Statistical Machine Learning, Part I

Regression 2

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Regression: highlight a functional relationship between a **predicted variable** and **predictors**

to find an accurate function f such that

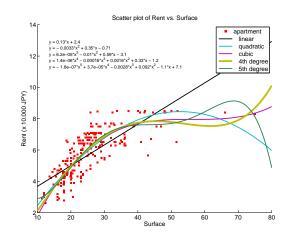
 $orall (\mathbf{x}, oldsymbol{y})$ that can appear , $oldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}) pprox oldsymbol{y}$

use a data set & the least-squares criterion:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{f}\in\mathcal{F}}\frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}(\boldsymbol{y_{j}}-\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x_{j}}))^{2}$$

Regression: highlight a functional relationship between a **predicted variable** and **predictors**

• when regressing a real number vs a real number :



◦ Least-Squares Criterion $L(b, a_1, \cdots, a_p)$ to fit **lines**, polynomials. ◦ results in solving a linear system.

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{2}^{\mathsf{nd}} \mathsf{order}(b, a_1, \cdots, a_p)}{\partial a_p} = \mathsf{linear} \text{ in } (b, a_1, \cdots, a_p)$$

• When setting $\partial L/\partial a_p = 0$ we get p+1 linear equations for p+1 variables.

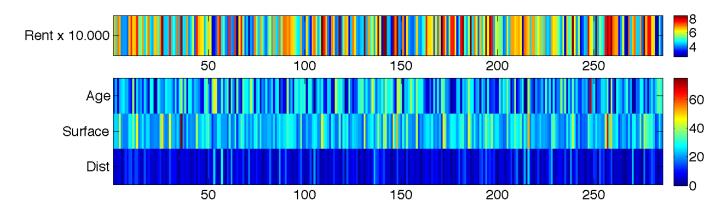
Regression: highlight a functional relationship between a **predicted variable** and **predictors**

- when regressing a real number vs d real numbers (vector in \mathbb{R}^d),
 - find best fit $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $(\alpha^T \mathbf{x} + \alpha_0) \approx y$.
 - Add to $d \times N$ data matrix, a row of 1's to get the predictors \boldsymbol{X} .
 - \circ The row \boldsymbol{Y} of **predicted** values
 - The Least-Squares criterion also applies:

$$L(\alpha) = \|\mathbf{Y} - \alpha^T \mathbf{X}\|^2 = \left(\alpha^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \alpha - 2\mathbf{Y} \mathbf{X}^T \alpha + \|\mathbf{Y}\|^2\right),$$

$$\nabla_{\alpha} L = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^* = (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{Y}^T$$

• This works if $XX^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ is invertible.



- -0.0493326056030950.163122792160298-0.0044115800366142.731204399433800
- x age
- x surface
- x distance
- + 27.300 JPY

Today

- A statistical / probabilistic perspective on LS-regression
- A few words on **polynomials** in higher dimensions
- A **geometric** perspective
- Variable co-linearity and Overfitting problem
- Some solutions: advanced regression techniques
 - $\circ~$ Subset selection
 - \circ Ridge Regression
 - Lasso

A (very few) words on the statistical/probabilistic interpretation of LS

The Statistical Perspective on Regression

• Assume that the values of y are stochastically linked to observations \mathbf{x} as

$$\boldsymbol{y} - (\alpha^T \boldsymbol{x} + \beta) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma).$$

• This difference is a random variable called ε and is called a **residue**.

The Statistical Perspective on Regression

• This can be rewritten as,

$$\boldsymbol{y} = (\alpha^T \mathbf{x} + \beta) + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma),$$

• We assume that the difference between y and $(\alpha^T \mathbf{x} + b)$ behaves like a Gaussian (normally distributed) random variable.

Goal as a statistician: **Estimate** α and β given observations.

• Statistical hypothesis: assume that the parameters are $\alpha = \mathbf{a}, \beta = b$

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- In such a case, what would be the **probability** of **each** observation (\mathbf{x}_j, y_j) ?

 Statistical hypothesis: assuming that the parameters are α = a, β = b, what would be the probability of each observation?:

 \circ For each couple (\mathbf{x}_j, y_j) , $j = 1, \cdots, N$,

$$P(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j \mid \alpha = \mathbf{a}, \beta = b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{\|y_j - (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}_j + b)\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

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• Since each measurement (\mathbf{x}_j, y_j) has been **independently sampled**,

$$P\left(\{(\mathbf{x}_{j}, y_{j})\}_{j=1, \cdots, N} \mid \alpha = a, \beta = b\right) = \prod_{j=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{\|y_{j} - (\mathbf{a}^{T}\mathbf{x}_{j} + b)\|^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right)$$

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• A.K.A likelihood of the dataset $\{(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j)_{j=1, \cdots, N}\}$ as a function of a and b,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\{(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j)\}}(\mathbf{a}, b) = \prod_{j=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{\|y_j - (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}_j + b)\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Hence, for \mathbf{a}, b , the likelihood function on the dataset $\{(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j)_{j=1,\dots,N}\}$...

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{a}, b) = \prod_{j=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{\|y_j - (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}_j + b)\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

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Why not use the **likelihood** to **guess** (\mathbf{a}, b) given data?

Hence, for \mathbf{a}, b , the likelihood function on the dataset $\{(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j)_{j=1,\dots,N}\}$...

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...the MLE approach selects the values of (\mathbf{a}, b) which mazimize $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{a}, b)$

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...the MLE approach selects the values of (\mathbf{a}, b) which mazimize $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{a}, b)$

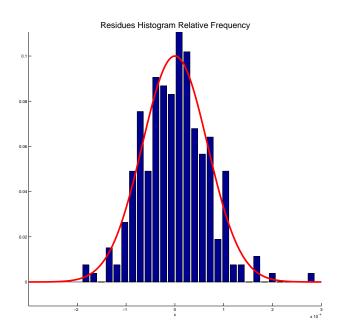
• Since $\max_{(\mathbf{a},b)} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{a},b) \Leftrightarrow \max_{(\mathbf{a},b)} \log \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{a},b)$

$$\log L(\mathbf{a}, b) = C - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^{N} ||y_j - (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}_j + b)||^2$$

• Hence
$$\max_{(\mathbf{a},b)} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{a},b) \Leftrightarrow \min_{(\mathbf{a},b)} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \|y_j - (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}_j + b)\|^2 \dots$$

Statistical Approach to Linear Regression

- Properties of the MLE estimator: convergence of $\|\alpha \mathbf{a}\|$?
- Confidence intervals for coefficients,
- Tests procedures to assess if model "fits" the data,



- Bayesian approaches: instead of looking for **one** optimal fit (a, b) juggle with a whole density on (a, b) to make decisions
- etc.

A few words on polynomials in higher dimensions

A few words on polynomials in higher dimensions

• For d variables, that is for points $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

 $\circ\,$ the space of polynomials on these variables up to degree p is generated by

$$\{\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{u}} \,|\, \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{N}^d, \mathbf{u} = (u_1, \cdots, u_d), \sum_{i=1}^d u_i \le p\}$$

where the monomial $\mathbf{x^{u}}$ is defined as $x_{1}^{u_{1}}x_{2}^{u_{2}}\cdots x_{d}^{u_{d}}$

- Recurrence for dimension of that space: $\dim_{p+1} = \dim_p + \binom{p+1}{d+p}$
- For d = 20 and p = 5, 1 + 20 + 210 + 1540 + 8855 + 42504 > 50.000

Problem with polynomial interpolation in **high-dimensions** is the **explosion** of relevant variables (one for each monomial)

Geometric Perspective

Back to Basics

• Recall the problem:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_N \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1 \times N}$$

 $\quad \text{and} \quad$

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & \cdots & y_N \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N.$$

• We look for α such that $\alpha^T X \approx Y$.

Back to Basics

• If we transpose this expression we get $X^T\alpha\approx Y^T$,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{1,1} & \cdots & x_{d,1} \\ 1 & x_{1,2} & \cdots & x_{d,2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1,k} & \cdots & x_{d,k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1,N} & \cdots & x_{d,N} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_k \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

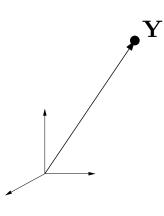
• Using the notation $\mathbf{Y} = Y^T, \mathbf{X} = X^T$ and \mathbf{X}_k for the $(k+1)^{\text{th}}$ column of \mathbf{X} ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{d} \alpha_k \mathbf{X}_k \approx \mathbf{Y}$$

- Note how the \mathbf{X}_k corresponds to **all** values taken by the k^{th} variable.
- Problem: approximate/reconstruct Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d \in \mathbb{R}^N$?

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

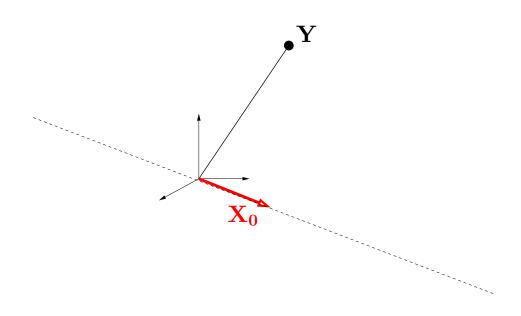
• Our ability to approximate ${\bf Y}$ depends implicitly on the space spanned by ${\bf X}_0, {\bf X}_1, \cdots, {\bf X}_d$



Consider the observed vector in \mathbb{R}^N of predicted values

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

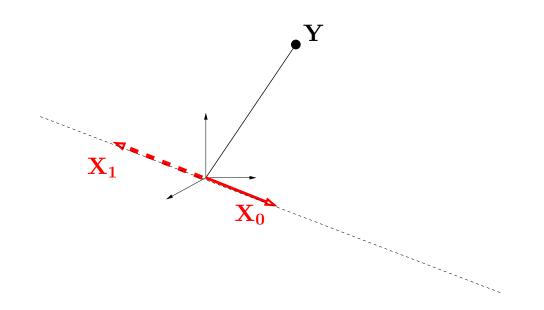
• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d



Plot the first regressor \mathbf{X}_0 ...

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

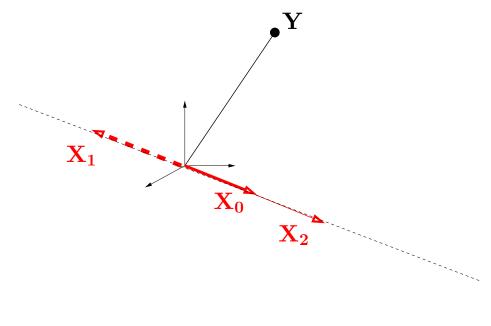
• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d



Assume the next regressor X_1 is colinear to X_0 ...

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

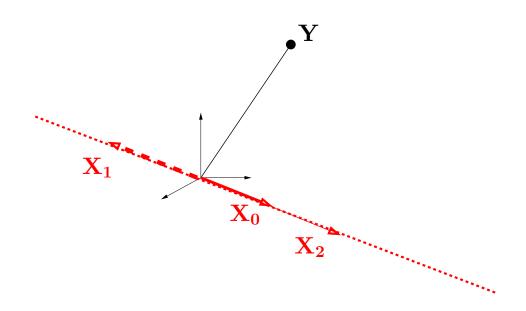
• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d



and so is \mathbf{X}_2 ...

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

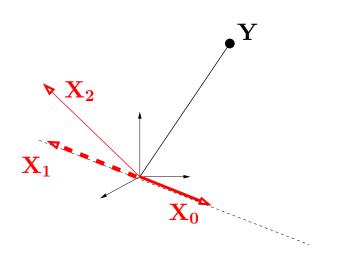
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Very little choices to approximate $\mathbf{Y}...$

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

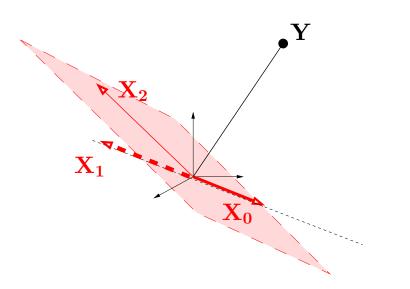
• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d



Suppose X_2 is actually not colinear to X_0 .

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

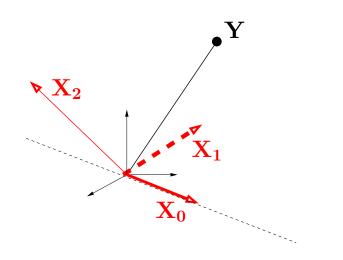
• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d



This opens new ways to reconstruct \mathbf{Y} .

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

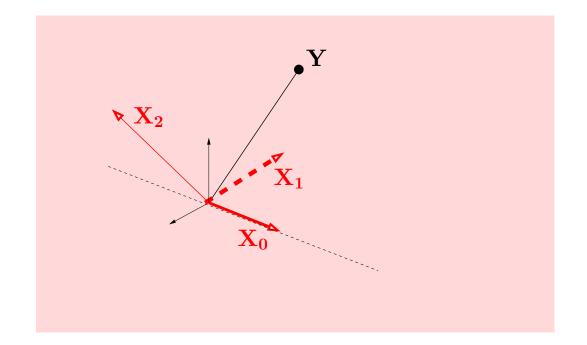
• Our ability to approximate ${\bf Y}$ depends implicitly on the space spanned by ${\bf X}_0, {\bf X}_1, \cdots, {\bf X}_d$



When $\mathbf{X_0}, \mathbf{X_1}, \mathbf{X_2}$ are linearly independent,

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d



 ${\bf Y}$ is in their span since the space is of dimension 3

Reconstructing $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ using $\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d$ vectors of \mathbb{R}^N .

• Our ability to approximate Y depends implicitly on the space spanned by X_0, X_1, \cdots, X_d

The dimension of that space is Rank(X), the rank of X

 $\operatorname{Rank}(\mathbf{X}) \le \min(d+1, N).$

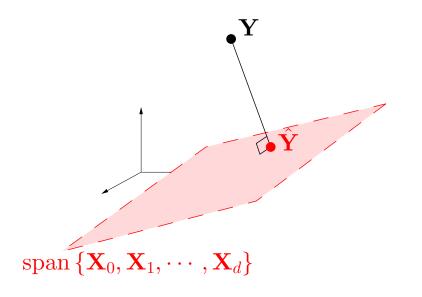
Linear System

Three cases depending on $\operatorname{\mathbf{Rank}} \mathbf{X}$ and d, N

- 1. Rank $\mathbf{X} < N$. d+1 column vectors do not span \mathbb{R}^N
 - For arbitrary Y, there is **no solution** to $\alpha^T X = Y$
- 2. Rank $\mathbf{X} = N$ and d + 1 > N, too many variables span the whole of \mathbb{R}^N
 - infinite number of solutions to $\alpha^T X = Y$.
- 3. Rank $\mathbf{X} = N$ and d + 1 = N, **#** variables = **#** observations
 - Exact and unique solution: $\alpha = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}$ we have $\alpha^T X = Y$

In most applications, $d + 1 \neq N$ so we are either in case 1 or 2

- no solution to $\alpha^T X = Y$ (equivalently $\mathbf{X}\alpha = \mathbf{Y}$) in general case.
- \bullet What about the $orthogonal\ projection$ of ${\bf Y}$ on the image of ${\bf X}$



• Namely the point $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ such that

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{\mathbf{u} \in \operatorname{span} \mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{u}\|.$$

Lemma 1. $\{\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d\}$ is a l.i. family $\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is invertible

- Computing the **projection** $\hat{\omega}$ of a point ω on a **subspace** V is well understood.
- In particular, if $(\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d)$ is a **basis** of $\operatorname{span}{\{\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d\}}$...

(that is $\{\mathbf{X}_0, \mathbf{X}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_d\}$ is a **linearly independent** family)

... then $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})$ is invertible and ...

 $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$

• This gives us the α vector of weights we are looking for:

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X} \underbrace{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}}_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}} = \mathbf{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \approx \mathbf{Y} \text{ or } \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^T X = Y$$

• What can go wrong?

• If $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is invertible,

 $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$

- If $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is not invertible... we have a problem.
- If $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$'s condition number

$$\frac{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})}{\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})},$$

is very large, a small change in ${\bf Y}$ can cause dramatic changes in $\alpha.$

• In this case the linear system is said to be **badly conditioned**...

• Using the formula

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

might return garbage as can be seen in the following Matlab example.

Case 2: $\operatorname{Rank} \mathbf{X} = N$ and d+1 > N

high-dimensional low-sample setting

• Ill-posed inverse problem, the set

$$\{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \mathbf{X}\alpha = \mathbf{Y}\}$$

is a whole **vector space**. We need to choose **one** from **many admissible** points.

• When does this happen?

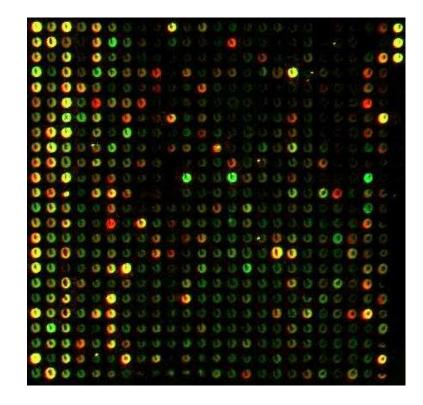
• High-dimensional low-sample case (DNA chips, multimedia *etc.*)

- How to solve for this?
 - $\circ~$ Use something called regularization.

A practical perspective: Colinearity and Overfitting

A Few High-dimensions Low sample settings

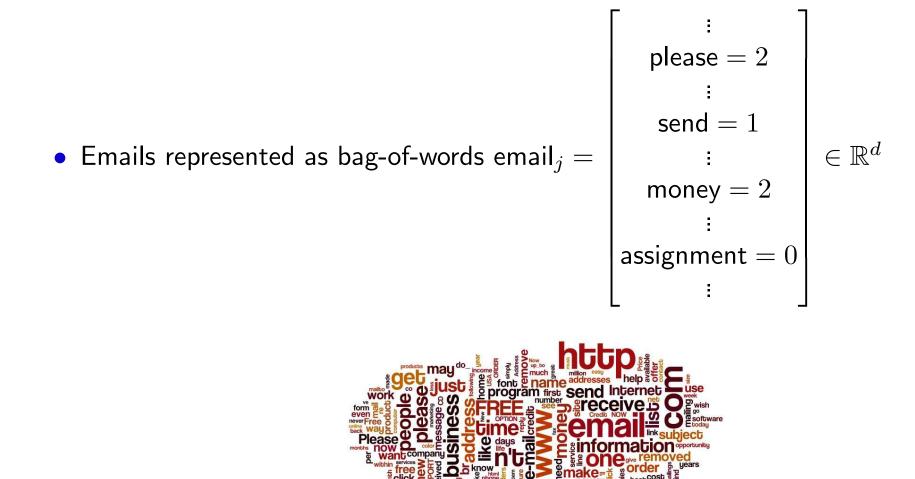
• DNA chips are very long vectors of measurements, one for each gene



• Task: regress a health-related variable against gene expression levels

Image:http://bioinfo.cs.technion.ac.il/projects/Kahana-Navon/DNA-chips.htm

A Few High-dimensions Low sample settings



• Task: regress probability that this is an email against bag-of-words

 $Image: \ http://clg.wlv.ac.uk/resources/junk-emails/index.php$

Correlated Variables

• Suppose you run a real-estate company.



- For each apartment you have compiled a **few hundred** predictor variables, *e.g.*
 - distances to conv. store, pharmacy, supermarket, parking lot, etc.
 - o distances to all main locations in Kansai
 - $\circ\,$ socio-economic variables of the neighboorhood
 - characteristics of the apartment
- Some are obviously **correlated** (correlated = "almost" colinear)
 - $\circ\,$ distance to Post Office / distance to Post ATM
- In that case, we may have some problems (Matlab example)

Source: http://realestate.yahoo.co.jp/

Given d variables (including constant variable), consider the least squares criterion

$$L_d(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d) = \sum_{i=1}^j \left(y_j - \sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i x_{i,j} \right)^2$$

• Add any variable vector $\boldsymbol{x_{d+1,j}}, j=1,\cdots,N$, and define

$$L_{d+1}(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d, \boldsymbol{\alpha_{d+1}}) = \sum_{i=1}^{j} \left(y_j - \sum_{i=1}^{d} \alpha_i x_{i,j} - \boldsymbol{\alpha_{d+1}} x_{d+1,j} \right)^2$$

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THEN
$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}} L_{d+1(\alpha)} \leq \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d} L_d(\alpha)$$

Given d variables (including constant variable), consider the least squares criterion

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Then
$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}} L_{d+1}(\alpha) \leq \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d} L_d(\alpha)$$

why? $L_d(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d) = L_{d+1}(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d, \mathbf{0})$

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$$L_d(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d) = \sum_{i=1}^j \left(y_j - \sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i x_{i,j} \right)^2$$

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Then
$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}} L_{d+1(\alpha)} \leq \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d} L_d(\alpha)$$

why?
$$L_d(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d) = L_{d+1}(\alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_d, \mathbf{0})$$

Residual-sum-of-squares goes down... but is it **relevant** to add variables?

Occam's razor formalization of overfitting

Minimizing least-squares (RSS) is **not clever enough**. We need **another idea** to avoid **overfitting**.

• Occam's razor: lex parsimoniae



• **law of parsimony**: principle that recommends selecting the hypothesis that makes the fewest assumptions.

one should always opt for an explanation in terms of the fewest possible causes, factors, or variables.

Wikipedia: William of Ockham, born 1287- died 1347

Advanced Regression Techniques

Quick Reminder on Vector Norms

• For a vector $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the Euclidian norm is the quantity

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d a_i^2}.$$

• More generally, the q-norm is for q > 0,

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_q = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |a_i|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

• In particular for q = 1,

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^d |a_i|$$

• In the limit $q \to \infty$ and $q \to 0$,

$$\|\mathbf{a}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1,\cdots,d} |a_i|. \quad \|\mathbf{a}\|_0 = \#\{i|a_i \neq 0\}.$$

Tikhonov Regularization '43 - Ridge Regression '62

- Tikhonov's motivation : solve **ill-posed inverse problems** by **regularization**
- If $\min_{\alpha} L(\alpha)$ is achieved on many points... consider

$$\min_{\alpha} L(\alpha) + \lambda \|\alpha\|_2^2$$

• We can show that this leads to selecting

$$\hat{\alpha} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{\lambda} \mathbf{I_{d+1}})^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{Y}$$

• The condition number has changed to

$$\frac{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}) + \lambda}{\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}) + \lambda}.$$

Subset selection : Exhaustive Search

• Following Ockham's razor, ideally we would like to know for any value p

 $\min_{\alpha, \|\alpha\|_0 = p} L(\alpha)$

- \rightarrow select the **best** vector α which **only** gives weights to p variables.
- \rightarrow Find the **best** combination of p variables.

Practical Implementation

- For $p \leq n$, $\binom{n}{p}$ possible combinations of p variables.
- Brute force approach: generate $\binom{n}{p}$ regression problems and select the one that achieves the best RSS.

Impossible in practice with moderately large n and $p_{\dots}\binom{30}{5} = 150.000$

Subset selection : Forward Search

Since the exact search is intractable in practice, consider the forward heuristic

• In Forward search:

- define $I_1 = \{0\}$.
- given a set $I_k \subset \{0, \dots, d\}$ of k variables, what is the most informative variable one could add?
 - \triangleright Compute for each variable i in $\{0, \cdots, d\} \setminus I_k$

$$t_{i} = \min_{(\alpha_{k})_{k \in I_{k}}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{N} \left(y_{j} - \left(\sum_{k \in I_{k}} \alpha_{k} x_{k,j} + \boldsymbol{\alpha} x_{i,j} \right) \right)^{2}$$

▷ Set $I_{k+1} = I_k \cup \{i^*\}$ for any i^* such that $i^* = \min t_i$. ▷ k = k+1 until desired number of variable

Subset selection : Backward Search

... or the **backward** heuristic

In Backward search:

- define $I_d = \{0, 1, \cdots, n\}$.
- given a set $I_k \subset \{0, \dots, d\}$ of k variables, what is the least informative variable one could remove?
 - \triangleright Compute for each variable *i* in I_k

$$t_{i} = \min_{(\alpha_{k})_{k \in I_{k} \setminus \{i\}}} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \left\| y_{j} - \left(\sum_{k \in I_{k} \setminus \{i\}} \alpha_{k} x_{k,j} \right) \right)^{2}$$

▷ Set $I_{k-1} = I_k \setminus \{i^*\}$ for any i^* such that $i^* = \max t_i$. ▷ k = k - 1 until desired number of variables

Subset selection : LASSO

Naive Least-squares

 $\min_{\alpha} L(\alpha)$

Best fit with p variables (Occam!)

 $\min_{\alpha, \|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|_{0} = \boldsymbol{p}} L(\alpha)$

Tikhonov regularized Least-squares

 $\min_{\alpha} L(\alpha) + \boldsymbol{\lambda} \|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|_{2}^{2}$

LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator)

 $\min_{\alpha} L(\alpha) + \boldsymbol{\lambda} \|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|_{1}$