Introduction to Big Data Analysis Regression

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Outlines

Introduction

Linear Regression

Regularizations

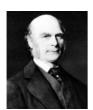
Model Assessment

References

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Regression

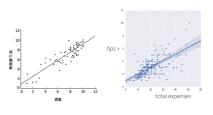
- Proposed by Francis Galton (left) and Karl Pearson (right), in the publication "Regression towards mediocrity in hereditary"
- The characteristics (e.g., height) in the offspring regress towards a mediocre point (mean) of that of their parents
- ullet Generalization : predict the dependent variables y from the independent variables $\mathbf{x} : y = f(\mathbf{x})$ or $y = E[y|\mathbf{x}]$





Applications

- Predict medical expenses from the individual profiles of the patients
- Predict the scores on Douban from the quality of the movies
- Predict the tips from the total expenses





Outlines

Linear Regression

Univariate Linear Model

- Linear model : $y = w_0 + w_1 x + \epsilon$, where w_0 and w_1 are regression coefficients, ϵ is the error or noise • Assume $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2)$, where σ^2 is a fixed but unknown
- variance; then $y|x \sim \mathcal{N}(w_0 + w_1 x, \sigma^2)$
- Assume the samples $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are generated from this conditional distribution, i.e., $y_i|x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(w_0 + w_1x_i, \sigma^2)$
- Intuitively, find the best straight line (w_0 and w_1) such that the sample points fit it well, i.e., the residuals are minimized,

$$(\hat{w}_0, \hat{w}_1) = \arg\min_{w_0, w_1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_i)^2$$

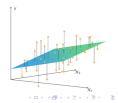


Multivariate Linear Model

- Linear model : $y = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_\rho x_\rho + \epsilon$, where w_0, w_1, \dots, w_ρ are regression coefficients, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_\rho)^T$ is the input vector whose components are independent variables or attribute values, $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ is the noise
- For the size n samples $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, let $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$ be the response or dependent variables, $\mathbf{w} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_p)^T$, $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{1}_n, (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)^T] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (p+1)}$, and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)^T \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$.

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{pmatrix}$$



Maximal Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

For fixed x 先假定某一种概率分布,再基于训练数据来选取最合适的概率参数(w)

• A probabilistic viewpoint : $y|\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(w_0 + w_1x_1 + \cdots + w_px_p, \sigma^2)$ MLE是一种点估计, 我们只能获得这种假 设下的均值估计,并 不能获得方差信息。

• Likelihood function :

Let the moderate function
$$L(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = P(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$$
 with $P(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_{11} - \cdots - w_p x_{ip})^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

- Maximal likelihood estimate : given the samples from some unknown parametric distribution, find the parameters such that the samples the most probably seem to be drawn from that distribution, i.e., $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$
- Equivalent to maximize the log-likelihood function $I(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \log L(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) =$ $-n\log(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n(y_i - w_0 - w_1x_{i1} - \dots - w_px_{ip})^2$
- The same minimizer as LS : $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$



Regression by Successive Orthogonalization

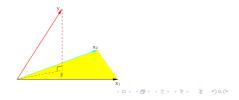
- The expansion of y on the standard orthonormal basis after Gram-Schmidt procedure can be summarised in the following algorithm:
 - 1. Initialize $\mathbf{z}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{1}_n$ 2. For j = 1, ..., p: Regress \mathbf{z}_j on $\{\mathbf{z}_0,\dots,\mathbf{z}_{j-1}\}$ to produce coefficients $\hat{\gamma}_{lj} = \langle \mathbf{z}_l, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle / \langle \mathbf{z}_l, \mathbf{z}_l \rangle$ with $l = 0, \dots, j-1$ and residual vectors $\mathbf{z}_j = \mathbf{x}_j - \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} \hat{\gamma}_{kj} \mathbf{z}_k$
 - 3. Regress **y** on the residual \mathbf{z}_p to give the estimate \hat{w}_p
- If \mathbf{x}_p is highly correlated with some of the other \mathbf{x}_k 's, the residual vector \mathbf{z}_p will be close to zero; in such situation, the coefficient \hat{w}_p with small Z-score $\frac{\hat{w}_p}{\hat{\sigma}_p}$ could be thrown out, where $\hat{\sigma}_p^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\|\mathbf{z}_p\|_2^2}$ is an estimate of $\operatorname{Var}(\hat{w}_p) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\|\mathbf{z}_p\|_2^2}$

Least Square (LS)

- Minimize the total residual sum-of-squares : $RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_1 - \dots - w_p x_p)^2 = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$
- When X^TX is invertible, the minimizer w satisfies

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} RSS(\hat{\mathbf{w}}) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

• The prediction $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}$ is a projection of \mathbf{y} onto the linear space spanned by the column vectors of $\boldsymbol{X}\,;$ $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$ is the projection matrix satisfying $\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P}$



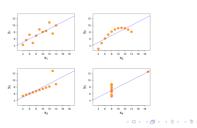
Projection by Orthogonalization

- Another useful formulation : let $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_i$, then OLS can be formulated by using the centralized data $\{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i, \tilde{y}_i\}_{i=1}^n = \{\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}, y_i - \bar{y}\}_{i=1}^n$, $RSS(\tilde{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{y}_i - w_1 \tilde{x}_{i1} - \cdots - w_p \tilde{x}_{ip})^2 = \|\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\tilde{\mathbf{w}}\|_2^2$, with $\hat{w}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\tilde{\mathbf{w}}}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}}$
- Ordinary least square (OLS) prediction $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}$ is the projection of \mathbf{y} on the linear space spanned by the columns of **X**, i.e., $\mathcal{X} = \operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_{.,0}, \mathbf{x}_{.,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{.,p}\}$, recall that $\mathbf{x}_{.,0} = \mathbf{1}_n$
- If $\{\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,0},\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1},\ldots,\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p}\}$ forms a set of orthonormal basis, then $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{i=0}^{p} \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,i} \rangle \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,i}$
- · If not, we can first do orthogonalization by Gram-Schmidt procedure for the set $\{\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,0},\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1},\ldots,\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p}\}$
- · Similar orthogonalization procedures can be done by QR decomposition or SVD of the matrix $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ (classic topics in numerical linear algebra)



Shortcomings of Fitting Nonlinear Data

- Evaluating the model by Coefficient of Determination R^2 : $R^2 := 1 \frac{SS_{\text{res}}}{SS_{\text{tot}}} (= \frac{SS_{\text{res}}}{SS_{\text{tot}}} \text{ for linear regression), where } SS_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \bar{y})^2 \text{ is the total sum of squares, } SS_{\text{reg}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i \bar{y})^2 \text{ is the regression sum of squares, and } SS_{\text{res}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2 \text{ is the residual sum of squares.}$ The largest the R^2 the better the matrix
- The larger the R^2 , the better the model



Multicolinearity

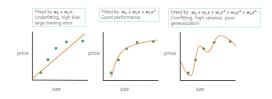
- If the columns of \mathbf{X} are almost linearly dependent, i.e., multicolinearity, then $\det(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})\approx 0$, the diagonal entries in $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ is quite large. This implies the variances of $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ get large, and the estimate is not accurate
- Eg : 10 samples are drawn from the true model $y=10+2x_1+3x_2+\epsilon$; the LS estimator is $\hat{w}_0=11.292$, $\hat{w}_1=11.307$, $\hat{w}_2=-6.591$, far from the true coefficients; correlation coefficient is $r_{12}=0.986$
- Remedies: ridge regression, principal component regression, partial least squares regression, etc.

No.				4		6		8		10
x_1	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.4
x_2	1.1	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.5
ε_i	0.8	-0.5	0.4	-0.5	0.2	1.9	1.9	0.6	-1.5	-1.5
y _i	16.3	16.8	19.2	18.0	19.5	20.9	21.1	20.9	20.3	22.0



Overfitting

- Easily to be overfitted when introducing more variables, e.g., regress housing price with housing size
- The high degree model also fits the noises in the training data, so generalizes poorly to new data
- Remedy : regularization





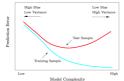
Bias-Variance Decomposition

ullet Bias-variance decomposition of generalization error in L^2 loss :

$$\mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}} \textit{R}_{\textit{exp}}(\hat{f}(\textbf{x})) = \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}} \mathrm{E}_{\textit{P}}[(y - \hat{f}(\textbf{x}))^2 | \textbf{x}] = \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}(\hat{f}(\textbf{x}))}_{\textit{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{Bias}^2(\hat{f}(\textbf{x}))}_{\textit{bias}} + \underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\textit{noise}}$$

where $P = P(y|\mathbf{x})$ is the conditional probability of y given \mathbf{x}

- Bias : $\mathrm{Bias}(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) = \mathrm{E}_{train}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x})$ is the average accuracy of prediction for the model (deviation from the truth)
- Variance : $\mathrm{Var}(\hat{r}(\mathbf{x})) = \mathrm{E}_{train}(\hat{r}(\mathbf{x}) \mathrm{E}_{train}\hat{r}(\mathbf{x}))^2$ is the variability of the model prediction due to different data set (stability)





Bias-Variance Decomposition (Derivation)

Model $y = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon$, with $E(\epsilon) = 0$ and $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$ (system error)

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}} R_{\textit{exp}}(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) = & \mathrm{E}_{\textit{P}}[(y - f(\mathbf{x}))^2 | \mathbf{x}] + \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}[f(\mathbf{x}) - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2] \\ &+ 2\underbrace{\mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}} \mathrm{E}_{\textit{P}}[(y - f(\mathbf{x})) | f(\mathbf{x}) - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) | \mathbf{x}]}_{\textit{vanishes since } \mathrm{E}_{\textit{P}}(y - f(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{x}) = 0} \\ = & \sigma^2 + \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}[(f(\mathbf{x}) - \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2] + \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}[(\mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2] \\ &+ 2\underbrace{\mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}[(f(\mathbf{x}) - \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))(\mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))]}_{\textit{vanishes since } \mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}\hat{f}(\mathrm{E}_{\textit{train}}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))]} \\ &= & \sigma^2 + \mathrm{Bias}^2(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) + \mathrm{Var}(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) \end{split}$$

The more complicated the model, the lower the bias, but the higher the variance.



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Regularization by Subset Selection

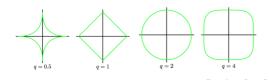
- In high dimensions, the more the input attributes, the larger the variance
- Shrinking some coefficients or setting them to zero can reduce the overfitting
- Using less input variables also help interpretation with the most important variables
- Subset selection: retaining only a subset of the variables, while eliminating the rest variables from the model
- Best-subset selection : find for each $k \in \{0,1,\ldots,p\}$ the subset $S_k \subset \{1,\ldots,p\}$ of size k that gives the smallest $RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i w_0 \sum_{j \in S_k} w_j x_{ij})^2$

Regularization by Penalties

Add a penalty term, in general I_a-norm

$$\begin{split} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_1 - \dots - w_p x_p)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_q^q \\ = & \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_q^q \end{split}$$

- q = 2: ridge regression
- q = 1 : LASSO regression



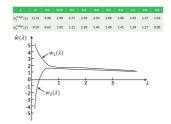
Solving Ridge Regression

- Easy to show that $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{ridge} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{p+1})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$
- ullet The estimator is also a projection of ullet : $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{ridge} = \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{p+1})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$
- ullet X can be diagonalized by SVD : old X = PDQ with $\mathbf{D} = \operatorname{diag}(\nu_1, \dots, \nu_{p+1}) \text{, and } \mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (p+1)}, \ \mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p+1) \times (p+1)}$ being orthogonal matrices $(\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}_{p+1})$
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{ridge} = \mathbf{P} \mathrm{diag}(\frac{\nu_1^2}{\nu_1^2 + \lambda}, \dots, \frac{\nu_{p+1}^2}{\nu_{p+1}^2 + \lambda}) \mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{y}$, while $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{OLS} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{y}$
- In the spectral space, the ridge regression estimator is a shrinkage of the OLS estimator ($\lambda = 0$)



Ridge Trace

- The functional plot of $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{ridge}(\lambda)$ with λ is called ridge trace
- The large variations in ridge trace indicate the multicolinearity in variables
- When $\lambda \in (0, 0.5)$, the ridge traces have large variations, it suggests to choose $\lambda=1$



Ridge Regression

• The optimization problem turns to be

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathbf{w}} &= \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_1 - \dots - w_p x_p)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \\ &= \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \end{split}$$

- $\lambda \geqslant 0$ is a fixed parameter which has to be tuned by cross-validation
- Equivalent to the constraint minimization problem :

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2, \qquad \text{subject to} \qquad \|\mathbf{w}\|_2 \leqslant \mu,$$

where $\mu \geqslant 0$ is a prescribed threshold (tuning parameter)

• The large λ corresponds to the small μ .



Bayesian Viewpoint of Ridge Regression

- Given **X** and **w**, the conditional distribution of **y** is $P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w},\sigma^2\mathbf{I}) \propto \exp\big(-\tfrac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}))^T(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})\big)$
- In addition, assume \mathbf{w} has a prior distribution $P(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \mathbf{\Lambda}_0) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} \mu_0)^T \Lambda_0^{-1}(\mathbf{w} \mu_0)\right)$
- ullet By Bayes theorem, the posterior distribution of ullet given the data ullet and ullet

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{P}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{y}) &\propto \mathrm{P}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})\mathrm{P}(\mathbf{w}) \\ &\propto \exp\big(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \\ &-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{\Lambda}_0^{-1}\mathbf{w} - 2\mu_0^T\mathbf{\Lambda}_0^{-1}\mathbf{w})\big) \\ &\propto \exp\big(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} - \mu_m)^T\mathbf{\Lambda}_m^{-1}(\mathbf{w} - \mu_m)\big) \end{split}$$

where
$$\Lambda_m = (\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{\Lambda}_0^{-1})^{-1}$$
 and $\mu_m = \mathbf{\Lambda}_m (\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{\Lambda}_0^{-1} \mu_0)$

• If $\mu_0=0$ and $\mathbf{\Lambda}_0=\frac{\sigma_\lambda^2}{\lambda}\mathbf{I}_{p+1}$, then $\hat{\mathbf{w}}=\mu_m=(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}+\lambda\mathbf{I}_{p+1})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$ maximizes the posterior probability $\mathrm{P}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{y})$



LASSO Regression

- Proposed by R. Tibshirani, short for "Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator"
- Can be used to estimate the coefficients and select the important variables simultaneously
- · Reduce the model complexity, avoid overfitting, and improve the generalization ability
- · Also improve the model interpretability

Regression Shrinkage and Selection via the Lasso - jstor

https://www.jstor.org/stable/2346178 ▼翻译此页 作者: R Thishirani - 1996 - 被引用水料。27385—相关文章 Regression Shrinkage and Selection via the Lasso. By ROBERT TIBSHIRANIt University of Toronto, Canada. [Received January 1994. Revised January 1995]

LASSO Formulation

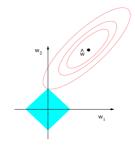
The optimization problem

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathbf{w}} &= \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} E(\mathbf{w}) \\ E(\mathbf{w}) &= \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 \end{split}$$

Equivalent to the constraint minimization problem:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathbf{w}} &= \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2, \\ \text{subject to} &\quad \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 \leqslant \mu, \end{split}$$

- The large λ corresponds to the small μ .
- The optimal solution is sparse with $\hat{w}_2 = 0$



40+40+45+45+ 8 4940

Solving LASSO Regression

$$ullet$$
 Assume $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_{p+1}$, then $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{OLS} = \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$

•
$$\partial_{\mathbf{w}} E(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \lambda (\partial |w_0| \times \cdots \times \partial |w_p|)$$

•
$$\mathbf{0} \in \partial_{\mathbf{w}} E(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{lasso})$$
 implies $0 \in \hat{w}_{i}^{lasso} - \hat{w}_{i}^{OLS} + \lambda \partial |\hat{w}_{i}^{lasso}|$

• If
$$\hat{w}_i^{lasso} > 0$$
, $\partial |\hat{w}_i^{lasso}| = \{1\}$, and $\hat{w}_i^{lasso} = \hat{w}_i^{OLS} - \lambda$ with $\hat{w}_i^{OLS} > \lambda$

• If
$$\hat{w}_i^{lasso} < 0$$
, $\partial |\hat{w}_i^{lasso}| = \{-1\}$, and $\hat{w}_i^{lasso} = \hat{w}_i^{OLS} + \lambda$ with $\hat{w}_i^{OLS} < -\lambda$

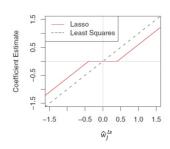
• If
$$\hat{w}_i^{lasso} = 0$$
, $\partial |\hat{w}_i^{lasso}| = [-1, 1]$, and $\hat{w}_i^{OLS} \in [-\lambda, \lambda]$

• In summary,
$$\hat{w}_i^{lasso} = (|\hat{w}_i^{OLS}| - \lambda)_+ \mathrm{sign}(\hat{w}_i^{OLS})$$



Shrinkage and Selection Property of LASSO

 $\hat{w}_i^{Jasso}=(|\hat{w}_i^{OLS}|-\lambda)_+\mathrm{sign}(\hat{w}_i^{OLS})$ is called soft thresholding of \hat{w}_i^{OLS} , where (a)_+ = \max(a,0) is the positive part of a





Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) Estimation

- Given θ , the conditional distribution of \mathbf{y} is $P(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$
- ullet In addition, assume the parameter heta has a prior distribution P(heta)
- The posterior distribution of θ given the data \mathbf{y} is $P(\theta|\mathbf{y}) \propto P(\mathbf{y}|\theta)P(\theta)$
- MAP choose the point of maximal posterior probability :

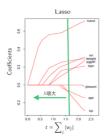
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\textit{MAP}} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}) = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left(\log P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \log P(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)$$

- If $\theta = \mathbf{w}$, and we choose the log-prior proportional to $\lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$ (i.e., the normal prior $\mathcal{N}(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\mathbf{I})$), we recover the ridge regression
- If the log-prior is proportional to $\lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$, i.e., the prior is the tensor product of Laplace (or double exponential) distribution Laplace(0, $\frac{2\sigma^2}{\lambda}$)
- Different log-prior lead to different penalties (regularization), but this is not the case in general: some penalties may not be the logarithms of probability distributions, some other penalties depend on the data (prior is independent of the data)



LASSO Path

- When λ varies, the values of the coefficients form paths (regularization paths)
- The paths are piecewise linear with the same change points, may cross the x-axis many times
- In practice, choose λ by cross-validation





Hyper-parameter Tuning

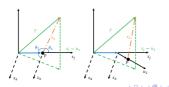
- Regularization : $\min_{f \in F} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda J(f)$
- In linear regression, $L(y, f) = (y f)^2$, $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$, $f \in F \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{R}^{p+1}$
- Model complexity : $J(f) = \begin{cases} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2, & \text{Ridge regression} \\ \|\mathbf{w}\|_1, & \text{Lasso regression} \end{cases}$
- Cross-validation (CV) : training set = training subset + validation subset
 - Simple CV : randomly split once into two subsets
 - K-fold CV : randomly split the data into K disjoint subsets with the same size, treat the union of K-1 subsets as training set, the other one as validation set, do this repeatedly and select the best λ with smallest validation error : $CV(\hat{f}, \lambda) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(y_i, \hat{f}^{-\kappa(i)}(x_i, \lambda))$,
 - where $\kappa:\{1,\ldots,N\}\to\{1,\ldots,K\}$ is a partition index map Leave-one-out CV : K=n in the previous case





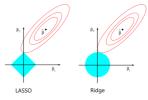
LARS (Optional) : (by Hastie and Efron) a Package for Solving LASSO

- 1. Start with all coefficients w_i equal to zero
- 2. Find the predictor x_i most correlated with y_i
- 3. Increase the coefficient w_i in the direction of the sign of its correlation with y. Take residuals $r=y-\hat{y}$ along the way. Stop when some other predictor x_k has as much correlation with r as x_i has
- 4. Increase (w_i, w_k) in their joint least squares direction, until some other predictor x_m has as much correlation with the residual r
- 5. Continue until all predictors are in the model



Other Solvers

- "glmnet" by Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani, implemented by coordinate descent, can be used in linear regression, logistic regression, etc., with LASSO (h_1) , ridge (h_2) and elastic net $(\mathit{h}_1 + \mathit{h}_2)$ regularization terms
- Why LASSO seeks the sparse solution in comparison with ridge?



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Related Regularization Models

- $\bullet \ \ \mathsf{Elastic} \ \mathsf{net} : \hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \mathsf{arg} \, \mathsf{min_w} \, \|\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{\mathsf{Xw}}\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda_2 \|\boldsymbol{w}\|_1$
- Group LASSO : $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{y} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \sum_{g=1}^G \lambda_g \|\mathbf{w}_g\|_2$, where $\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_G)$ is the group partition of \mathbf{w}
- Dantzig Selector : $\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$, subject to $\|\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})\|_{\infty} \leqslant \mu$
- Smoothly clipped absolute deviation (SCAD) penalty by Fan and Li (2005) : replace the penalty $\lambda \sum_{i=0}^p |w_i|$ by $\sum_{i=0}^p J_a(w_i, \lambda)$, where $J_a(x, \lambda)$ satisfies (for $a \geqslant 2$) : $\frac{dJ_a}{dx} = \lambda \mathrm{sign}(x) \left(I(|x| \leqslant \lambda) + \frac{(a-1)J_b}{(a-1)J_b} I(|x| > \lambda)\right)$
- Adaptive LASSO : weighted penalty $\sum_{i=0}^p \mu_i |w_i|$ where $\mu_i = \frac{1}{|\psi_i^{\text{DLS}}|^{\nu}}$ with $\nu > 0$, as an approximation to $|w_i|^{1-\nu}$, non-convex penalty







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Errors and R^2

- Mean absolute error (MAE) : $MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i \hat{y}_i|$
- Mean square error (MSE) : $MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$
- Root mean square error (RMSE) : $RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i \hat{y}_i)^2}$
- Coefficient of Determination $R^2: R^2:=1-\frac{SS_{tot}}{SS_{tot}}$, where $SS_{tot}=\sum_{i=1}^n(y_i-\bar{y})^2$ is the total sum of squares, and $SS_{res}=\sum_{i=1}^n(y_i-\hat{y}_i)^2$ is the residual sum of squares; $R^2\in[0,1]$ (might be negative); the larger the R^2 , the smaller the ratio of SS_{res} to SS_{tot} , thus the better the model

Adjusted Coefficient of Determination

- Adjusted coefficient of determination : $R_{adj}^2 = 1 \frac{(1-R^2)(n-1)}{n-p-1}$
- n is the number of samples, p is the dimensionality (or the number of attributes)
- \bullet The larger the R^2_{adj} value, the better performance the model
- When adding important variables into the model, R^2_{adj} gets larger and $\mathit{SS}_{\mathrm{res}}$ is reduced
- When adding unimportant variables into the model, R^2_{adj} may gets smaller and $SS_{\rm res}$ may increase
- In fact, one can show that $1 R_{adj}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{S^2}$, where $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-p-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2 \text{ and } S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \bar{y})^2 \text{ with } (n-p-1)\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-p-1}^2 \text{ and } (n-1)\frac{S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2 \text{ if } \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}.$

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References

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