# Introduction to Big Data Analysis Regression

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#### Outlines

Introduction

Linear Regression

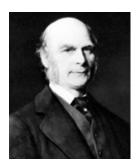
Regularizations

Model Assessment

References

#### Regression

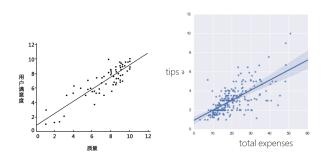
- Proposed by Francis Galton (left) and Karl Pearson (right), in the publication "Regression towards mediocrity in hereditary"
- The characteristics (e.g., height) in the offspring regress towards a mediocre point (mean) of that of their parents
- Generalization : predict the dependent variables y from 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



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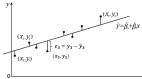
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#### Univariate Linear Model

- Linear model :  $y = w_0 + w_1 x + \epsilon$ , where  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  are regression coefficients,  $\epsilon$  is the error or noise
- Assume  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\sigma^2$  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  $(w_0 \text{ and } w_1)$  such that the sample points fit it well, i.e., the residuals are minimized,

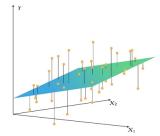
$$(\hat{w}_0, \hat{w}_1) = \arg\min_{w_0, w_1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_i)^2$$



#### Multivariate Linear Model

- Linear model :  $y = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_p x_p + \epsilon$ , where  $w_0, w_1, \dots, w_p$  are regression coefficients,  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^T$  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  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)^T \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$ .

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

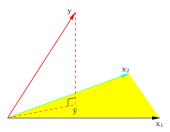


# Least Square (LS)

- 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  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  is invertible, the minimizer  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$  satisfies

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

The prediction ŷ = X(X<sup>T</sup>X)<sup>-1</sup>X<sup>T</sup>y = Py is a projection of y onto the linear space spanned by the column vectors of X;
 P = X(X<sup>T</sup>X)<sup>-1</sup>X<sup>T</sup> is the projection matrix satisfying P<sup>2</sup> = P



## Maximal Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

For fixed  $\mathbf{X}$  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  $(\mathbf{w})$ 

• 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 :

$$L(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) \text{ with}$$

$$P(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(y_i - w_0 - w_1 x_{i_1} - \dots - w_p x_{i_p})^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- 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  $I(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \log L(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = -n \log(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma) \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i w_0 w_1 x_{i1} \dots w_p x_{ip})^2$
- The same minimizer as LS :  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$

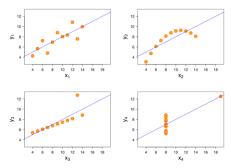
## Projection by Orthogonalization

- 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  $\hat{w}_0 = \bar{y} \hat{\mathbf{w}}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}}$
- 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  $\mathbf{X}$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{X} = \mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,0}, \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{\cdot,p}\}$ , recall that  $\mathbf{x}_{\cdot,0} = \mathbf{1}_n$
- If  $\{\mathbf{x}_{.,0}, \mathbf{x}_{.,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{.,p}\}$  forms a set of orthonormal basis, then  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{i=0}^{p} < \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_{.,i} > \mathbf{x}_{.,i}$
- If not, we can first do orthogonalization by Gram-Schmidt procedure for the set  $\{\mathbf{x}_{.,0},\mathbf{x}_{.,1},\ldots,\mathbf{x}_{.,p}\}$
- Similar orthogonalization procedures can be done by QR decomposition or SVD of the matrix X<sup>T</sup>X (classic topics in numerical linear algebra)

- $\bullet$  The expansion of  ${\bf y}$  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  $j=1,\ldots,p$ : Regress  $\mathbf{x}_j$  on  $\{\mathbf{z}_0,\ldots,\mathbf{z}_{j-1}\}$  to produce coefficients  $\hat{\gamma}_{lj}=<\mathbf{z}_l,\mathbf{x}_j>/<\mathbf{z}_l,\mathbf{z}_l>$  with  $l=0,\ldots,j-1$  and residual vectors  $\mathbf{z}_j=\mathbf{x}_j-\sum_{k=0}^{j-1}\hat{\gamma}_{kj}\mathbf{z}_k$
  - 3. Regress  $\mathbf{y}$  on the residual  $\mathbf{z}_p$  to give the estimate  $\hat{w}_p$
- 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  $\mathrm{Var}(\hat{w}_p) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\|\mathbf{z}_p\|_2^2}$

## Shortcomings of Fitting Nonlinear Data

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



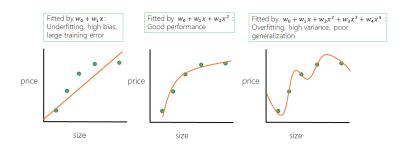
## Multicolinearity

- 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	. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	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
$\varepsilon_i$	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



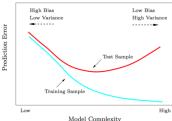
### Bias-Variance Decomposition

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

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

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

- Bias :  $\operatorname{Bias}(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) = \operatorname{E}_{train}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x})$  is the average accuracy of prediction for the model (deviation from the truth)
- Variance :  $Var(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})) = E_{train}(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) E_{train}\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2$  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)

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

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

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## Regularization by Subset Selection

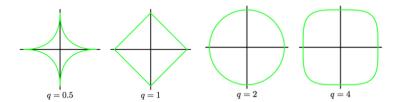
- In high dimensions, the more the input attributes, the larger the variance
- Shrinking some coefficients or setting them to zero can reduce the overfitting
- Using less input variables also help interpretation with the most important variables
- Subset selection: retaining only a subset of the variables,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

# Regularization by Penalties

• Add a penalty term, in general  $I_q$ -norm

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

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



### Ridge Regression

The optimization problem turns to be

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

$$= \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

- $\lambda \geqslant 0$  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  $\lambda$  corresponds to the small  $\mu$ .



## Solving Ridge Regression

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

## Bayesian Viewpoint of Ridge Regression

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

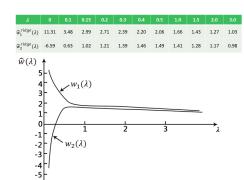
$$\begin{split} \mathrm{P}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{y}) &\propto \mathrm{P}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})\mathrm{P}(\mathbf{w}) \\ &\propto \exp\big(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \\ &-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{\Lambda}_0^{-1}\mathbf{w}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

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  $\mathbf{\Lambda}_0 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda} \mathbf{I}_{\rho+1}$ , then  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mu_m = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{\rho+1})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$  maximizes the posterior probability  $P(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{y})$ 

## Ridge Trace

- The functional plot of  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{ridge}(\lambda)$  with  $\lambda$  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  $\lambda = 1$



#### 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 Tibshirani - 1996 - 被引用次数 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

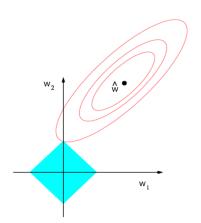
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} E(\mathbf{w})$$

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_{1}$$

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

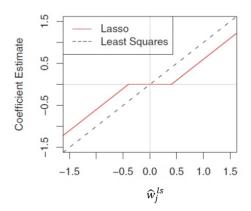


## Solving LASSO Regression

- 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

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

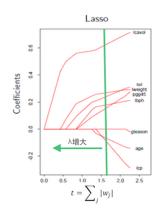
- Given  $\theta$ , the conditional distribution of  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $P(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$
- In addition, assume the parameter  $\theta$  has a prior distribution  $P(\theta)$
- The posterior distribution of  $\theta$  given the data  ${f y}$  is  ${
  m P}( heta|{f y}) \propto {
  m P}({f y}| heta)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

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

- If  $\theta = \mathbf{w}$ , and we choose the log-prior proportional to  $\lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$  (i.e., the normal prior  $\mathcal{N}(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda}\mathbf{I})$ ), 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  $\lambda$  by cross-validation



## Hyper-parameter Tuning

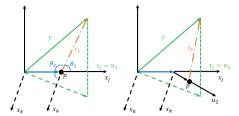
- Regularization :  $\min_{f \in F} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda J(f)$
- In linear regression,  $L(y, f) = (y f)^2$ ,  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$ ,  $f \in F \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{R}^{p+1}$
- Model complexity :  $J(f) = \begin{cases} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2, & \text{Ridge regression} \\ \|\mathbf{w}\|_1, & \text{Lasso regression} \end{cases}$
- ullet 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  $\lambda$  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





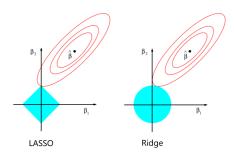
# LARS (Optional) : (by Hastie and Efron) a Package for Solving LASSO

- 1. Start with all coefficients  $w_i$  equal to zero
- 2. Find the predictor  $x_i$  most correlated with y
- 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

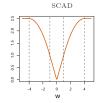
- "glmnet" by Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani, implemented by coordinate descent, can be used in linear regression, logistic regression, etc., with LASSO  $(I_1)$ , ridge  $(I_2)$  and elastic net  $(I_1 + I_2)$  regularization terms
- Why LASSO seeks the sparse solution in comparison with ridge?

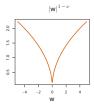


## Related Regularization Models

- Elastic net :  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \|\mathbf{y} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + \lambda_2 \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$
- 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  $a \geqslant 2$ ) :  $\frac{\mathrm{d}J_a}{\mathrm{d}x} = \lambda \mathrm{sign}(x) \Big(I(|x| \leqslant \lambda) + \frac{(a\lambda |x|)_+}{(a-1)\lambda}I(|x| > \lambda)\Big)$
- Adaptive LASSO : weighted penalty  $\sum_{i=0}^p \mu_i |w_i|$  where  $\mu_i = \frac{1}{|\hat{w}_i^{OLS}|^{\nu}}$  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  $R^2: R^2:=1-\frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}}$ , 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)
- The larger the  $R_{adj}^2$  value, the better performance the model
- When adding important variables into the model,  $R_{adj}^2$  gets larger and  $SS_{res}$  is reduced
- When adding unimportant variables into the model,  $R_{adj}^2$  may gets smaller and  $SS_{res}$  may increase
- In fact, one can show that  $1 R_{adj}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{S^2}$ , where  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-p-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$  and  $S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \bar{y})^2$  with  $(n-p-1)\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-p-1}^2$  and  $(n-1)\frac{S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$  if  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$ .

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- 周志华, 机器学习, 2016
- T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, and J. Friedman, The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data mining, Inference, and Prediction, 2nd Edition, 2009