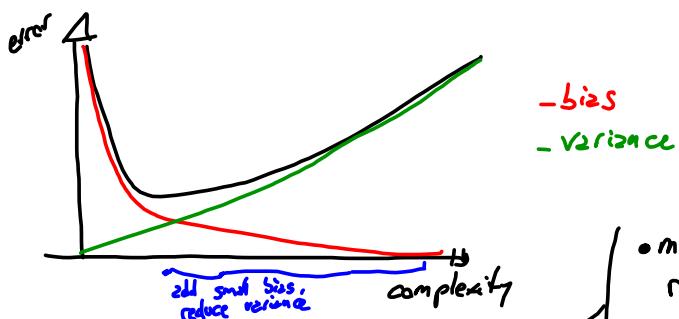


## Methods of regularization



ordinary

- least squares estimator
- BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimator)
- minimize the variance

- model selection : reduce the variance by removing those variables that are not contributing much to the bias-reduction
- some idea for PCR

accepting a small increase in the bias in order to reduce the variance to get the smallest possible prediction error

Penalized (regularized) regression → we add to our usual loss (deviance) a term (penalty) which force the estimates to be a little bit biased, but obtain a smaller variance

Notes : - we now assume to have centered response  $y_i - \bar{y}$ , because we do not want to penalize the intercept  
- for reasons which will be clear soon, we will work with standardized  $X$

$$x_i^* = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\text{sd}(x)}$$

## Ridge regression

Consider a linear model  $y = X\beta + \epsilon$

Ridge regression finds the regression coefficient estimates by minimizing

$$\underset{\text{ridge}}{J}(\beta, \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \beta^T \beta$$

↑ tuning parameter (penalty parameter)      ↓  $\lambda$       ↓  $\beta^T \beta$  penalty

The minimizer of this loss function is

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{ridge}}(\lambda) = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y$$

$$\boxed{\lambda > 0}$$

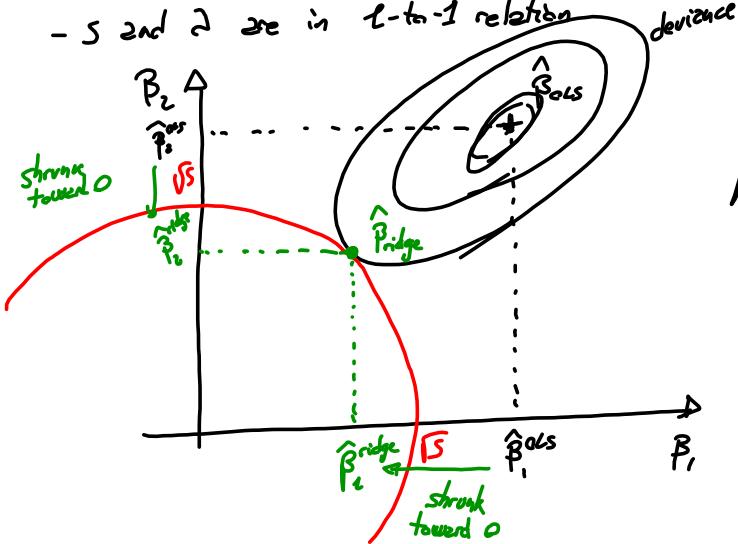
Note that  $\lambda$  is a very important parameter that controls the amount of penalization

- $\lambda = 0$  → no penalty, so  $\hat{\beta}_{\text{ridge}} = \hat{\beta}_{\text{OLS}}$
- $\lambda = +\infty$  → each small deviation of  $\beta$  from 0 are strongly penalized, so  $y - \bar{y} = 0$   
~~if  $\hat{\beta}_{\text{ridge}} = 0$   $y_j = 0$~~
- normally, it is computed by cross-validation
- even for small  $\lambda$ , we reduce problems of collinearity
- allow regression if the case  $p > n$

Alternative formulation.

$$\text{Minimize } \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^\top \beta)^2 \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \leq s$$

- S and  $\beta$  are in 1-to-1 relation



simple case, two variables  $\rightarrow$  two regression coefficients

Note: due to correlation, it is not necessarily true that

$$\lambda > \lambda_s \not\Rightarrow |\hat{\beta}_j(\lambda_s)| < |\hat{\beta}_j(0)|$$

$$s_n < s_s$$

Biases

$$E[\hat{\beta}_{OLS}] = \beta \quad \text{ordinary least squares estimator is unbiased}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{\beta}_{Ridge}] &= E[(x^\top x + \lambda I)^{-1} x^\top y] \\ &= E[(x^\top x + \lambda I)^{-1} (x^\top x) (x^\top x)^{-1} x^\top y] \\ &= E[(I_p + \lambda (x^\top x)^{-1})^{-1} (x^\top x)^{-1} x^\top y] \\ &\quad \underbrace{W(\lambda)}_{W(\lambda)} \underbrace{\hat{\beta}_{OLS}}_{\hat{\beta}_{OLS}} \\ &= W(\lambda) E[\hat{\beta}_{OLS}] = W(\lambda) \beta \end{aligned}$$

the ridge estimator is unbiased only if  $W(\lambda) = I$ , i.e.,  $\lambda = 0$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{Ridge}) = \text{Var}(W(\lambda) \hat{\beta}_{OLS})$$

$$= W(\lambda) \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) W(\lambda)^T$$

$$= \sigma^2 W(\lambda) (x^\top x)^{-1} W(\lambda)^T$$

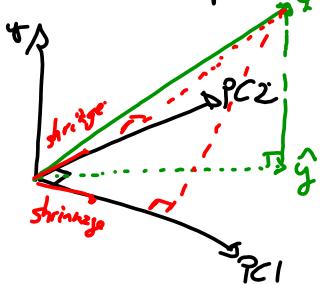
$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) = \sigma^2 (x^\top x)^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) - \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{Ridge}) &= \sigma^2 \left[ (x^\top x)^{-1} - W(\lambda) (x^\top x)^{-1} W(\lambda)^T \right] \\ &= \sigma^2 W(\lambda) \left[ W(\lambda)^T (x^\top x) (W(\lambda)^T)^{-1} - (x^\top x)^{-1} \right] W(\lambda)^T \\ &\stackrel{!}{=} \sigma^2 W(\lambda) \left[ (I_p + \lambda (x^\top x)^{-1}) (x^\top x)^T (I_p + \lambda (x^\top x)^{-1}) - (x^\top x)^T \right] W(\lambda)^T \\ &\stackrel{!}{=} \sigma^2 W(\lambda) \left[ (x^\top x)^{-1} + \lambda (x^\top x)^{-2} + \lambda (x^\top x)^{-2} + \lambda^2 (x^\top x)^{-3} - (x^\top x)^{-1} \right] W(\lambda)^T \\ &\stackrel{!}{=} \sigma^2 W(\lambda) \left[ 2\lambda (x^\top x)^{-2} + \lambda^2 (x^\top x)^{-3} \right] W(\lambda)^T > 0 \end{aligned}$$

all are quadratic form

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{Ridge}) \leq \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS})$$

### Geometric interpretation related to PCA



$$\hat{\beta}_1^{\text{OLS}} = \frac{\|y\|}{\|pc_1\|}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1^{\text{ridge}} = \frac{\|y\|}{\|pc_1\| + \lambda} \hat{\beta}_1^{\text{OLS}}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_2^{\text{OLS}} = \frac{\|y\|}{\|pc_2\|}$$

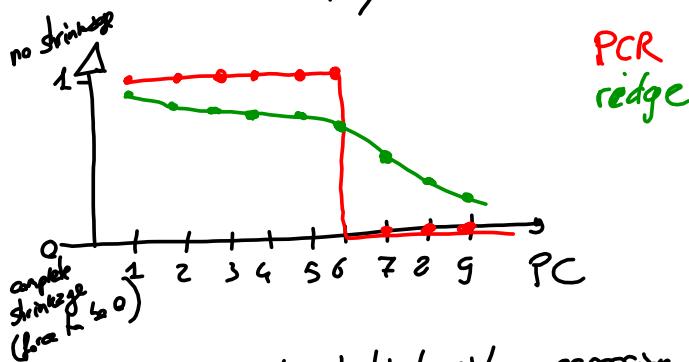
$$\hat{\beta}_2^{\text{ridge}} = \frac{\|y\|}{\|pc_2\| + \lambda} \hat{\beta}_2^{\text{OLS}}$$

- ridge regression projects the response on the principal components

- shrink the low-variance components more than the high-variance components

likely to be more

likely to be smaller



The general idea behind ridge regression, is that we minimize a loss function of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda P(\beta)$$

→ specifically for ridge regression,  $P(\beta) = \beta^T \beta = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$

$P(\beta)$  can but must not be the  $L_2$  norm → we can use the  $L_1$  norm  
from the sum of squares to the sum of absolute values →  $\sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$

$$\text{Minimize } \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$$

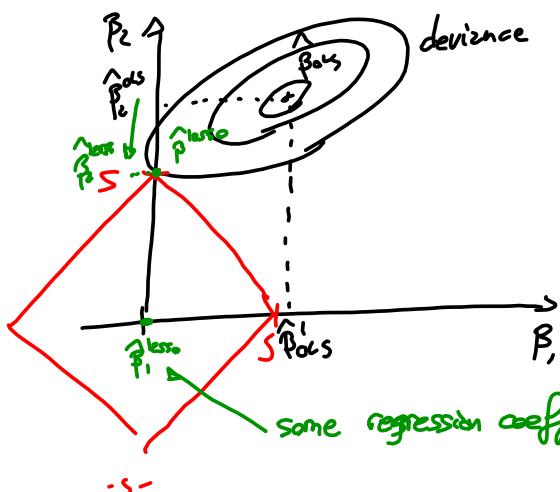
### LASSO (Least Angle Shrinkage and Selection Operator)

The most interesting feature of LASSO is that it forces some estimates to be exactly equal to 0 → intrinsic variable selection → for a variable  $n$

The same considerations done for all of ridge regression are valid for LASSO

Using the alternative form for LASSO as well

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{LASSO}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^\top \beta)^2 \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \leq s$$



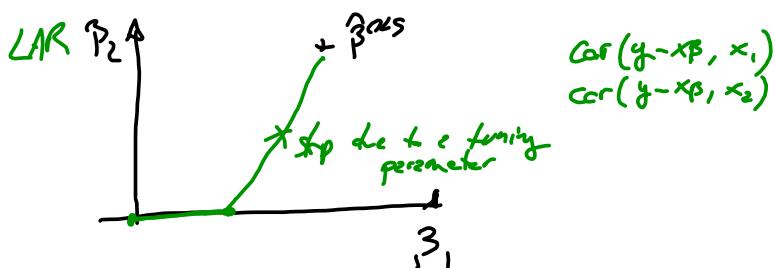
some regression coefficients estimates are forced to be 0

Advantages

- shrinkage
- automatic variable selection

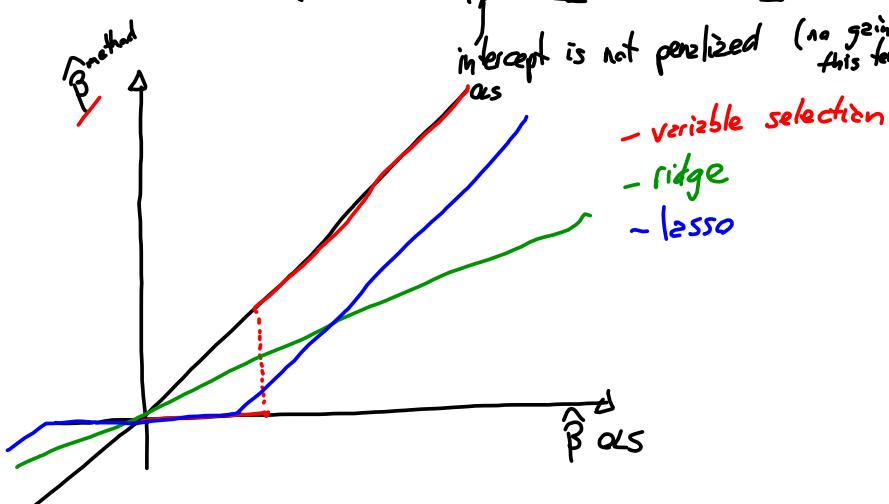
Disadvantages

- no close form for \$\hat{\beta}\_{\text{LASSO}}\$ due to the nondifferentiability of the \$L\_1\$ loss
- we need to rely on numerical computations
  - ↳ in practice, very good algorithms based on LTR, of which lasso is a special case



$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i - \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p x_j \beta_j \right) + \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$$

intercept is not penalized (no gain in variance by penalizing this term)



## Prediction of quantitative variables

Back to the initial problem, predict  $y$  using  $x$

$$y = f(x) \rightarrow \text{until now: parametric approach}$$

$$y = f(x; \beta)$$

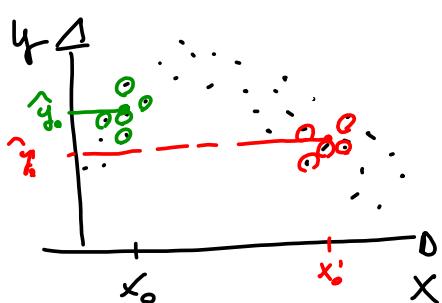
family of functions, indicated by  $\beta$

$$\hat{y} = f(x; \hat{\beta})$$

- in the class of parametric functions, find the best by selecting the best  $\hat{\beta}$

- simple, easy to compute

Alternative: do not restrict to a parametric form, base our estimation on the data only  
(plus some regularity conditions)  $\rightarrow$  NON-PARAMETRIC APPROACH



$$\hat{y}_0 = \hat{f}(x_0)$$

$$K=5 = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{x_i \in N_k(x_0)} y_i$$

$$\hat{y}_0 = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{x_i \in N_k(x_0)} y_i$$

where  $N_k(x_0)$  denotes the set of the  $K$  closest points to  $x_0$

We assume that the values of the closest points are similar to the one of interest, and we base our estimates on those response  $\rightarrow$  simple mean

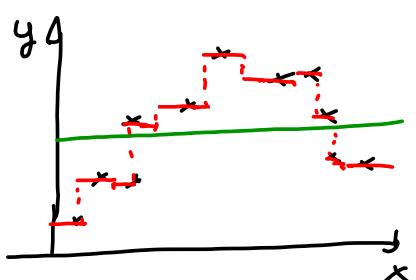
Basically, we are assuming that  $f(x)$  is constant close to  $x_0$ :  $f(x) = \beta_0$ .

$K$  is the tuning parameter, that tells how many neighbours to include in the estimate

$\rightarrow$  smaller value, more complex model, until the extreme  $K=1$ , in which each  $x_0$  is

estimated through its closest neighbour

$\rightarrow$  larger values, simpler model, until the extreme  $K=n$ , in which  $x_0$  is estimated with all the observations:  $f(x_0) = \bar{y}$



$$K=1$$

complexity is inverse of  $K$

$$K=n$$

- how to choose  $K$
- CROSS-VALIDATION