

Chapter 3: Linear Methods for Regression

Junrui Di

Contents

1. Introduction	1
2. Linear regression models and least square	1
3. Subset selection	3
4. Shrinkage methods	3
5. Methods using derived input directions	5

1. Introduction

Linear regression assumes that the regression function $E(Y|X)$ is linear in the inputs X_1, \dots, X_p .

2. Linear regression models and least square

[1.] *Linear regression from a least square point of view* (minimal assumption about the distribution)

- Form: $f(X) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_j$
- Data: $\{x_i, y_i\}$ $i = 1 \dots N$, each $x_i = (x_{i1} \dots x_{ip})^T$ is a feature vector, with parameters $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$
- Least square: To minimize $RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f(x_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2$ or $RSS(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$ in matrix form. **LSE makes no assumptions about the validity of the model form**
- LSE: $\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$
- Fitted value: $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$. $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}$ is the projector of \mathbf{y} onto the subspace spanned by column space of \mathbf{X} .
- Inference on parameters (assuming y_i 's are uncorrelated and gave constant variance σ^2 , and x_i are fixed)
 - $Var(\hat{\beta}) = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \sigma^2$
 - $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N-p-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$

[2.] *Linear regression with Gaussian error*

- Model Assumption: $Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_j + \epsilon$, where $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

- Distributional properties of model parameters
 - $\hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \sigma^2)$
 - $(N - p - 1) \hat{\sigma}^2 \sim \sigma^2 \chi_{N-p-1}^2$
 - $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ are statistically independent.
- Inference on single parameter β_j

Under $H_o : \beta_j = 0$, $z_j = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})_{jj}^{-1}}} \sim t_{N-p-1}$, and β_j has a $1 - 2\alpha$ confidence interval of $(\hat{\beta}_j - z^{1-\alpha} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})_{jj}^{-1}}, \hat{\beta}_j + z^{1-\alpha} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})_{jj}^{-1}})$

- Nested Model Comparison (test whether the added variables are necessary to the model)

$$F = \frac{(\text{RSS}_0 - \text{RSS}_1)/(p_1 - p_0)}{\text{RSS}_1/(N - p_1 - 1)} \sim F_{p_1 - p_0, N - p_1 - 1}, \quad \text{where } \text{RSS}_1 \text{ is for the larger model}$$

2.1 The Gauss-Markow Theorem

Least square estimates of β have the smallest variance among all linear unbiased estimates.

The least square estimator to estimate parameters $\theta = \alpha^T \beta$ is $\hat{\theta} = \alpha^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$. It is an unbiased estimator, i.e. $E(\alpha^T \hat{\beta}) = \alpha^T \beta$. Gauss-Markow theorem states that $\text{Var}(\alpha \hat{\beta})$ has the smallest variance for any unbiased estimator.

We may want to trade a little bias for larger reduction in variance.

2.2 Regression by successive orthogonalization

Algorithm 3.1 Regression by Successive Orthogonalization.

1. Initialize $\mathbf{z}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{1}$.

2. For $j = 1, 2, \dots, p$

Regress \mathbf{x}_j on $\mathbf{z}_0, \mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{j-1}$ to produce coefficients $\hat{\gamma}_{\ell j} = \langle \mathbf{z}_\ell, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle / \langle \mathbf{z}_\ell, \mathbf{z}_\ell \rangle$, $\ell = 0, \dots, j-1$ and residual vector $\mathbf{z}_j = \mathbf{x}_j - \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} \hat{\gamma}_{kj} \mathbf{z}_k$.

3. Regress \mathbf{y} on the residual \mathbf{z}_p to give the estimate $\hat{\beta}_p$.

Figure 1: Gram-Schmidt procedure for multiple regression

2.3 Multiple outcomes

Data: $Y_1 \dots Y_K$, with the model $Y_k = \beta_{0k} + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_{jk} + \epsilon_k$, with the matrix form $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{E}$, where \mathbf{Y} is $N \times K$, \mathbf{X} is $N \times p + 1$, and \mathbf{B} is $(p + 1) \times K$.

$\text{RSS}(\mathbf{B}) = \sum_k \sum_i (y_{ik} - f_k(x_i))^2 = \text{tr}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B})$ is the RSS with LSE $\hat{\mathbf{B}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$

3. Subset selection

- a. Best subset selection
- b. Forward and backward selection

4. Shrinkage methods

4.1 Ridge regression

- RSS

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \right\}$$

or in the matrix form

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

with the solution

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

Even if $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is not of full rank, $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})$ is still nonsingular.

- Degree of freedom $\text{df}(\lambda) = \text{tr}[\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T] = \sum_{j=1}^p \frac{d_j^2}{d_j^2 + \lambda}$
- Ridge solutions are not equivariant under scaling of the inputs, and one normally standardizes the inputs before solving for estimation.

4.2 Lasso

- RSS

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \right\}$$

* Shrinkage $s = t / \sum_j |\hat{\beta}_j|$ where $\hat{\beta}_j$ is the least square estimation.

4.3 Subset selection, ridge, and lasso

[1.] *Orthonormal input matrix* \mathbf{X}

- Ridge: proportional shrinkage
- LASSO: translate by a constant factor and truncating at zero, i.e soft thresholding
- Best subject: drops all the variables with coefficient smaller than the M th largest, i.e. hard thresholding

Estimator	Formula
Best subset (size M)	$\hat{\beta}_j \cdot I(\hat{\beta}_j \geq \hat{\beta}_{(M)})$
Ridge	$\hat{\beta}_j / (1 + \lambda)$
Lasso	$\text{sign}(\hat{\beta}_j)(\hat{\beta}_j - \lambda)_+$

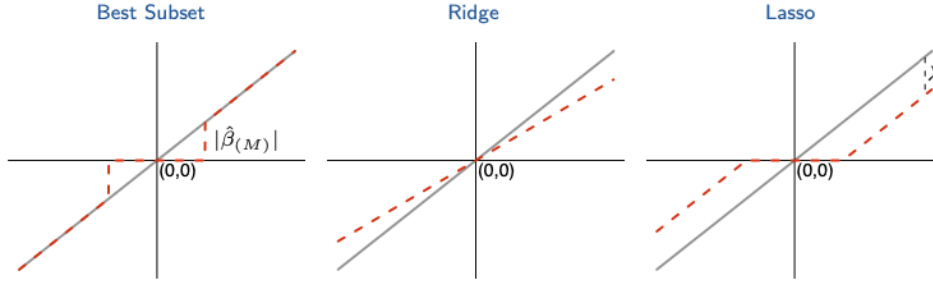


Figure 2: Gram-Schmidt procedure for multiple regression

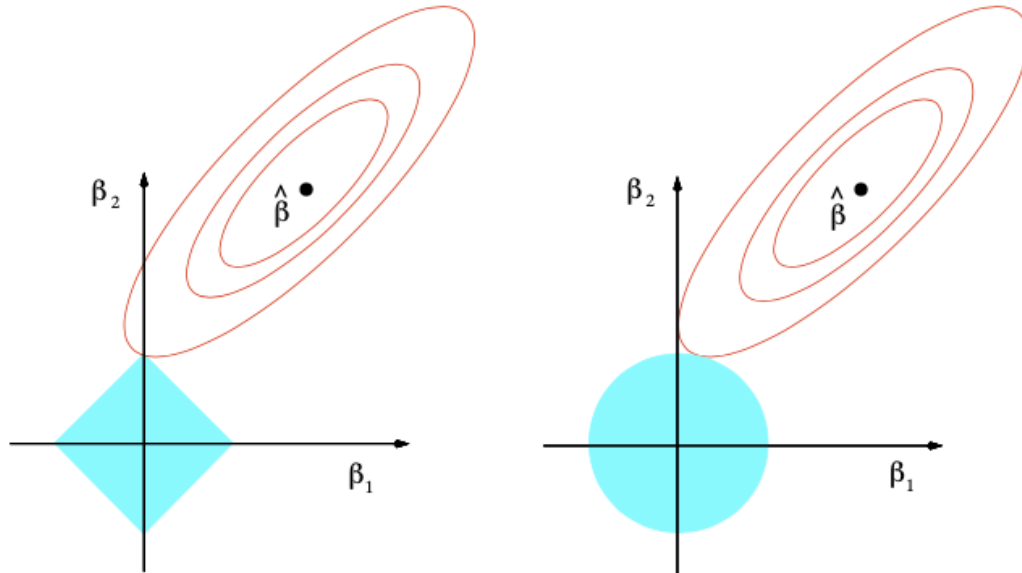


Figure 3: Gram-Schmidt procedure for multiple regression

[2.] *Nonorthogonal case*

Elastic net

$$\lambda \sum_{j=1}^p (\alpha \beta_j^2 + (1 - \alpha) |\beta_j|)$$

4.4 Least angle regression

5. Methods using derived input directions

5.1 Principal components regression

PC regression forms the derived input columns $\mathbf{z}_m = \mathbf{X}v_m$ and then regresses \mathbf{y} on $\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots, \mathbf{z}_M$. Since they are orthogonal, each parameter is simply $\hat{\theta}_n = \frac{\langle \mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{z}_m \rangle}$. It can be converted back to $\hat{\beta}_M^{pcr} = \sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\theta}_m v_m$.

The m th principal component direction v_m solveS:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\alpha} \text{Var}(\mathbf{X}\alpha) \\ & \text{subject to } \|\alpha\| = 1, \alpha^T \mathbf{S}v_l = 0, \quad l = 1, \dots, n-1 \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbf{S} is the sample covariance

5.2 Partial least square

Algorithm 3.3 *Partial Least Squares.*

1. Standardize each \mathbf{x}_j to have mean zero and variance one. Set $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(0)} = \bar{y}\mathbf{1}$, and $\mathbf{x}_j^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}_j$, $j = 1, \dots, p$.
 2. For $m = 1, 2, \dots, p$
 - (a) $\mathbf{z}_m = \sum_{j=1}^p \hat{\varphi}_{mj} \mathbf{x}_j^{(m-1)}$, where $\hat{\varphi}_{mj} = \langle \mathbf{x}_j^{(m-1)}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$.
 - (b) $\hat{\theta}_m = \langle \mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{y} \rangle / \langle \mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{z}_m \rangle$.
 - (c) $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(m)} = \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(m-1)} + \hat{\theta}_m \mathbf{z}_m$.
 - (d) Orthogonalize each $\mathbf{x}_j^{(m-1)}$ with respect to \mathbf{z}_m : $\mathbf{x}_j^{(m)} = \mathbf{x}_j^{(m-1)} - [\langle \mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{x}_j^{(m-1)} \rangle / \langle \mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{z}_m \rangle] \mathbf{z}_m$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, p$.
 3. Output the sequence of fitted vectors $\{\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(m)}\}_1^p$. Since the $\{\mathbf{z}_\ell\}_1^m$ are linear in the original \mathbf{x}_j , so is $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(m)} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}^{\text{pls}}(m)$. These linear coefficients can be recovered from the sequence of PLS transformations.
-

Figure 4: Gram-Schmidt procedure for multiple regression

The m th PLS direction $\hat{\psi}_m$ solves:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\alpha} \text{Corr}^2(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}\alpha) \text{Var}(\mathbf{X}\alpha) \\ & \text{subject to } \|\alpha\| = 1, \alpha^T \mathbf{S} \hat{\psi}_l = 0, \quad l = 1, \dots, m-1 \end{aligned}$$