# Chapter 6: Ridge Regression<sup>a</sup>

In this chapter we consider observations  $\{(y_i^0, x_i^0)\}_{i=1}^n$  and assume the following linear model regression model

$$Y_i^0 = \alpha + \beta^{\top} x_i^0 + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
 (6.1)

where  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and where, for all  $i, l \in \{1, ..., n\}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i] = \text{and}$   $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i \epsilon_l] = \sigma^2 \delta_{il}$  for some  $\sigma^2 > 0^{\text{b}}$ .

We consider below the fixed design setting, in which the covariates  $\{x_i^0\}_{i=1}^n$  are fixed (i.e. non-random).

Assume first that  $n \geq p$  and that  $\operatorname{rank}(\boldsymbol{X}^0) = p$ . In this case, we can estimate  $(\alpha, \beta)$  by ordinary least squares (OLS), that is we can estimate  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  using

$$\hat{\alpha} := \bar{y}^0 - \hat{\beta}^\top \bar{x}^0, \quad \hat{\beta} := \operatorname*{argmin}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \|y - \boldsymbol{X}\beta\|_2^2 = (\boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\top y.$$

**Remark:** This expression for  $\hat{\alpha}$  and for  $\hat{\beta}$  is obtained by applying Proposition 6.1 below with  $\lambda = 0$ .

Letting

$$Y^0 = (Y_1^0, \dots, Y_p^0), \quad Y = Y^0 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^0,$$

the corresponding OLS estimate  $\hat{\mu}$  of  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  is given by

$$\hat{\mu} = \boldsymbol{X}\hat{\beta} = \boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{y} = \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{y}$$

**Remark:** We focus on the estimation of  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  and not on  $\mathbb{E}[Y^0]$  because  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  depends only on the main parameter of interest  $\beta$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>The main reference for this chapter is [11].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Recall that the intercept  $\alpha$  in (6.1) allows to have estimators of  $\beta$  which are not affected by a shift of the response variables, that is, which are independent of  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  if each  $y_i^0$  is replaced by  $y_i^0 + c$ .

### Some properties of the estimator $\hat{\mu}$ under the model (6.1)

Under the model (6.1) the estimator<sup>a</sup>  $\hat{\mu}$  is unbiased, i.e.  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mu}] = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ .

In addition, under (6.1) we have  $Var(Y) = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{1}_n)$  and thus, noting that  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{1}_n = \mathbf{0}_n$ , it follows that under (6.1) the variance of the estimator  $\hat{\mu}$  is given by

$$Var(\hat{\mu}) = Var(\mathbf{A}Y) = \mathbf{A}\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{A} - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{1}_n) \mathbf{A}$$
$$= \sigma^2 \mathbf{A}^2 = \sigma^2 \mathbf{A}$$

Using the fact that tr(BC) = tr(CB), we remark that

$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{tr}\{(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}\} = p$$

so that, under (6.1),  $\hat{\mu}$  is such that  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\mu}_i) = \sigma^2 \frac{p}{n}$ .

Therefore, under (6.1) and as p grows, the average variance of the OLS estimators  $\{\hat{\mu}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  of  $\{\mathbb{E}[Y_i]\}_{i=1}^n$  increases, until reaching the value  $\sigma^2$  when  $p = n^{\rm b}$ .

On the other hand, if we simply estimate  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  by y then the resulting average variance of the estimators  $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  of  $\{\mathbb{E}[Y_i]\}_{i=1}^n$  is

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}(Y_i) = \sigma^2.$$

In words, as  $p \to n$  the average variance of the OLS estimators  $\{\hat{\mu}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  converges to the average variance of the naive estimators  $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ .

 $\implies$  For  $p \approx n$  the OLS estimate  $\hat{\mu}$  of  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  is not better than the naive estimate y.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>In this chapter we make the distinction between an estimator, which is a random variable, and an estimate which is a realization of an estimator.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>If p > n then  $X^{\top}X$  is no longer invertible and therefore  $\hat{\mu}$  does not exist.

#### Linear regression in high dimension and ridge regression

As we just saw, for p > n the OLS estimator of  $\beta$  cannot be computed and for  $p \approx n$  the OLS estimator  $\hat{\mu}$  performs poorly.

In this context, as discussed in Chapter 1 (see pages 31-32), a first approach that can be used to estimate  $\beta$  is principal component regression (PCR).

Ridge regression is a second possible approach to linear regression with high-dimensional data, which is based on the following lemma.

**Lemma 6.1** Let  $\lambda > 0$  and  $\gamma_1 \geq \cdots \geq \gamma_p$  be the p eigenvalues of the matrix  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_p$ . Then,  $\gamma_p \geq \lambda$ .

*Proof:* Let  $l_1 \geq \cdots \geq l_p$  be the eigenvalues of  $\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}$ . Then, since for all  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  we have  $\beta^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}\beta = \|\boldsymbol{X}\beta\|^2 \geq 0$ , it follows that  $l_j \geq 0$  for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, p\}$ . Then, letting  $v_j$  be an eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue  $l_j$ , we have

$$(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)v_j = \boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}v_j + \lambda v_j = l_j v_j + \lambda v_j = (l_j + \lambda)v_j$$

showing that  $l_j + \lambda \geq \lambda$  is an eigenvalue of the matrix  $\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p$ , with associated eigenvector  $v_j$ . The result follows.

Building on the result of Lemma 6.1, for every  $\lambda > 0$  the ridge estimate  $(\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}, \hat{\beta}_{\lambda})$  of  $(\alpha, \beta)$  is defined by

$$\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda} = \bar{y}^0 - \hat{\beta}_{\lambda}^{\top} \bar{x}^0, \quad \hat{\beta}_{\lambda} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} y.$$
 (6.2)

#### Corresponding optimization problem

As shown in the following proposition,  $(\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}, \hat{\beta}_{\lambda})$  can be interpreted as a penalized least squares estimate of  $(\alpha, \beta)$ .

**Proposition 6.1** Let  $(\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}, \hat{\beta}_{\lambda})$  the as defined in (6.2). Then,

$$(\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}, \hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) = \underset{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y^0 - \alpha - \boldsymbol{X}^0 \beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2.$$
 (6.3)

It also holds true that

$$\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y - \boldsymbol{X}\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2.$$

Two important remarks:

- 1. In (6.3) the intercept is excluded from the penalty term to make  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  independent of  $\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}^{a}$ .
- 2. The input variables  $\{x_{(j)}\}_{j=1}^p$  should all be on the same scale to ensure that that the size of the components  $\{\beta_j\}_{j=1}^p$  of  $\beta$  is comparable, and thus that the penalty  $\lambda \|\beta\|$  appearing in (6.3) makes sense.

If the variables are not on the same scale we can proceed as follows: Letting  $\mathbf{D} = \operatorname{diag}(s_1^2, \dots, s_p^2)$ ,  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^0 = \mathbf{X}^0 \mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$  and  $\gamma = \mathbf{D}^{1/2} \beta$ , we can rewrite (6.1) as

$$Y^{0} = \alpha + \mathbf{X}^{0} \mathbf{D}^{-1/2} (\mathbf{D}^{1/2} \beta) + \epsilon = \alpha + \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^{0} \gamma + \epsilon$$

and compute the ridge regression estimate  $(\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}, \hat{\gamma}_{\lambda})$  of  $(\alpha, \gamma)$  using the normalized variables  $\{\tilde{x}_{(j)}^0\}_{j=1}^p$ . We then estimate  $\beta$  using  $\tilde{\beta}_{\lambda} = \mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \hat{\gamma}_{\lambda}$ .

all particular, if  $\alpha$  was in the penalty term then adding an arbitrary constant  $c \neq 0$  to each observation  $y_i^0$  would modify the value of all the components of  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$ . In this case, the estimated slope parameters would have the undesirable property be affected by an arbitrary shift of the response variables  $\{y_i^0\}_{i=1}^n$ .

### **Proof of Proposition 6.1**

Let  $F(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i^0 - \alpha - \beta^{\top} x_i^0)^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2$ . Simple computations show that F is strictly convex for all  $\lambda > 0$ , implying that the global minimizer of this function is unique.

For all  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  let  $\alpha_{\beta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} F(\alpha, \beta)$  so that to prove the proposition we need to show that

$$F(\hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}, \hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) = \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} F(\alpha, \beta) = \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} F(\alpha_{\beta}, \beta).$$

We have

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} F(\alpha, \beta) \Big|_{(\alpha, \beta) = (\alpha_{\beta}, \beta)} \Leftrightarrow \alpha_{\beta} = \bar{y}^{0} - \beta^{\top} \bar{x}^{0}, \quad \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$$
 (6.4)

and thus

$$\underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} F(\alpha_{\beta}, \beta) = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y^0 - \alpha_{\beta} - \boldsymbol{X}^0 \beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2 \\
= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y - \boldsymbol{X}\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2 \\
= (\boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\top y \\
= \hat{\beta}_{\lambda}.$$

Using (6.4) it follows that  $\alpha_{\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}} = \bar{y}^0 - \hat{\beta}_{\lambda}^{\top} \bar{x}^0 = \hat{\alpha}_{\lambda}$  and the proof is complete.

## $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$ as a shrinkage estimator of $\beta$

Proposition 6.1 shows that ridge regression imposes a penalty on the size of  $\beta$ . The strength of the penalty depends on the parameter  $\lambda$ , with the larger  $\lambda$  the smaller  $\|\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}\|$ . This claim is formalized in the following two propositions.

**Proposition 6.2** Assume that  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}y \neq 0$ . Then, the ridge estimate of  $\beta$  is such that have  $\|\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}\| < \|\beta_{\lambda_0}\|$  for all  $\lambda > \lambda_0 > 0$ .

*Proof:* Remark that for every  $\lambda \geq 0$  we have

$$\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} y \tag{6.5}$$

and let  $\boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1}.$ 

Let  $\lambda > \lambda_0 \geq 0$  and remark that

$$\|\hat{\beta}_{\lambda_0}\|^2 - \|\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}\|^2 = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} y)^{\top} (\boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda_0} - \boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda}) \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} y$$

so that to prove the proposition it is enough to show that  $B_{\lambda_0} - B_{\lambda} \succ 0$ .

Since the matrices  $B_{\lambda_0}$  and  $B_{\lambda}$  are invertible (see Lemma 6.1) we have

$$\boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda_0} - \boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda} \succ 0 \Leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda}^{-1} - \boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda_0}^{-1} \succ 0.$$

Therefore, noting that

$$\boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda}^{-1} - \boldsymbol{B}_{\lambda_0}^{-1} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p) (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p) - (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda_0 \boldsymbol{I}_p) (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda_0 \boldsymbol{I}_p)$$
$$= 2 \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} (\lambda - \lambda_0) + (\lambda^2 - \lambda_0^2) \boldsymbol{I}_p$$

the result follows from the fact that  $\lambda > \lambda_0$  and the fact that the matrix  $XX^{\top}$  is positive semi-definite.

**Proposition 6.3** Assume that (6.1) holds for some  $\beta$  such that  $\mathbf{X}\beta \neq 0$ . Then,  $\|\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}]\| < \|\mathbb{E}[\beta_{\lambda_0}]\|$  for all  $\lambda > \lambda_0 > 0$ . If in addition  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}$  is invertible then  $\|\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}]\| < \|\beta\|$  of for all  $\lambda > 0$ .

*Proof:* The result follows from similar computations as in the proof of Proposition 6.3.

# Variance of $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$ under the model (6.1)

Proposition 6.3 implies that, unlike the OLS estimator  $\hat{\beta}$ , the ridge estimator  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  is biased under the model (6.1).

As shown in the following proposition,  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  has however the advantage to have a smaller variance.

**Proposition 6.4** Assume that  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}$  is invertible. Then, under the model (6.1), we have  $\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda_0}) - \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) \succ 0$  for all  $\lambda > \lambda_0 \geq 0$ .

*Proof:* Recall that under the model (6.1) we have  $Var(Y) = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{1}_n)$  and note that  $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{1}_n = \mathbf{0}_n$ . Therefore, under the model (6.1), for all  $\lambda > 0$  we have

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) = \sigma^{2} (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \operatorname{Var}(Y) \boldsymbol{X} (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^{2} (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{I}_{n} - \frac{1}{n} \boldsymbol{1}_{n}) \boldsymbol{X} (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^{2} (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1}.$$

Let  $\lambda > \lambda_0 \geq 0$  and note that, since by assumption the matrix  $\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X}$  is invertible, we have

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda_0}) - \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) \succ 0 \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda})^{-1} - \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda_0})^{-1} \succ 0.$$

Simple computations show that

$$\frac{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda})^{-1} - \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda_0})^{-1}}{\sigma^2} = 2(\lambda - \lambda_0)\boldsymbol{I}_p + (\lambda^2 - \lambda_0^2)(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}$$

and, since  $(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \succ 0$ , the proposition is proved.

**Remark:** Compared to  $\hat{\beta}$ , for all  $\lambda > 0$  and under (6.1) the estimator  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  has therefore a larger bias and a smaller variance, and a natural question is which of these two estimators has the lowest mean squared error (MSE). It can be shown (see [11], Theorem 1.2) that there exists a  $\lambda > 0$  such that  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  has a smaller MSE than  $\hat{\beta}$  under (6.1), that is that under (6.1) there exists a  $\lambda > 0$  such that

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} - \beta\|^2] < \mathbb{E}[\|\hat{\beta} - \beta\|^2].$$

#### A useful technical lemma

**Lemma 6.2** Let  $\lambda > 0$  and  $\mathbf{A}^{(\lambda)} = \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_p)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top}$ . Then,  $a_{ii}^{(\lambda)} \in [0, 1)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

*Proof:* We have

$$\boldsymbol{I}_p - \mathbf{A}^{(\lambda)} = \boldsymbol{X} \Big( (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} - (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1} \Big) \boldsymbol{X}^{\top}$$

and therefore, recalling that for two invertible matrices C and B we have  $C > B \Leftrightarrow B^{-1} > C^{-1}$ , it follows that  $I_p - \mathbf{A}^{(\lambda)}$  is a positive definite matrix (since  $\lambda > 0$ ).

Therefore, all the diagonal elements of the matrix  $I_p - \mathbf{A}^{(\lambda)}$  are strictly positive<sup>a</sup>, showing that  $a_{ii}^{(\lambda)} < 1$  for all i.

On the other hand, since  $\mathbf{A}^{(\lambda)}$  is semi-definite positive then  $a_{ii}^{(\lambda)} \geq 0$  for all i. The proof is complete.

aIndeed, if  $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is positive definite and e.g.  $m_{11} \leq 0$  then for  $v = (1, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $v^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{M} v = m_{11} \leq 0$ .

#### Choosing the penality parameter $\lambda$

When p is large compared to n and  $\lambda$  is too small then  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  will be such that  $\|y - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}\|_{2}^{2} \approx 0$ , in which case we will over-fit the data. On the other hand, it is clear from (6.2) that  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} \to 0$  as  $\lambda \to \infty$ , and thus that if  $\lambda$  is too large then we will under-fit the data.

In practice we choose  $\lambda$  so that the model has good out-of-sample predictive performance. One way to achieve this is to use cross validation.

Letting  $\hat{\beta}_{-i,\lambda}$  be the ridge estimate of  $\beta$  computed from all the observations but  $(y_i, x_i)$ , in leave-one-out ordinary cross validation (OCV) we let  $\lambda = \hat{\lambda}$  where  $\hat{\lambda}$  is, for some set  $\Lambda \subseteq [0, \infty)$ , defined by

$$\hat{\lambda} = \underset{\lambda \in \Lambda}{\operatorname{argmin OCV_{ridge}}}(\lambda), \quad \operatorname{OCV_{ridge}}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^{\top} \hat{\beta}_{-i,\lambda})^2.$$

**Remark:** In practice  $\Lambda$  is often a finite set and  $\hat{\lambda}$  is obtained by computing  $OCV_{ridge}(\lambda)$  for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ .

This definition of  $OCV_{ridge}(\lambda)$  suggests that we need to perform n regressions to compute this quantity. However, by Theorem 6.1 below, for all  $\lambda > 0$  we have

$$OCV_{ridge}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(y_i - x_i^{\top} \hat{\beta}_{\lambda})^2}{(1 - a_{ii}^{(\lambda)})^2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(y_i - \hat{\mu}_{\lambda,i})^2}{(1 - a_{ii}^{(\lambda)})^2}$$
(6.6)

with  $\mathbf{A}^{(\lambda)}$  as defined in Lemma 6.2 and with  $\hat{\mu}_{\lambda} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  the ridge estimate of  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ . Therefore, only one regression is needed to compute  $\mathrm{OCV}_{\mathrm{ridge}}(\lambda)$ .

**Remark:** By lemma 6.2 we have  $a_{ii}^{(\lambda)} \in [0,1)$  for all  $i \in \{1,\ldots,n\}$  and all  $\lambda > 0$ , and thus  $OCV_{ridge}(\lambda)$  is well-defined for all  $\lambda > 0$ .

#### A key result for cross-validation

The equality in (6.6) is obtained by applying the following theorem with  $M = I_p \lambda$ .

**Theorem 6.1** Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  be a semi-definite positive matrix such that the matrix  $(X^{\top}X + M)$  is invertible. Let

$$\beta_{\boldsymbol{M}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} \|_2^2 + \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{M} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

and assume that, for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , the function

$$\mathbb{R}^p \ni \beta \mapsto \sum_{l \neq i} (y_l - \beta^\top x_l)^2 + \beta^\top \mathbf{M} \beta$$

has a unique global minimizer  $\beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . Let

$$\boldsymbol{A}^{(\boldsymbol{M})} = \boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \boldsymbol{M})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}$$

and assume that  $|a_{ii}^{(M)}| \neq 1$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ . Then,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^{\top} \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(y_i - x_i^{\top} \beta_{\mathbf{M}})^2}{(1 - a_{ii}^{(\mathbf{M})})^2}.$$

#### Proof of Theorem 6.1

Let  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ ,  $\tilde{y}^{(M,-i)}$  denote the vector y where the ith element has been replaced by  $x_i^{\top} \beta_{-i,M}$  and

$$L_{-i}(\beta) = \sum_{l \neq i}^{n} (y_l - x_l^{\top} \beta)^2 + \beta^{\top} \mathbf{M} \beta.$$

Then,  $\nabla L_{-i}(\beta) = -2 \sum_{l \neq i} x_l (y_l - x_l^{\top} \beta) + 2 \mathbf{M} \beta$  for all  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , and thus

$$\nabla L_{-i}(\beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow -2\sum_{l\neq i}^{n} x_l (y_l - x_l^{\top} \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}}) + 2\mathbf{M} \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow -2\sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l (\tilde{y}_l^{(\mathbf{M},-i)} - x_l^{\top} \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}}) + 2\mathbf{M} \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow -2\mathbf{X}^{\top} \tilde{y}^{(\mathbf{M},-i)} + 2(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \mathbf{M}) \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{M})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \tilde{y}^{(\mathbf{M},-i)}.$$

Using this expression for  $\beta_{-i,M}$ , we obtain

$$x_{i}^{\top}\beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} = (a_{i}^{(\mathbf{M})})^{\top}\tilde{y}^{(\mathbf{M},-i)}$$

$$= (a_{i}^{(\mathbf{M})})^{\top}y + (a_{i}^{(\mathbf{M})})^{\top}(\tilde{y}^{(\mathbf{M},-i)} - y)$$

$$= (a_{i}^{(\mathbf{M})})^{\top}y + a_{ii}^{(\mathbf{M})}(x_{i}^{\top}\beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}} - y_{i})$$

$$= x_{i}^{\top}\beta_{\mathbf{M}} - a_{ii}^{(\mathbf{M})}(y_{i} - x_{i}^{\top}\beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}})$$

showing that

$$y_i - x_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta_{\mathbf{M}} = (1 - a_{ii}^{(\mathbf{M})}) (y_i - x_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta_{-i,\mathbf{M}}).$$

The result follows.

## Generalized cross validation: preliminaries

Let  $G \in O(n)$  and consider the transformation  $y \mapsto y_G := Gy$  and  $X \mapsto X_G := GX$  of the data.

Then, it is easily checked that the resulting ridge regression estimate  $\hat{\beta}_{G,\lambda}$  of  $\beta$  is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_{G,\lambda} \in \operatorname*{argmin}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \|y_G - X_G \beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2 = \hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$$

while, letting  $\hat{\mu}_{\lambda}^{(G)} = X_G \hat{\beta}_{\lambda} = G \hat{\mu}_{\lambda}$ , the resulting OCV criterion is

$$OCV_{ridge}^{(G)}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\left(y_{G,i} - \hat{\mu}_{\lambda,i}^{(G)}\right)^{2}}{\left(1 - a_{ii}^{(G,\lambda)}\right)^{2}}$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{A}^{(\boldsymbol{G},\lambda)} = \boldsymbol{X}_{\boldsymbol{G}} (\boldsymbol{X}_{\boldsymbol{G}} \boldsymbol{X}_{\boldsymbol{G}}^{\top} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{\boldsymbol{G}}^{\top} = \boldsymbol{G} \boldsymbol{A}^{(\lambda)} \boldsymbol{G}^{\top}.$$

Therefore, applying the rotation G to the observations  $\{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  leaves the ridge regression estimate  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  unchanged but, in general, modifies the OCV criterion.

Given this dependence of OCV (and therefore of the resulting choice of  $\lambda$ ) to the choice of G one can wonder what is a "bad" rotation G of the data in term of cross validation that we should avoid.

#### The generalized cross validation criterion

Intuitively, if G is such that we have highly uneven values of  $a_{ii}^{(G,\lambda)}$  then the value of  $\text{OCV}_{\text{ridge}}^{(G)}(\lambda)$  will tend to be dominated by a small number of data points.

To avoid this problem, a natural idea is to apply OCV using a rotation  $G_* \in O(n)$  of the data such that

$$a_{ii}^{(G_*,\lambda)} = a_{ll}^{(G_*,\lambda)}, \quad \forall i, l \in \{1,\dots,n\}.$$

**Remark:** It can be shown that such a matrix  $G_*$  indeed exists (see [13], Section 6.2.3, page 258).

Noting that

$$\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{A}^{(\boldsymbol{G},\lambda)}) = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{G}\boldsymbol{A}^{(\lambda)}\boldsymbol{G}^{\top}) = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{A}^{(\lambda)}), \quad \forall \boldsymbol{G} \in O(n),$$

it follows that  $G^*$  is such that  $a_{ii}^{(G_*,\lambda)} = \operatorname{tr}(A^{(\lambda)})/n$  for all i.

Therefore,

$$OCV_{\text{ridge}}^{(G_*)}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_{G_*,i} - \hat{\mu}_{\lambda,i}^{(G_*)} \right)^2}{(1 - \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{A}^{(\lambda)})/n)^2} 
= \frac{n \|y - \hat{\mu}_{\lambda}\|^2}{(n - \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{A}^{(\lambda)}))^2} 
=: GCV_{\text{ridge}}(\lambda).$$

Choosing  $\lambda$  which minimizes  $\lambda \mapsto GCV_{ridge}(\lambda)$  is called generalized cross validation.

**Remark:** By Lemma 6.2 we have  $\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{A}^{(\lambda)}) \in [0, n)$  for all  $\lambda > 0$  and thus  $\operatorname{GCV}_{\operatorname{ridge}}(\lambda)$  is well defined for every  $\lambda > 0$ .

#### Bayesian perspective of ridge regression

Consider the following Bayesian linear regression model

$$\beta \sim \mathcal{N}_p(0, \mathbf{I}_p \sigma^2 / \lambda), \quad Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}_1(x_i^\top \beta, \sigma^2), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$
 (6.7)

By definition, the posterior distribution of  $\beta$  given the observation y is  $\pi(\beta|y) \propto \pi(y|\beta)\pi(\beta)$ , and simple computations show that

$$\beta | y \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}, (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1} \sigma^2).$$
 (6.8)

We therefore see that the ridge estimator  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  is both the posterior mean and the posterior mode of  $\beta$  in the Bayesian model (6.7). Hence, in (6.7), the prior distribution for  $\beta$  acts as a penalty on  $\|\beta\|$ . In other words, the prior distribution leads the posterior distribution to favour values of  $\beta$  such that  $\|\beta\|$  is small.

To interpret the posterior variance of  $\beta$  note that under the model (6.7) we have

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_{p})^{-1}\sigma^{2}$$

while, using the fact that  $\mathbf{I}_p = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_p)^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_p)$  and (6.5), it is easily checked that, under (6.7),

$$b(\beta) := \mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} | \beta] - \beta = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_{\lambda} | \beta] - \beta = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X} + \boldsymbol{I}_{p}\right)^{-1} \beta.$$

Therefore,  $(\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_p)^{-1}\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}) + \mathbb{E}_{\operatorname{prior}}[b(\beta)b(\beta)^{\top}]$  which, with (6.8), shows that the Bayesian posterior covariance matrix for  $\beta$  can be viewed as the sum of the covariance matrix of  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  (under (6.7)) and of the prior expected squared bias of  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$  (under (6.7)).

#### An illustrative example

We let n = 40, p = 50 and simulate the covariates  $\{x_i^0\}_{i=1}^n$  using  $X_{ij}^0 \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{U}(0,1)$  and the response variable  $\{y_i^0\}_{i=1}^n$  using

$$Y_i^0 = \beta_*^\top x_i^0 + \epsilon_i, \quad \epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}_1(0, 1), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

where  $\beta_{*,j}$  is a random draw from the  $\mathcal{U}(0,1)$  distribution for  $j=1,\ldots,10$  while  $\beta_{*,j}=0$  for j>10. For this example we consider the linear model (6.1) without intercept and estimate  $\beta$  using the non-centred data  $\{(y_i^0, x_i^0)\}_{i=1}^n$ .

From the results presented in Figure 6.1, we see that for this example OCV allows to choose a  $\lambda$  such that the mean squared error (MSE) of  $\hat{\mu}_{\lambda}$  (for estimating  $\mathbb{E}[Y^0]$ ) is very close to the one we could achieve in the ideal scenario where we could choose  $\lambda$  knowing  $\mathbb{E}[Y^0]$ .

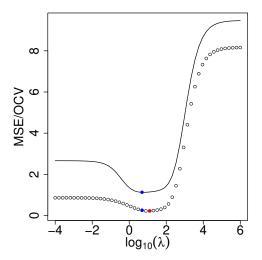


Figure 6.1: The dots show the mapping  $\lambda \mapsto \mathrm{MSE}(\lambda) := \frac{1}{n} \|\hat{\mu}_{\lambda} - \mathbf{X}^0 \beta^*\|^2$  and the solid line the mapping  $\lambda \mapsto \mathrm{OCV}_{\mathrm{ridge}}(\lambda)$ . The red dot is for  $\lambda^* = \mathrm{argmin}_{\lambda} \, \mathrm{MSE}(\lambda)$  and the blue dots are for  $\hat{\lambda} = \mathrm{argmin}_{\lambda} \, \mathrm{OCV}_{\mathrm{ridge}}(\lambda)$ .