SDS 385: Exercises 1 - Preliminaries

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Problem 1

(A)

$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{w_i}{2} \left(y_i - x_i^T \beta \right)^2 \tag{1}$$

$$= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\arg \min} \frac{1}{2} (Y - X\beta)^T W (Y - X\beta)$$
 (2)

$$\frac{1}{2}(Y - X\beta)^T W(Y - X\beta) = \frac{1}{2}(Y^T - \beta^T X^T)W(Y - X\beta)$$
(3)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(Y^TW - \beta^T X^T W)(Y - X\beta) \tag{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (Y^T W Y - \beta^T X^T W Y - Y^T W X \beta + \beta^T X^T W X \beta)$$
 (5)

$$= \frac{1}{2} (Y^T W Y - 2(X\beta)^T W Y + \beta^T X^T W X \beta)$$
 (6)

$$= \frac{1}{2}Y^TWY - (X\beta)^TWY + \frac{1}{2}\beta^TX^TWX\beta, \tag{7}$$

because

$$\beta^T X^T W Y = (X\beta)^T W Y, \tag{8}$$

and

$$Y^T W X \beta = (Y^T W X \beta)^T : Y^T W X \beta \in \mathbb{R}^1$$
(9)

$$(Y^T W X \beta)^T = (W X \beta)^T Y = (X \beta)^T W^T Y = (X \beta)^T W Y.$$

$$(10)$$

We want to minimize the objective function from Eqn. (7), so we take the gradient with respect to β and set it equal to zero. For each of the three terms, their are respective gradients with respect to β are

(i)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \frac{1}{2} Y^T W Y = 0 \tag{11}$$

(ii)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} - (X\beta)^T W Y = -X^T W Y \tag{12}$$

(iii)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \frac{1}{2} \beta^T X^T W X \beta = \frac{1}{2} \beta^T (X^T W X + (X^T W X)^T)$$
 (13)

$$= X^T W X \beta. \tag{14}$$

Summing these terms and equaling them to zero yields

$$X^T W X \beta - X^T W Y = 0 : (15)$$

$$(X^T W X)\hat{\beta} = X^T W Y \tag{16}$$

(B) The brute force method of solving Eqn. (16) is the inversion method, i.e.

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T W y. \tag{17}$$

However, this method is computationally expensive. Therefore I propose an alternative methods to solving this matrix equation using the Cholesky decomposition. Cholesky Decomposition Let

$$C = X^T W X, \quad D = X^T W y \tag{18}$$

so

$$C\hat{\beta} = D. \tag{19}$$

We decompose matrix C into a product of a lower-triangular matrix and an upper-triangular matrix, such that $U = L^T$ so

$$C = LU = LL^T : (20)$$

$$LL^T\hat{\beta} = D. (21)$$

Furthermore we define matrix $A = L^T \hat{\beta}$. Thus we are left with two matrix equations to solve.

$$LA = D (22)$$

$$L^T \hat{\beta} = A \tag{23}$$

This method will be much less computationally intensive than the inversion method because R can leverage the fact that the two left-matrices L and $U = L^T$ are triangular. We still must invert L and L^T but this is simpler than taking an inverse of a more complicated matrix X^TWX . This is similar to an LU decomposition, with the exception that we necessarily have two triangular matrices that are transposes of one another. Therefore, this method gains a computational advantage over LU decomposition from symmetric exploitation.

(C) Code for implementing this method is shown in the appendix to this paper. Below are results from benchmarking these two methods, the inversion method and the method of Cholesky decomposition. The Cholesky method consistently outperforms the inversion method in computing efficiency; however, its edge over the inversion method drops off with increasing N keeping P constant, while its edge improves with increasing P keeping N constant.

Figure 1: Benchmarking the inversion and Cholesky method for different N and P

(D) The Matrix package in R is suited to handle sparse matrices. We do this by redefining X as $X \leftarrow Matrix(X, sparse = TRUE)$. By doing this, R streamlines its handling of the X matrix and subsequent matrix products incorporating X by storing X as a coordinate list of non-zero entries as opposed to a

matrix with many zeros within it. For the sparse method, we again use the Cholesky decomposition after converting X to a sparse matrix. In the benchmarks below, we see the computational advantage gained by handling X in this fashion. Here, α represents the density of X, i.e., the proportion of entries which are non-zero. The increase in efficiency is more noticeable with higher sparsity, although even for $\alpha = 0.25$ the effect is still quite dramatic.

```
+ Inv.method(X, W, y),
+ Cho.decomp(X, W, y),
+ Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W,
                                                                                                                                                                                           + Inv.method(X, W, y),
+ Cho.decomp(X, W, y),
+ Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y),
+ times=5, unit = "ms") # N = 2000, P = 1000, alpha = 0.02
+ the decomps ARSE(X, W, y),
+ times=5, unit = "ms") # N = 2000, P = 500, alpha = 0.02
Unit: milliseconds
                                                                                                                                                                                           + times=5, unit = '
Unit: milliseconds
  expr min lq mean median uq
Inv.method(X, W, y) 737.2686 759.2310 777.88289 777.13764 788.57384
Cho.decomp(X, W, y) 477.1588 487.8474 495.89320 501.13615 505.09096
Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y) 86.5331 94.7683 96.63769 95.98655 98.72639
                                                                                                                                                                                             Inv.method(X, W, y) 4710.3185 4931.8045 5188.5055 5157.074 5237.1337 (ho.decomp(X, W, y) 2364.0934 2426.9523 2660.8243 2668.508 2793.3968 (ho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y) 527.0455 591.6044 602.6213 603.253 645.1521
 > microbenchmark(
                                                                                                                                                                                          > microbenchmark(
 + Inv.method(X, W, y),

+ Cho.decomp(X, W, y),

+ Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y),

+ times=5, unit = "ms") # N = 2000, P = 500, alpha = 0.05
                                                                                                                                                                                         + Inv.method(X, W, y),

+ Cho.decomp(X, W, y),

+ Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y),

+ times=5, unit = "ms") # N = 2000, P = 1000, alpha = 0.05
  expr min lq mean median uq
Inv.method(X, W, y) 911.9994 998.2114 991.7131 1002.9189 1013.9052
Cho.decomp(X, W, y) 629.7340 633.9266 673.3554 690.7624 700.1041
Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y) 159.6571 162.6814 178.2505 180.8469 185.6584
                                                                                                                                                                                           expr min lq mean median uq
Inv.method(X, W, y) 4965.8643 4978.5698 5093.2457 5007.6897 5237.9068
Cho.decomp(X, W, y) 2251.6841 2330.9450 2397.7684 2420.4825 2446.5866
Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y) 720.0268 755.9948 793.4475 772.5409 841.1671
 > microbenchmark(
                                                                                                                                                                                    > microbenchmark(
> microbenchmark(
+ Inv.method(X, W, y),
+ Cho.decomp(X, W, y),
+ Cho.decompSARSE(X, W, y),
+ times=5, unit = "ms") # N = 2000, P = 1000, alpha = 0.25
Unit: milliseconds
  expr min lq mean median uq
Inv.method(X, W, y) 836.1431 839.0217 857.1903 852.6260 857.0857
Cho.decomp(X, W, y) 542.3195 543.8558 959.7348 561.1348 562.7366
Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y) 250.6403 272.0944 275.7578 277.0591 284.7214
                                                                                                                                                                                     expr min lq mean median uq
Inv.method(X, W, y) 4926.726 4951.693 5025.735 5029.666 5047.827.
Cho.decomp(X, W, y) 2375.181 2419.114 2465.391 2502.977 2506.080
Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y) 1165.509 1172.599 1255.190 1260.516 1277.994
```

Figure 2: Benchmarking for various values of N, P, and density level α

Problem 2

(A) We have $y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(m_i, w_i)$, where

$$w_i = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)}, \quad 1 - w_i = \frac{\exp(-x_i^T \beta)}{1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)}, \tag{24}$$

so the negative log likelihood is

$$\ell(\beta) = -\log\left\{\prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y_i|\beta)\right\}$$
(25)

$$= -\log \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^{N} {m_i \choose y_i} (w_i)^{y_i} (1 - w_i)^{m_i - y_i} \right\}$$
 (26)

$$= -\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\log \binom{m_i}{y_i} + y_i \log(w_i) + (m_i - y_i) \log(1 - w_i) \right) \right\}$$
 (27)

$$= -\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\log {m_i \choose y_i} + y_i \log \left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)} \right) + (m_i - y_i) \log \left(\frac{\exp(-x_i^T \beta)}{1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)} \right) \right) \right\}$$
(28)

$$= -\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\log \binom{m_i}{y_i} - y_i \log(1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)) - (m_i - y_i) x_i^T \beta - m_i \log(1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)) + y_i \log(1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)) \right) \right\}$$
(29)

 $= -\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\log \binom{m_i}{y_i} - (m_i - y_i) x_i^T \beta - m_i \log(1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)) \right) \right\}$ (30)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left((m_i - y_i) x_i^T \beta + m_i \log(1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)) - \log \binom{m_i}{y_i} \right)$$
(31)

(32)

The gradient for this expression is,

$$\nabla \ell(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left((m_i - y_i) x_i - m_i \frac{\exp(-x_i^T \beta)}{1 + \exp(-x_i^T \beta)} x_i \right)$$
(33)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} ((m_i - y_i)x_i - m_i(1 - w_i)x_i)$$
(34)

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{N}(m_{i}w_{i}-y_{i})x_{i}$$
(35)

$$= -X^{T}(y - mw) \tag{36}$$

where y is the $n \times 1$ vector of responses and mw is the element-wise product of the two $n \times 1$ vectors m and w.

(B) Code for implementing the gradient descent method is shown in the appendix. Note that we normalize the values in the X matrix and add a column of 1's to make an intercept term. We start by having an initial arbitrary guess for β , which we define as β_0 . Then we use an iterative process to converge upon the true value of β based on the calculated gradient of the log likelihood at $\hat{\beta}_t$ and an arbitrary step size, α , as follows:

$$\hat{\beta}_{t+1} = \hat{\beta}_t - \alpha \times \nabla \ell(\hat{\beta}_t) \tag{37}$$

	Grad descent	R: glm
\hat{eta}_1	0.48553	0.48702
\hat{eta}_2	-7.14618	-7.22185
\hat{eta}_3	1.65481	1.65476
\hat{eta}_4	-1.80713	-1.73763
\hat{eta}_5	13.99290	14.00485
\hat{eta}_6	1.07426	1.07495
\hat{eta}_7	-0.07319	-0.07723
\hat{eta}_8	0.67573	0.67512
\hat{eta}_9	2.59383	2.59287
\hat{eta}_{10}	0.44615	0.44626
$\hat{\beta}_{11}$	-0.48276	-0.48248

Table 1: Comparison of results from gradient descent and glm

We use an intial guess of $\beta_0 = 0$, a step size of $\alpha = 0.025$, and 50,000 iterations and reach convergence in optimizing the log likelihood, as shown in the trace plot below. Our final estimations of β are reported below along with estimations from R's native glm function. The two sets of estimates are in close agreement with one another.

(C) We need to calculate the Hessian matrix of the log likelihood function, $\nabla^2 \ell(\beta)$. The Hessian will be a $P \times P$ matrix, with the element in row i and column j being¹

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_j} \ell(\beta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_i} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} \ell(\beta) \right) \tag{38}$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_i} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\ldots) \right)$$
 (39)

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_i} \left(\sum_{k=1}^N (m_k w_k - y_k) x_{kj} \right) \tag{40}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} x_{ki} x_{kj} m_k w_k (1 - w_k) \tag{41}$$

Note:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_i} w_k = x_{ki} \frac{\exp(-x_k^T \beta)}{(1 + \exp(-x_k^T \beta))^2} \tag{42}$$

$$=x_{ki}w_k(1-w_k) \tag{43}$$

This matrix is equivalent to X^TWX where $W = \operatorname{diag}(m_1w_1(1-w_1), \dots, m_Nw_N(1-w_N))$

Let a=(y-mw). We have already shown that $\nabla \ell(\beta)=-X^T(y-mw)=-X^Ta$ and $\nabla^2 \ell(\beta)=X^TWX$.

¹Notice the reindexing shown below for summations.

The second-order Taylor approximation for $\ell(\beta)$ around the point β_0 is,²

$$\hat{\ell}(\beta) = \ell(\beta_0) + (\nabla \ell(\beta))^T (\beta - \beta_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta_0)^T \nabla^2 \ell(\beta) (\beta - \beta_0)$$
(44)

$$= \ell(\beta_0) + (-X^T a)^T (\beta - \beta_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta_0)^T X^T W X (\beta - \beta_0)$$
(45)

$$= \frac{1}{2}([\beta - \beta_0] - (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T a)^T X^T W X ([\beta - \beta_0] - (X^T W X)^{-1} X^T a) + c$$
(46)

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta_0 + X^{-1} W^{-1} (X^T)^{-1} X^T a)^T X^T W X (\beta - \beta_0 + X^{-1} W^{-1} (X^T)^{-1} X^T a) + c$$
 (47)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(\beta - \beta_0 + X^{-1}W^{-1}a)^T X^T W X (\beta - \beta_0 X^{-1}W^{-1}a) + c$$
(48)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(X\beta - X\beta_0 + XX^{-1}W^{-1}a)^T W(X\beta - X\beta_0 + XX^{-1}W^{-1}a) + c$$
(49)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(X\beta - X\beta_0 + W^{-1}a)^T W(X\beta - X\beta_0 + W^{-1}a) + \dots$$
 (50)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(z - X\beta)^T W(z - X\beta) + c,$$
(51)

where c is some constant, $z = X\beta_0 + W^{-1}a = X\beta_0 + W^{-1}(y - mw)$

(D) Now we use Newton's to estimate β . This is also an iterative process, though now we need far fewer iterations to achieve convergence because we are taking the curvature of our objective function $(\ell(\beta))$ into account. In fact, we only use 10 iterations and achieve estimates $\hat{\beta}$ which are *exactly* in line with estimates from glm.

Newton's Method:

$$\hat{\beta}_{t+1} = \hat{\beta}_t - (\nabla^2 \ell(\hat{\beta}_t))^{-1} \nabla \ell(\hat{\beta}_t)$$
(52)

	N.'s method	R: glm
\hat{eta}_1	0.48702	0.48702
\hat{eta}_2	-7.22185	-7.22185
\hat{eta}_3	1.65476	1.65476
\hat{eta}_4	-1.73763	-1.73763
\hat{eta}_5	14.00485	14.00485
\hat{eta}_6	1.07495	1.07495
\hat{eta}_7	-0.07723	-0.07723
\hat{eta}_8	0.67512	0.67512
\hat{eta}_9	2.59287	2.59287
\hat{eta}_{10}	0.44626	0.44626
\hat{eta}_{11}	-0.48248	-0.48248

Figure 3: Comparison of results from Newton's method and glm

(E) Gradient descent requires many iterations, and there is no simple way to know what step size is wise. In contrast, Newton's method converges upon the MLE with far fewer iterations. However, for Newton's

 $^{^2} Help\ with\ completing\ the\ square\ obtained\ from:\ \texttt{https://justindomke.wordpress.com/completing-the-square-in-n-dimensions/normalised}.$

method we must invert the Hessian matrix, is computationally intensive for large matrices and will be impossible if the Hessian is singular.

```
######## Created by Spencer Woody on 24 Aug 2016 ########
   library(Matrix)
  library(microbenchmark)
  ### No. 1 pt C
  # Set N, P, X, W, and y
  N <- 4000
  P <- 1000
  X <- matrix(rnorm(N * P), nrow = N)
  y <- matrix(rnorm(N), nrow = N)
  W <- diag(rep(1, N))
  # Inversion method
  Inv.method <- function(X.Inv, W.Inv, y.Inv) {</pre>
      XtWX <- (t(X.Inv)*diag(W.Inv)) %*% X.Inv</pre>
      XtWY <- (t(X.Inv)*diag(W.Inv)) %*% y.Inv</pre>
      bhat.Inv <- solve(XtWX) %*% XtWY</pre>
      return (bhat.Inv)
  }
  Cho.decomp <- function(X.Cho, W.Cho, y.Cho) {
      D.Cho <- (t(X.Cho)*diag(W.Cho)) %*% y.Cho
      C.Cho <- (t(X.Cho)*diag(W.Cho)) %*% X.Cho</pre>
      U.Cho <- chol(C.Cho)
      L.Cho <- t(U.Cho)
      u <- forwardsolve(L.Cho, D.Cho)
      bhat.Cho <- backsolve(U.Cho, u)</pre>
      return (bhat.Cho)
40
  microbenchmark (
      Inv.method(X, W, y),
      Cho.decomp(X, W, y),
      times = 5, unit = "ms") \# N = 4000, P = 1000
45
  ### No. 1 pt D
  N <- 2000
  P <- 1000
  # Sparsity measure # 0.01, 0.05, 0.25
  alpha <- 0.25
```

```
X <- matrix(rnorm(N * P), nrow = N)
mask <- matrix(rbinom(N * P, 1, alpha), nrow = N)</pre>
X \leftarrow mask * X
W <- diag(rep(1, N))
Cho.decompSPARSE <- function(X.Cho, W.Cho, y.Cho) {
     X.Cho <- Matrix(X.Cho, sparse = T)</pre>
     D.Cho <- (t(X.Cho)*diag(W.Cho)) %*% y.Cho
     C.Cho <- (t(X.Cho)*diag(W.Cho)) %*% X.Cho</pre>
     U.Cho <- chol(C.Cho)
     L.Cho <- t(U.Cho)
     u \leftarrow forwardsolve(L.Cho, D.Cho)
     bhat.Cho <- backsolve(U.Cho, u)</pre>
     return(bhat.Cho)
}
microbenchmark (
     Inv.method(X, W, y),
     Cho.decomp(X, W, y),
     {\tt Cho.decompSPARSE(X, W, y),}
     times=5, unit = "ms") \# N = 2000, P = 1000, alpha = 0.25
 # END
```

```
######## Created by Spencer Woody on 24 Aug 2016 ########
   # Read in data file, standardize X
  wdbc <- read.csv("wdbc.csv", header = FALSE)</pre>
  X <- as.matrix(wdbc[, 3:12])</pre>
  X \leftarrow scale(X)
  X <- cbind(rep(1, nrow(X)), X)</pre>
  y <- wdbc[, 2]
  y <- y == "M"
  beta <- as.matrix(rep(0, ncol(X)))</pre>
  mi <- 1
   # Function for computing w.i
  comp.wi <- function (X, beta) {</pre>
     wi <-1 / (1 + exp(-X %*% beta))
      return(wi)
  # Function for computing likelihood
  loglik <- function(beta, y, X, mi) {</pre>
      loglik <- apply((mi - y) * (X \%*% beta)+ mi*log(1 + exp(-X \%*% beta)), 2, sum)
      return(loglik)
   # Function for computing gradient for likelihood
  grad.loglik <- function(beta, y, X, mi){</pre>
    grad <- array(NA, dim = length(beta))</pre>
    wi <- comp.wi(X, beta)</pre>
    grad <- apply(X*as.numeric(mi * wi - y), 2, sum)</pre>
    return(grad)
  }
  ###
  ### Gradient descent
  ###
  stepfactor <- 0.025
  n.steps <- 50000
  log.lik <- NULL</pre>
  for (step in 1:n.steps) {
      log.lik[step] <- loglik(beta, y, X, mi)</pre>
      beta <- beta - stepfactor * grad.loglik(beta, y, X, mi)</pre>
50
  }
   # Create trace plot of likelihood, check for convergence
```

```
png("beta_trace1.png")
   plot(log.lik,
        main = "Trace Plot for log likelihood(beta)",
        xlab = "Step",
        ylab = "log likelihood(beta)")
   dev.off()
   # Compare results to R's glm function
   mymodel \leftarrow glm(y \sim X[, c(-1)], family = "binomial")
   summary(mymodel)
   print(beta)
   ###
   ### Newton's method
   ###
   beta.N <- as.matrix(rep(0, ncol(X)))</pre>
  n.steps <- 10
   log.lik2 <- NULL</pre>
   for (step in 1:n.steps) {
       log.lik2[step] <- loglik(beta, y, X, mi)</pre>
       w.i <- as.numeric(comp.wi(X, beta.N))</pre>
80
       W <- diag(w.i*(1-w.i))</pre>
       Hessian <- t(X) %*% W %*% X
       beta.N <- beta.N - solve(Hessian) %*% grad.loglik(beta.N, y, X, mi)
   # Show estimates from Newton's method
   round(as.matrix(coef(mymodel)) - beta.N, 8)
```