# Lecture 12: Shrinkage

Reading: Section 3.4

GU4241/GR5241 Statistical Machine Learning

Linxi Liu March 8, 2019

## Issues with Least Squares

#### Robustness

- Least squares works only if X has full column rank, i.e. if  $X^TX$  is invertible.
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  almost not invertible, least squares is numerically unstable.

Statistical consequence: High variance of predictions.

### Not suited for high-dimensional data

- Modern problems: Many dimensions/features/predictors (possibly thousands)
- Only a few of these may be important
  - $\rightarrow$  need some form of feature selection
- Least squares:
  - ► Treats all dimensions equally
  - ▶ Relevant dimensions are averaged with irrelevant ones
  - Consequence: Signal loss

# Regularity of Matrices

### Regularity

A matrix which is not invertible is also called a **singular** matrix. A matrix which is invertible (not singular) is called **regular**.

### In computations

Numerically, matrices can be "almost singular". Intuition:

- A singular matrix maps an entire linear subspace into a single point.
- ▶ If a matrix maps points far away from each other to points very close to each other, it almost behaves like a singular matrix.

# Regularity of Symmetric Matrices

A positive semi-definite matrix A is singluar  $\Leftrightarrow$  smallest EValue is 0 Illustration

If smallest EValue  $\lambda_{\min} > 0$  but very small (say  $\lambda_{\min} \approx 10^{-10}$ ):

- ▶ Suppose  $x_1, x_2$  are two points in subspace spanned by  $\xi_{\min}$  with  $\|x_1 x_2\| \approx 1000$ .
- ▶ Image under  $A: ||Ax_1 Ax_2|| \approx 10^{-7}$

#### In this case

- lacktriangleq A has an inverse, but A behaves almost like a singular matrix
- ▶ The inverse  $A^{-1}$  can map almost identical points to points with large distance, i.e.

small change in input  $\rightarrow$  large change in output

### Consequence for Statistics

If a statistical prediction involves the inverse of an almost-singular matrix, the predictions become unreliable (high variance).

# Implications for Linear Regression

### Recall: Prediction in linear regression

For a point  $\mathbf{x}_{\sf new} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , we predict the corresponding function value as

$$\hat{y}_{\mathsf{new}} = \left\langle \hat{eta}, \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} 
ight
angle = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

#### Effect of unstable inversion

- Suppose we choose an arbitrary training point  $x_i$  and make a small change to its response value  $y_i$ .
- Intuitively, that should not have a big impact on  $\hat{\beta}$  or on prediction.
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is almost singular, a small change to  $y_i$  can prompt a huge change in  $\hat{\beta}$ , and hence in the predicted value  $\hat{y}_{\text{new}}$ .

# Measuring Regularity (of Symmetric Matrices)

#### Symmetric matrices

Denote by  $\lambda_{\max}$  and  $\lambda_{\min}$  the eigenvalues of A with largest/smallest absolute value. If A is symmetric, then

A regular 
$$\Leftrightarrow |\lambda_{\min}| > 0$$
.

#### Idea

• We can use  $|\lambda_{\min}|$  as a measure of regularity:

larger value of  $\lambda_{\min}$   $\ \leftrightarrow$  "more regular" matrix A

- We need a notion of scale to determine whether  $|\lambda_{\min}|$  is large.
- ▶ The relevant scale is how A scales a vector. Maximal scaling coefficient:  $\lambda_{\max}$ .

### Regularity measure

$$c(A) := \frac{|\lambda_{\max}|}{|\lambda_{\min}|}$$

The function c(.) is called the **spectral condition** ("spectral" since the set of eigenvalues is also called the "spectrum").

### Objective

Ridge regression is a modification of least squares. We try to make least squares more robust if  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is almost singular.

### Ridge regression solution

The ridge regression solution to a linear regression problem is defined as

$$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}^{\mathsf{ridge}} := (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbb{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$$

 $\lambda$  is a tuning parameter.

## Explanation

#### Recall

 $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  is positive definite.

### Spectral shift

Suppose  $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_p$  are EVectors of  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  with EValues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$ . Then:

$$(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbb{I})\xi_i = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})\xi_i + \lambda \mathbb{I}\xi_i = (\lambda_i + \lambda)\xi_i$$

Hence:  $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbb{I})$  is positive definite with EValues  $\lambda_1 + \lambda, \dots, \lambda_p + \lambda$ .

#### Conclusion

 $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbb{I}$  is a regularized version of  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ .

## Implications for statistics

### Effect of regularization

- ▶ We deliberately distort prediction:
  - If least squares  $(\lambda = 0)$  predicts perfectly, the ridge regression prediction has an error that increases with  $\lambda$ .
  - ▶ Hence: Biased estimator, bias increases with  $\lambda$ .
- Spectral shift regularizes matrix → decreases variance of predictions.

#### Bias-variance trade-off

- We decrease the variance (improve robustness) at the price of incurring a bias.
- $\triangleright$   $\lambda$  controls the trade-off between bias and variance.

#### Cost Function

- Linear regression solution was defined as minimizer of  $L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) := \|\mathbf{y} \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2$
- ▶ We have so far defined ridge regression only directly in terms of the estimator  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ridge}} := (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbb{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$ .
- To analyze the method, it is helpful to understand it as an optimization problem.
- We ask: Which function L' does  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\text{ridge}}$  minimize?

Ridge regression solves the following optimization:

$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{i,j} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$

In blue, we have the RSS of the model.

In red, we have the squared  $\ell_2$  norm of  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ , or  $\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$ . It is called a **penalty term**.

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The parameter  $\lambda$  is a tuning parameter. It modulates the importance of fit vs. shrinkage.

We find an estimate  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}^{\text{ridge}}$  for many values of  $\lambda$  and then choose it by cross-validation. Fortunately, this is no more expensive than running a least-squares regression.

In least-squares linear regression, scaling the variables has no effect on the fit of the model:

$$Y = X_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p.$$

Multiplying  $X_1$  by c can be compensated by dividing  $\hat{\beta}_1$  by c, ie. after doing this we have the same RSS.

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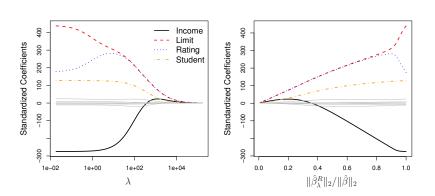
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In practice, what do we do?

- ► Scale each variable such that it has sample variance 1 before running the regression.
- ▶ This prevents penalizing some coefficients more than others.

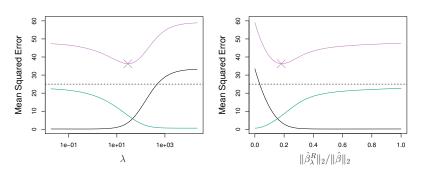
## Example. Ridge regression

Ridge regression of default in the Credit dataset.



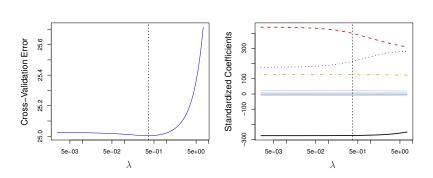
### Bias-variance tradeoff

In a simulation study, we compute bias, variance, and test error as a function of  $\lambda$ .



Cross validation would yield an estimate of the test error.

# Selecting $\lambda$ by cross-validation



Lasso regression solves the following optimization:

$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{i,j} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$

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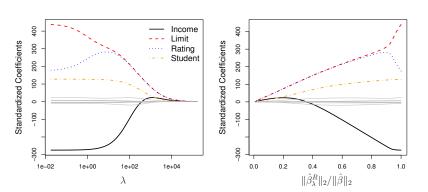
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Why would we use the Lasso instead of Ridge regression?

- ▶ Ridge regression shrinks all the coefficients to a non-zero value.
- ► The Lasso shrinks some of the coefficients all the way to zero. Alternative to best subset selection or stepwise selection!

# Example. Ridge regression

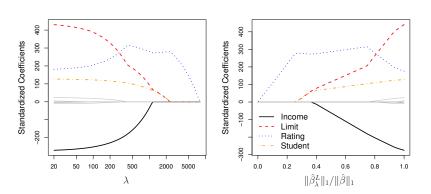
Ridge regression of default in the Credit dataset.



A lot of pesky small coefficients throughout the regularization path.

# Example. The Lasso

Lasso regression of default in the Credit dataset.



Those coefficients are shrunk to zero.

## An alternative formulation for regularization

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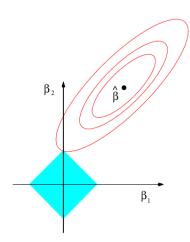
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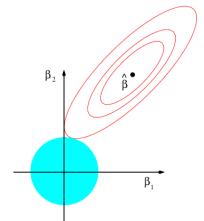
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Best subset:

# Visualizing Ridge and the Lasso with 2 predictors





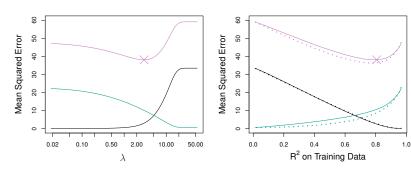
The Lasso

 $\bullet: \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| < s$ 

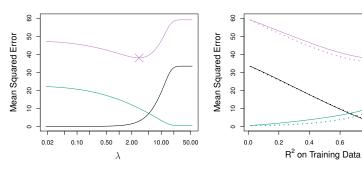
Ridge Regression

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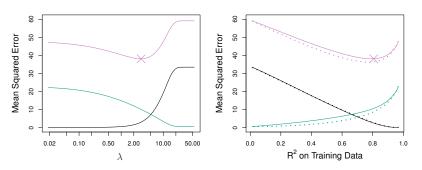
Bias, Variance, MSE.

0.6

0.8

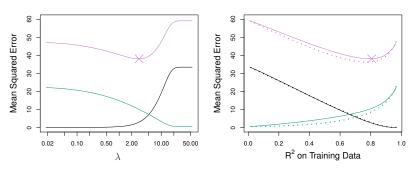
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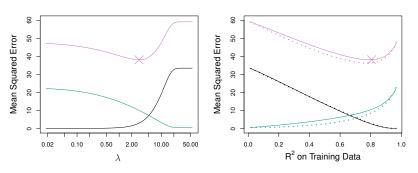
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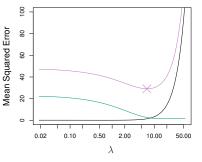
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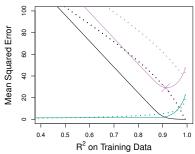
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- ▶ Bias, Variance, MSE. The Lasso (—), Ridge (· · · ).
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- ▶ The variance of Ridge regression is smaller, so is the MSE.

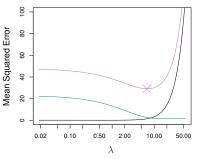
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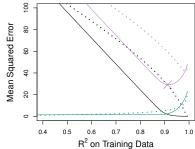




# When is the Lasso better than Ridge?

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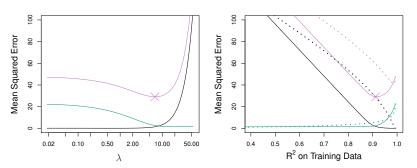




► Bias, Variance, MSE.

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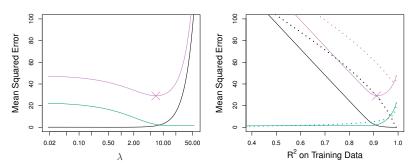
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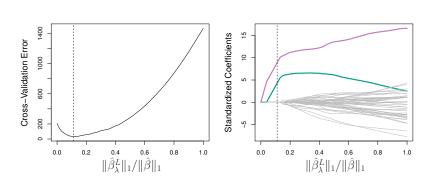
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#### **Example 2.** Only 2 coefficients are non-zero.



- ▶ Bias, Variance, MSE. The Lasso (—), Ridge (···).
- ▶ The bias, variance, and MSE are lower for the Lasso.

## Choosing $\lambda$ by cross-validation



Suppose n=p and our matrix of predictors is  $\mathbf{X}=I.$ 

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It is easy to show that

$$\hat{\beta}_j^{\mathsf{ridge}} = \frac{y_j}{1+\lambda}.$$

Similar story for the Lasso; the objective function is:

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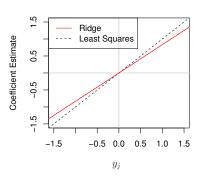
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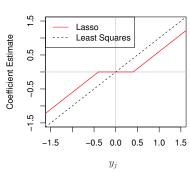
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It is easy to show that

$$\hat{\beta}_j^{\rm lasso} = \begin{cases} y_j - \lambda/2 & \text{if } y_j > \lambda/2; \\ y_j + \lambda/2 & \text{if } y_j < -\lambda/2; \\ 0 & \text{if } |y_j| < \lambda/2. \end{cases}$$

# Lasso and Ridge coefficients as a function of $\lambda$

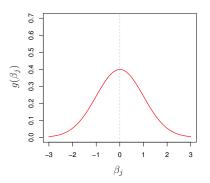


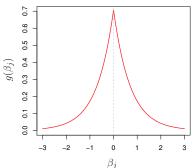


## Bayesian interpretations

**Ridge:**  $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}}$  is the posterior mean, with a Normal prior on  $\beta$ .

**Lasso**:  $\hat{\beta}^{lasso}$  is the posterior mode, with a Laplace prior on  $\beta$ .





# Summary: Regression

Methods we have discussed:

- ► Linear regression with least squares
- ► Ridge regression, Lasso

Note: All of these are linear. The solutions are hyperplanes. The different methods differ only in how they *place* the hyperplane.

# Summary: Regression

#### Ridge regression

Suppose we obtain two training samples  $\mathcal{X}_1$  and  $\mathcal{X}_2$  from the same distribution.

- Ideally, the linear regression solutions on both should be (nearly) identical.
- ▶ With standard linear regression, the problem may not be solvable (if  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  not invertible).
- ▶ Even if it is solvable, if the matrices  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  are close to singular (small spectral condition  $c(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})$ ), then the two solutions can differ significantly.
- Ridge regression stabilizes the inversion of X<sup>T</sup>X. Consequences:
  - ▶ Regression solutions for  $\mathcal{X}_1$  and  $\mathcal{X}_2$  will be almost identical if  $\lambda$  sufficiently large.
  - ▶ The price we pay is a bias that grows with  $\lambda$ .

# Summary: Regression

#### Lasso

- ▶ The  $\ell_1$ -costraint "switches off" dimensions; only some of the entries of the solution  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathsf{lasso}}$  are non-zero (sparse  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\mathsf{lasso}}$ ).
- ▶ This variable selection also stabilizes  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ , since we are effectively inverting only along those dimensions which provide sufficient information.
- ▶ No closed-form solution; use numerical optimization.

#### Formulation as optimization problem

Method	$f(oldsymbol{eta})$	Penalty	Solution method
Least squares Ridge regression Lasso	$\ \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\ _2^2  \ \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\ _2^2  \ \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\ _2^2$	$egin{array}{c} 0 \ \ oldsymbol{eta}\ _2^2 \ \ oldsymbol{eta}\ _1 \end{array}$	Analytic solution exists if $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ invertible Analytic solution exists Numerical optimization