

Linear model selection and regularization *

for least squares \rightarrow true relationship is linear \rightarrow low bias
 $\rightarrow n \gg p \rightarrow$ low variance \rightarrow otherwise high variance and overfitting.
 $\rightarrow p > n \rightarrow$ no unique solution

Alternative \rightarrow Subset selection \rightarrow select subset of $p \rightarrow$ use least square on them
 \rightarrow Shrinkage (regularization) \rightarrow fit on all $p \rightarrow$ coefficients go towards 0 \rightarrow reduce variance \rightarrow can also be viewed as variable selection
 \rightarrow Dimension reduction \rightarrow projecting p predictors on M -dimension ($M < p$) where M are linear combinations of variables. Then fit on the M predictors.

Subset selection

Best subset selection

1. Let M_0 denote the null model with contains no predictors. This model simply predicts the sample mean for each observations
2. For $h = 1, 2, \dots, p$
 - (a) Fit all $\binom{p}{h}$ models that contain h predictors
 - (b) Pick the best among $\binom{p}{h}$ models, and call it M_h (smallest ASS or biggest R^2).
3. Select the best among M_0, \dots, M_p using C_p , BIC, adjusted R^2

Forward stepwise

1. Let M_0 denote the null model with no predictors
2. For $h = 1, \dots, p-1$
 - (a) consider all $p-h$ models that augment the predictors in M_h with one additional predictor.
 - (b) choose the best among these $p-h$ models, call it M_{h+1} (using ASS or R^2)
3. Select best among M_0, \dots, M_p (BIC, AIC, adj R^2)

Backward stepwise

1. Let M_p denote the full model, which contains all p predictors.
2. For $h = p, p-1, \dots, 1$:
 - (a) consider all h models that contain all but one of the predictors in M_h , for a total of $h-1$ pred.
 - (b) choose the best among these h models and call it M_{h-1} . Here using ASS or R^2
3. choose best among M_0, \dots, M_p

Select set of models with # numbers of variables

best is small $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bullet C_p = \frac{1}{n} (ASS + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2) \text{ where } \hat{\sigma}^2 \text{ is an estimate of the variance of the error } \epsilon. \text{ Used for a fitted LS.} \\ \bullet \text{ The AIC is defined for fit by maximum likelihood. In the case of the model with gaussian errors, maximum likelihood and LS are the same } AIC = \frac{1}{n} (ASS + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2). \\ \bullet \text{ BIC takes a bayesian point of view } \rightarrow BIC = \frac{1}{n} (ASS + \log(n) d\hat{\sigma}^2). \end{array} \right.$

best is big $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bullet \text{ For a least squares adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \frac{ASS/(n-d-1)}{TSS/(n-1)} \end{array} \right.$

Shrinkage method

Ridge regression $\rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = ASS + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \rightarrow$ tend to zero \rightarrow cross validation to select λ
 As $\lambda \uparrow$ the flexibility \downarrow , leading to \downarrow variance but \uparrow bias \rightarrow good to use when LS has big variance.

The lasso

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| = \text{RSS} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \rightarrow \ell_1 \text{ norm set some to 0 when } \lambda \text{ is high enough} \rightarrow \text{works as variable selection and model easier to interpret.}$$

Dimension reduction methods

- Let z_1, \dots, z_M represent $M < p$ linear combinations of an original p predictors that is $z_m = \sum_{j=1}^p \alpha_{mj} x_j$ and we then fit $y_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{m=1}^M \alpha_m z_{im} + \epsilon_i$
 - PCA is a technique for reducing the dimension of an $n \times p$ data matrix X . The first principal component direction of the data is that along which the observation varies the most. Component vector defines the line that is as close as possible to the data.
 - The principal component regression approach involves constructing the first M principal components, z_1, \dots, z_M and then using these components as the predictors in a linear regression model that is fit using LS. The key idea is that often a small number of principal components suffice to explain most of the variability in the data, as well the relationship with the response. In other words, we assume that the directions in which x_1, \dots, x_p show the most variation are the directions that are associated with y . PCA is not a selection method because each of the M principal components is a linear combination of all p of the original features \rightarrow number of M chosen by cross-validation.
 - In PCA the directions are identified in unsupervised way, since the response y is not used. Hence there is no guarantee that the directions that best explain the predictors will also be the best direction for predicting the response.
 - Partial least squares does like PCA but use y to select, it reduce bias but increase variance
- ### Considerations in high dimension
- C_p , AIC, BIC approaches are not appropriate in the high-dimensional setting because estimating $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is problematic. Same for R^2
 - Fitting less flexible model are useful for performing regression in the high dimensional setting
 - In the high-dimensional setting, the multicollinearity problem is extreme: any variable in the model can be written as a linear combination of all other variables. \rightarrow we can never know exactly which variables (if any) truly are predictive of the outcomes, and we can never identify the best coefficients for use in the regression. At most, we can hope to assign large regression coefficients to variables that are correlated with the variables that truly are predictive of the outcome
 - when $p > n$ it is easy to obtain a useless model that has zero residuals \rightarrow hence we should never use sum of squared errors, p -value, R^2 statistics in high dimension. \rightarrow It is important to instead report results on an independent test-set or cross validation error, for instance, the MSE on an independent test set is a valid measure.