STAT 4710

October 5, 2023

Regression in high dimensions

Where we are

Unit 1: R for data mining
Unit 2: Prediction fundamentals
Unit 3: Regression-based methods
Unit 4: Tree-based methods
Unit 5: Deep learning

Lecture 1: Linear and logistic regression

Lecture 2: Regression in high dimensions

Lecture 3: Ridge regression

Lecture 4: Lasso regression

Lecture 5: Unit review and quiz in class





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Income $\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Age} + \beta_2 \text{Age}^2$



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In modern applications, can collect very many features for each observation, e.g.:

- Natural language processing
- Image processing
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High-dimensional data: Data with p > n or $p \approx n$





Let's consider fitting a linear regression with *n* observations and *p* features.

so the least squares linear regression estimate is not even defined.

- If p > n, the columns of the feature matrix X guaranteed to be multi-collinear,
- If p = n, linear regression will perfectly fit training set, even with "junk" features.

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If p < n, recall that linear regression variance is $\sigma^2 p/n$. Therefore, if $p \approx n$ then variance will be very high.

Linear models fit using too many features (i.e. too many degrees of freedom) perform poorly due to high variance.

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Challenges in high dimensions (illustration)



Number of Variables

Linear regression for n = 20; p features unrelated to response

The solution

The solution is to constrain the fitted coefficients in some way, e.g.:

- 1. Make sure fitted coefficients are not too large (ridge regression).
- 2. Make sure fitted coefficients are mostly equal to zero (lasso regression).

- These constraints reduce the degrees of freedom of the fit, reducing variance.
- We are still fitting p coefficients, but using fewer than p degrees of freedom.

Recall least squares solution:

$$\widehat{\beta} = \underset{\beta_0,\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_{p-1}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (p_i))$$

Here we let $\hat{\beta}$ fit the data as close as possible, putting no constraints.

 $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i,p-1}))^2.$

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$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta_{0},\beta_{1},\ldots,\beta_{p-1}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1}X_{i,p-1}))^{2}.$$

Here we let $\hat{\beta}$ fit the data as close as possible, putting no constraints. Penalization: Add a term $P(\beta)$ that measures how "wild" β is, to incentivize β not to be too wild:

$$\hat{\beta}' = \underset{\beta_0,\beta_1,\dots,\beta_{p-1}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i,p-1}))^2 + \lambda \cdot P(\beta).$$

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how well β fits the data \leftarrow compromise \rightarrow how wild β is

Example: L0-penalized regression

Consider the penalized regression

$$\widehat{\beta}' = \underset{\beta_{0},\beta_{1},\dots,\beta_{p-1}}{\arg\min} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1}X_{i,p-1}))^{2} + \lambda \cdot P(\beta),$$

with $P(\beta) = |\{j : \beta_{i} \neq 0\}|.$

solutions $\hat{\beta}$.

The optimization above is computationally infeasible, so in practice we use a different penalty (called the lasso) to achieve sparsity (stay tuned for Lecture 4).

$$= |\{j: \beta_j \neq 0\}|.$$

The LO penalty P counts the number of nonzero entries in β , and creates sparse



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