10915131 0.17062777
## [19] -0.20236951 -0.06212413
```

Result is depending of the choice of the tuning parameter:

↪ **Cross-validation** to tune this parameter using the **cv.glmnet()** function

Ridge vs. OLS in the presence of collinearity

The benefits of ridge regression are most striking in the presence of **multicollinearity**, as illustrated in the following example:

```
set.seed(10)
x1 <- rnorm(20)
x2 <- rnorm(20, mean=x1, sd=.01)
## cor(x1,x2) ## 0.9999435
y <- 3+x1+x2+rnorm(20)
lm(y~x1+x2)$coef
```

```
## (Intercept)          x1          x2
##      3.300134  -19.042300   21.333330
```

```
lm.ridge(y~x1+x2, lambda=1)
```

```
##              x1          x2
## 3.142965  1.083529  1.130301
```

Recap: ridge regression

- We learned **ridge regression**, which minimizes the usual regression criterion plus a penalty term on the **squared L_2 norm** of the coefficient vector. As such, it shrinks the coefficients towards zero. This introduces some bias, but can greatly reduce the variance, resulting in a better mean-squared error.
- The amount of shrinkage is controlled by λ , the **tuning parameter** that multiplies the ridge penalty.
- Large λ means more shrinkage, and so we get different coefficient estimates for different values of λ . **Choosing** an appropriate value of λ is important, and also difficult.

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- Ridge regression performs particularly well when there is a subset of true coefficients that are **small** or even **zero**.
- However ridge regression **cannot perform variable selection**, and even though it performs well in terms of prediction accuracy, it does poorly in terms of offering a clear interpretation

Optimization of ridge regression

- Can rewrite the optimization problem

$$\min_{w_0 \in \mathbb{R}, w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y^{(i)} - w_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p w_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p w_j^2$$

in the proper objective/constraint form:

$$\min_{w_0 \in \mathbb{R}, w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y^{(i)} - w_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p w_j x_{ij} \right)^2$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p w_j^2 \leq t$$

- Correspondence $\lambda \Rightarrow t$ can be shown using Lagrange multipliers.

Lasso regression

- The lasso estimate is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} &= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \beta^\top x^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \\ &= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2}_{\text{Loss}} + \lambda \underbrace{\|\beta\|_1}_{\text{Penalty}}\end{aligned}$$

- The objective function to maximize is

$$-\sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - w^\top \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2 - \lambda \sum_{j=1}^m |w_j|$$

where $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$. (Sorry, we change the notation $m = p$ is the number of predictors)

- It is still concave (i.e. unique maximum), but unfortunately neither closed-form solution nor gradient descent will do the trick.
- The only difference between the lasso problem and ridge regression is that the latter uses a (squared) L_2 penalty $\|\beta\|_2^2$, while the former uses an L_1 penalty $\|\beta\|_1$. But even though these problems look similar, their solutions behave very differently
- Note the name “lasso” is actually an acronym for: **Least Absolute Selection and Shrinkage Operator**

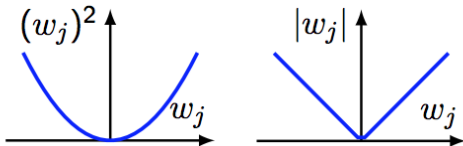
Optimization for Lasso

- Similarly, for Lasso:

$$\min_{w_0 \in \mathbb{R}, w \in \mathbb{R}^m} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y^{(i)} - w_0 - \sum_{j=1}^m w_j x_{ij} \right)^2$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^m |w_j| \leq t$$

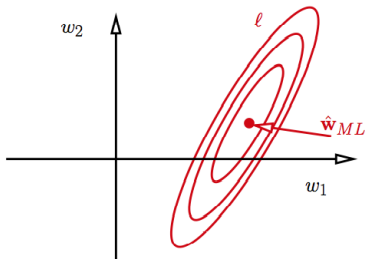
- Compare shape of the penalty as a function of w_j :



Lasso vs. ridge: geomtry of error surfaces

- An equivalent formulation for L_p regularization: constrained maximization

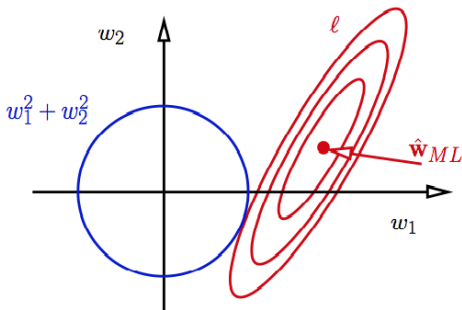
$$\underset{\mathbf{w}: \sum_{j=1}^n |w_j|^p \leq t}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y^{(i)} - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$



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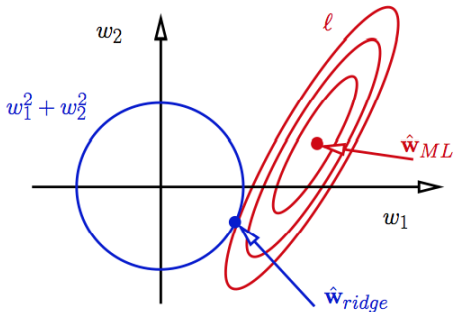
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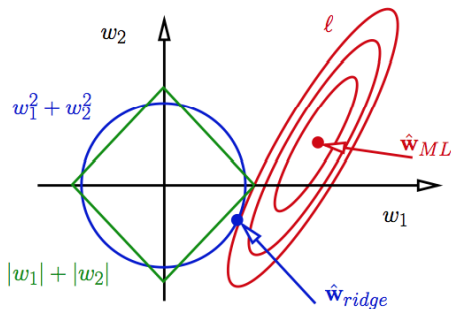
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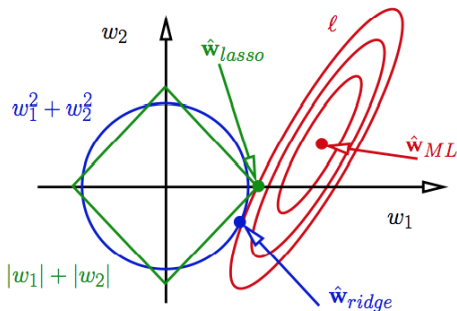
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Advantage in interpretation: Prostate cancer study

- An example, consider the data from a 1989 study examining the relationship **prostate-specific antigen (PSA)** and a number of clinical measures in a sample of 97 men who were about to receive a radical prostatectomy.
- PSA is typically elevated in patients with **prostate cancer**, and serves as a **biomarker** for the early detection of the cancer
- The explanatory variables:
 - `lcavol`: Log cancer volume
 - `lweight`: Log prostate weight
 - `age`
 - `lbph`: Log benign prostatic hyperplasia
 - `svi`: Seminal vesicle invasion
 - `lcp`: Log capsular penetration
 - `gleason`: Gleason score
 - `pgg45`: % Gleason score 4 or 5.

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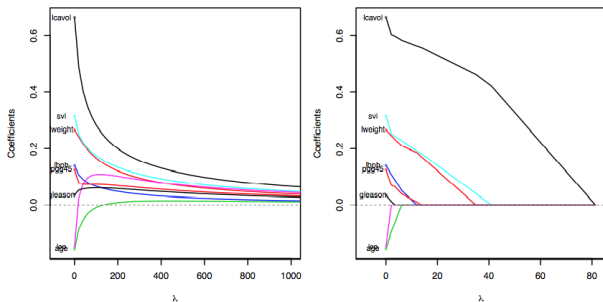
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We are interested in identifying a small number of predictors, say 2 or 3, that drive PSA

Advantage in interpretation

On top the fact that the lasso is competitive with ridge regression in terms of this prediction error, it has a big advantage with respect to **interpretation**. This is exactly because it sets coefficients exactly to zero, i.e., it performs variable selection in the linear model.

Prostate cancer data example:



Choice of λ : degrees of freedom

- For **linear regression**, $\widehat{y} = X\widehat{\beta}^{\text{OLS}}$, we have $df(\widehat{y}) = p$
- For **ridge regression**, $\widehat{y} = X\widehat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}}$, where

$$\widehat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2$$

we have $df(\widehat{y}) = \operatorname{trace}(X(X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T)$

- For the **lasso** $\widehat{y} = X\widehat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}}$, where

$$\widehat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$

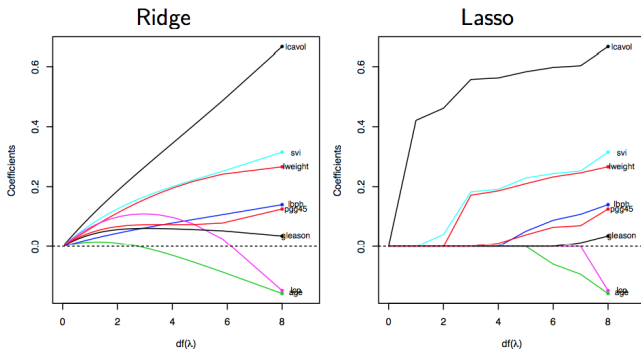
we have $df(\widehat{y}) = E[\text{number of nonzero coefficients in } \widehat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}}]$

Recap: the lasso before choosing λ

- we learned a **variable selection** method in the linear model setting: the **lasso**. The lasso uses a penalty like ridge regression, except the penalty is the L_1 norm of the coefficient vector, which causes the estimates of some coefficients to be **exactly zero**. This is in contrast to ridge regression which never sets coefficients to zero
- The tuning parameter λ controls the strength of the L_1 penalty. The lasso estimates are generally biased, but have good mean squared error (comparable to ridge regression). On top of this, the fact that it sets coefficients to zero can be a big advantage for the sake of **interpretation**
- We defined the concept of **degrees of freedom**, which measures the effective number of parameters used by an estimator. This allows us to compare estimators with different tuning parameters

Comparing ridge and lasso for the prostate cancer data

One usage of degrees of freedom is to put two different estimates on equal footing



Fitting lasso models in R

- The **glmnet** package can fit a wide variety of models (linear models, generalized linear models, multinomial models, proportional hazards models) with lasso penalties
- The syntax is fairly straightforward, though it differs from `lm` in that it requires you to form your own design matrix:

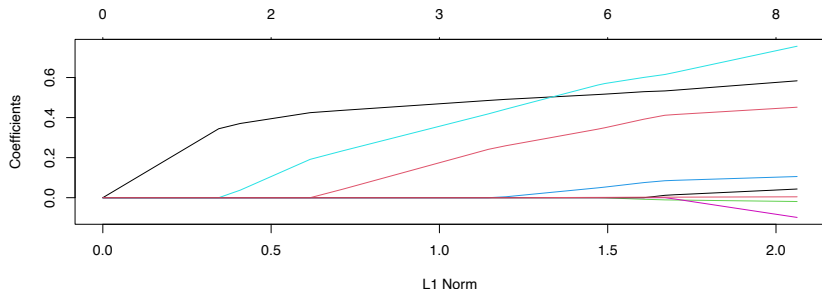
```
fit <- glmnet(X,y)
```

- The package also allows you to conveniently carry out cross-validation:

```
cvfit <- cv.glmnet(X,y)  
plot(cvfit)
```

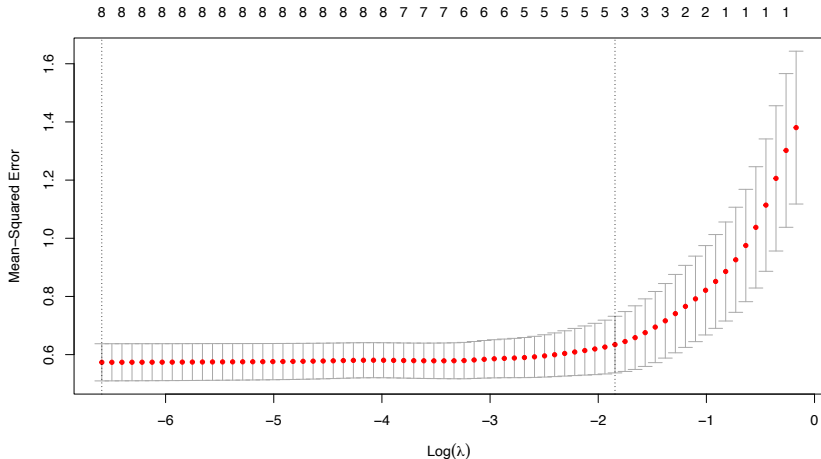

Lasso model on Prostate Cancer data

```
prostate <- read.table(file="prostate.txt",  
                        ,header=TRUE)  
X <- as.matrix(prostate[,1:8])  
y <- prostate[,9]  
model.lasso <- glmnet(X,y)  
plot(model.lasso)
```



Lasso model on Prostate Cancer data

```
cv.lasso <- cv.glmnet(X,y)  
plot(cv.lasso)
```



Selected variable

```
final.lasso <- glmnet(X,y,lambda=cv.lasso$lambda.1se)
final.lasso$beta
```

```
## 8 x 1 sparse Matrix of class "dgCMatrix"
##              s0
## lcavol  0.4855482
## lweight 0.2415506
## age      .
## lbph     .
## svi      0.4186507
## lcp      .
## gleason  .
## pgg45    .
```

- Chapter 6.2 Shrinkage Methods (page 237 to 250) of [An Introduction to Statistical Learning](https://www.statlearning.com/) available here <https://www.statlearning.com/>
- Chapter 3.4 Shrinkage Methods of [The Elements of Statistical Learning](https://hastie.su.domains/ElemStatLearn/) <https://hastie.su.domains/ElemStatLearn/>
- Practice using R:
 - [Regularized regression](http://uc-r.github.io/regularized_regression): http://uc-r.github.io/regularized_regression and <https://bradleyboehmke.github.io/HOML/regularized-regression.html>

Take Home Message

- Ridge regression
- Lasso Model
- Tuning parameter
- Variable selection
- Colinearity
- Regularization

Some References on Lasso

- Friedman J, Hastie T, Tibshirani R. 2010. *Regularization paths for generalized linear models via coordinate descent*. J Stat Soft 33:1-22.
- Simon N, Friedman J, Hastie T, Tibshirani. 2013 *A Sparse-Group Lasso*. Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics Vol. 22, Iss. 2.
- Tibshirani R (1996). *Regression Shrinkage and Selection via the Lasso*. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society B, 58(1), 267-288.
- Zou H, Hastie T (2005). *Regularization and variable selection via the Elastic Net*. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society B, 67, 301-20.