



[Subset Selection and Regularization]

Leading discussion

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[Contexts]

- Subset selection
- Continuous subset selection
- Ridge regression
- Ridge regression and some linear algebra
- Other methods than ridge regression
- The last word

Subset Selection

- One looks for a subset $F \in \{1, \dots, d\}$ of features that is useful for prediction. The main reasons are
 - Prediction accuracy might be improved by sacrificing a bit of bias in exchange for reducing the variance
 - It is easier to interpret a simple model than a complex one
- There are different variants of subset selection
 - Exhaustive version of the algorithm searches all possible subsets F . Even if correct, this approach is not feasible for the large number of features because the number of subsets grows as 2^d
 - Incremental approaches start with $F = \{\}$ ($\{1, \dots, d\}$) and on the basis of some information criterion add (remove) a new feature to (from) F . These methods are guided by heuristics, which may be wrong

Continuous Subset Selection

- What is wrong with subset selection?
 - Features are either preserved in F or discarded. As this decision process is discrete, the prediction capability of the model may change significantly if a feature is preserved (discarded)
- Continuous version of subset selection is represented by
 - Shrinkage methods (regularization)
 - Ridge regression
 - Lasso regression
 - Methods using derived input directions
 - Principal components regression
 - Partial least squares

Ridge Regression

- Ridge regression is an extension of linear regression by adding a quadratic penalizing term

$$\beta^{\text{ridge}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda \beta^T \beta \right\}$$

- Intuitively, the larger the value of λ is, the larger is the shrinkage of the weights
- The optimization problem can be equally formalized as

$$\begin{aligned} \beta^{\text{ridge}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2 \\ \text{satisfying} \quad & \beta^T \beta \leq s \end{aligned}$$

- There exists one-to-one mapping between λ and s

Reparametrization Using Centered Inputs

- If we adopt the assumption that $x_{i,j}$ are centered and β_0 is approximated as the mean of y_i s, we can rewrite the formula as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RSS}(\lambda) &= \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - (x_i - \bar{x})^T \beta)^2 + \lambda \beta^T \beta \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i + \bar{x} \beta - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda \beta^T \beta \\ &\approx \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i + \bar{y} - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda \beta^T \beta \end{aligned}$$

- This indicates that ridge regression can be expressed in matrix notation similarly to the linear regression as

$$\text{RSS}(\lambda) = (y - X\beta)^T (y - X\beta) + \lambda \beta^T \beta$$

Solving Ridge Regression

- Ridge regression can be solved exactly, which is similar to linear regression

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{RSS}(\lambda) &= (y - X\beta)^T (y - X\beta) + \lambda \beta^T \beta \\
 \nabla \text{RSS}(\lambda) &= -2X^T(y - X\beta) + 2\lambda I\beta = 0 \\
 &= -X^T(y - X\beta) + \lambda I\beta = 0 \\
 &= -X^T y + X^T X\beta + \lambda I\beta = 0 \\
 (X^T X + \lambda I)\beta &= X^T y \\
 \beta &= (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y
 \end{aligned}$$

- Nice property of the solution is that even if $X^T X$ is singular, the addition of λI makes it nonsingular, which in turn means that an inverse matrix exists

Ridge Regression and Some Linear Algebra

- Every matrix X has singular value decomposition of the following form, where U spans the column space of X , and V spans the row space of X

$$\underbrace{X}_{N \times d} = \underbrace{U}_{N \times d} \cdot \underbrace{D}_{d \times d} \cdot \underbrace{V^T}_{d \times d}$$

orthogonal diagonal orthogonal

- Least squares fit can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned}
 x\beta^{\text{LS}} &= X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T y = UDV^T \left(\underbrace{(UDV^T)^T}_{(AB)^T = B^T A^T} UDV^T \right)^{-1} \underbrace{(UDV^T)^T y}_{(AB)^T = B^T A^T} \\
 &= UDV^T \left(\underbrace{VD^T U^T U D V^T}_{U^T U = I, V D^T D = D^T D V, V V^T = I} \right)^{-1} VD^T U^T y = UDV^T (D^T D)^{-1} VD^T U^T y \\
 &= U \underbrace{(D^T D)^{-1}}_{AA^{-1} = I} \underbrace{V^T V}_{V^T V = I} U^T y \\
 &= UU^T y
 \end{aligned}$$

Coordinates of y with respect to the orthonormal basis U

Ridge Regression and Some Linear Algebra

- Ridge regression fit can be rewritten as well as

$$\begin{aligned}
 X\beta^{\text{ridge}} &= X(X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y = UDV^T \left(\underbrace{(UDV^T)^T}_{(AB)^T = B^T A^T} UDV^T + \lambda I \right)^{-1} \underbrace{(UDV^T)^T}_{(AB)^T = B^T A^T} y \\
 &= UDV^T \left(\underbrace{VD^T U^T UDV^T}_{U^T U = I, VD^T D = D^T DV, VV^T = I} + \lambda I \right)^{-1} VD^T U^T y = UDV^T (D^T D + \lambda I)^{-1} VD^T U^T y \\
 &= U(D^T D)(D^T D + \lambda I)^{-1} \underbrace{V^T V}_{V^T V = I} U^T y = UD^2 (D^2 + \lambda I)^{-1} U^T y \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^d u_j \frac{d_j^2}{d_j^2 + \lambda} u_j^T y \quad \leftarrow \text{Coordinates of } y \text{ with respect to the orthonormal basis } U
 \end{aligned}$$

- D is a diagonal matrix with entries $d_1 \geq d_2 \geq \dots \geq d_d \geq 0$

Ridge Regression and Some Linear Algebra

- If $d_i < d_j$, then for any $\lambda \geq 0$

$$\frac{d_i^2}{d_i^2 + \lambda} < \frac{d_j^2}{d_j^2 + \lambda} \leq 1$$

- D^2 is a matrix of eigenvalues and V is a matrix of eigenvectors for the covariance matrix $X^T X$ (Eigen Decomposition Theorem)

$$\begin{aligned}
 X &= UDV^T \\
 X^T X &= \underbrace{(UDV^T)^T}_{(AB)^T = B^T A^T} UDV^T \\
 X^T X &= VD^T \underbrace{U^T U}_{U^T U = I} DV^T \\
 X^T X &= VD^2 V^T
 \end{aligned}$$

Ridge Regression and Some Linear Algebra

- The first principal component z_1 , which preserves the most of the variance, can be expressed as

$$z_1 = Xv_1 = u_1d_1$$

and the latter equality holds because of

$$\begin{aligned} X &= UDV^T = UDV^{-1} \\ XV &= UD \end{aligned}$$

- As principal components are perpendicular to each other, and u_i can be viewed as a normalized version of z_i , we can conclude that the shrinkage of d_i affects how much are the coordinates regarding a principal component shrunken

Ridge Regression as the Mean of a Posterior Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &\approx N(\beta_0 + x_i^T \beta, \sigma^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2\right] \\ \beta &\approx N(0, \tau^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\tau^2 I|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \beta^T (\tau^2 I)^{-1} \beta\right] \\ \ell(y; X, \beta) &= \ln \left(\frac{\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2\right]}{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\tau^2 I|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \beta^T (\tau^2 I)^{-1} \beta\right]} \right) \\ &\approx \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \frac{1}{\tau^2} \beta^T \beta \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2} \beta^T \beta \end{aligned}$$

[Lasso Regression]

- Lasso regression has penalty defined as the sum of the absolute values of the weights β as

$$\beta^{\text{lasso}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)^2$$

satisfying $\sum_{j=1}^d |\beta_j| \leq t$

- Absolute value in lasso penalty makes the problem of weights' estimation non-linear
- The penalty tends to drive less important weights to zero faster than the one in ridge regression

[Methods Using Derived Input Directions]

- Principal components regression uses $M \leq d$ vectors selected by PCA to do regression on them
- As these vectors are orthogonal, regression problem is divided into M independent regression problems
- As opposing to PCR, partial least squares technique takes into account y when features are selected

[The Last Word]

- Regularization encompassed more general problems of the form

$$\min_{f \in H} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, f(x_i)) + \lambda J(f) \right\}$$

where $L(y, f(x))$ is a loss function, $J(f)$ is penalty for the parameterization, and H is a space where $J(f)$ is defined

- In addition to linear regression, another useful application of regularization is in neural networks