

MATH 637: Mathematical Techniques in Data Science

Subset selection and Coefficients Penalization

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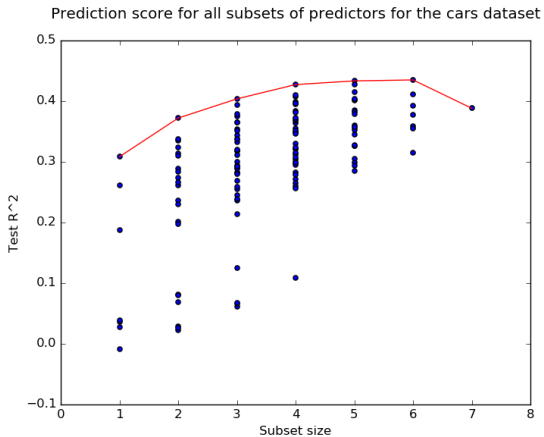
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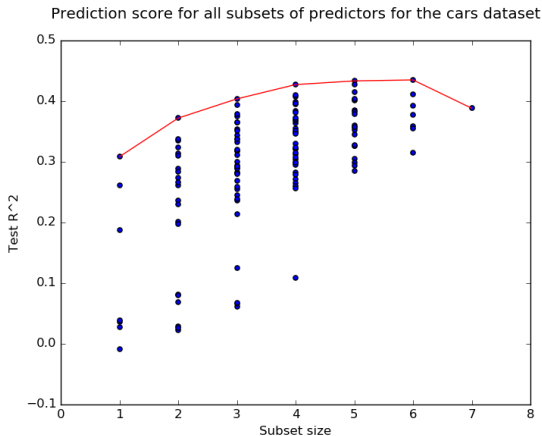
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- The leaps and bounds procedure (Furnival and Wilson, 1974) makes this feasible for p as large as 30 or 40.

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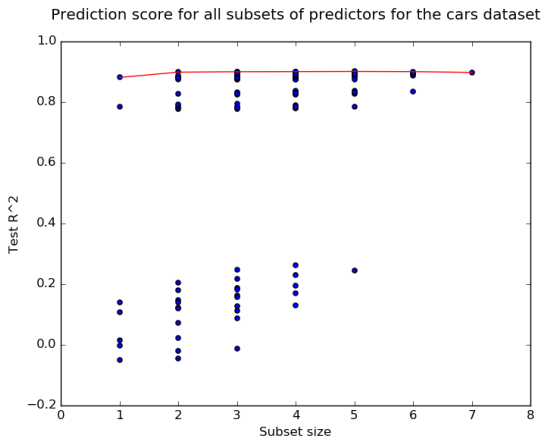
Best subset = ['Mileage', 'Liter', 'Doors', 'Cruise', 'Sound', 'Leather'].

Not included = ['Cylinder']

Best subset of 4 elements: ['Mileage', 'Liter', 'Cruise', 'Leather']

Best subset selection: cars dataset, Chevrolet

Restricting to Chevrolet only:



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Nevertheless, the stepwise approaches often return predictors similar to the predictors obtained from more complex methods with better theory.

Penalizing the coefficients:

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Examples: Let $\lambda > 0$ be a parameter.

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- Variables that do not significantly contribute to reducing the error are excluded from the model (i.e., $\beta_i = 0$).
- Problem: difficult to solve (combinatorial optimization).
Cannot be solved efficiently for a large number of variables.

Relaxations of the previous approach:

- ② Ridge regression/Tikhonov regularization:

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left(\|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i^2 \right).$$

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- Shrinks the regression coefficients by imposing a penalty on their size.
- Penalty = $\lambda \cdot \|\beta\|_2^2$.
- Problem equivalent to $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2$ subject to $\sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i^2 \leq t$.
- Penalty is a smooth function.
- Easy to solve (solution can be written in closed form).
- Generally does not set any coefficient to zero (no model selection).
- Can be used to “regularize” a rank deficient problem ($n < p$).

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \left(\|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i^2 \right) &= 2(X^T X \beta - X^T y) + 2\lambda \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \\ &= 2((X^T X + \lambda I)\beta - X^T y).\end{aligned}$$

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- When $\lambda > 0$, the estimator is defined even when $n < p$.
- When $\lambda = 0$ and $n > p$, we recover the usual least squares solution.
- Makes rigorous “adding a multiple of the identity” to $X^T X$.

- 3 The Lasso (Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator):

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- Introduced in 1996 by Robert Tibshirani.
- Equivalent to $\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2$ subject to $\|\beta\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^p |\beta_i| \leq t$.
- Both sets coefficients to zero (model selection) and shrinks coefficients.
- More “global” approach to selecting variables compared to previously discussed greedy approaches.
- Can be seen as a convex relaxation of the $\hat{\beta}^0$ problem.
- No closed form solution, but can solved efficiently using convex optimization methods.
- Performs well in practice.
- Very popular. Active area of research.

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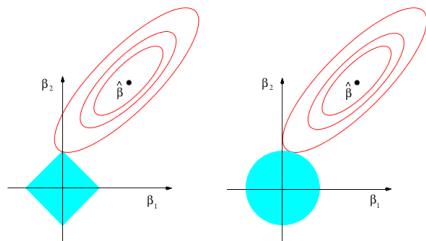


FIGURE 3.11. Estimation picture for the lasso (left) and ridge regression (right). Shown are contours of the error and constraint functions. The solid blue areas are the constraint regions $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \leq t$ and $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \leq t^2$, respectively, while the red ellipses are the contours of the least squares error function.

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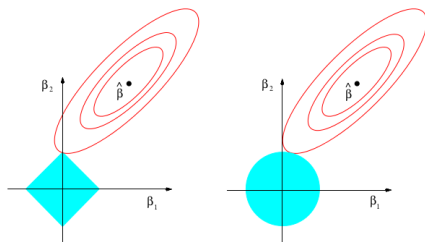


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Solutions are the intersection of the ellipses with the $\|\cdot\|_1$ or $\|\cdot\|_2$ balls. Corners of the $\|\cdot\|_1$ have zero coefficients.

Elastic net (Zou and Hastie, 2005)

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- Downside: Two parameters to choose instead of one (can increase the computational burden quite a lot in large experiments).

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Note: the package solves a slightly different (but equivalent) problem than discussed above:

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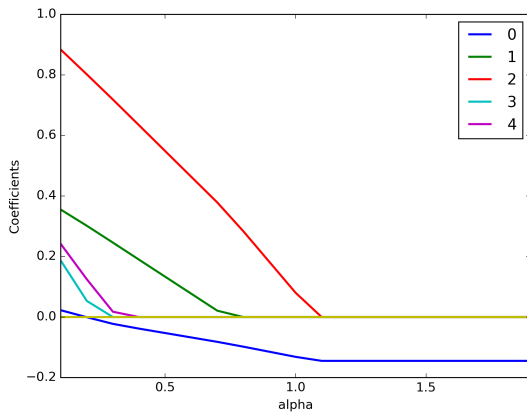
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```
from sklearn.linear_model import Lasso
clf = linear_model.Lasso(alpha=0.1)
clf.fit(X,y)
print(clf.coef_)
print(clf.intercept_)
```

A simple example with simulated data

```
import numpy as np
from sklearn.linear_model import Lasso
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
# Generate random data
n = 100
p = 5
X = np.random.randn(n,p)
epsilon = np.random.randn(n,1)
beta = np.random.rand(p)
y = X.dot(beta) + epsilon
alphas = np.arange(0.1,2,0.1) # 0.1 to 2, step = 0.1
N = len(alphas) # Number of lasso parameters
betas = np.zeros((N,p+1)) # p+1 because of intercept
for i in range(N):
    clf = Lasso(alphas[i])
    clf.fit(X,y)
    betas[i,0] = clf.intercept_
    betas[i,1:] = clf.coef_
plt.plot(alphas,betas,linewidth=2)
plt.legend(range(p))
plt.xlabel('alpha')
plt.ylabel('Coefficients')
plt.xlim(min(alphas),max(alphas))
plt.show()
```

Lab (cont.)



Now, let $y = X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + \epsilon$ with $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. Can the lasso detect that the first two variables are the most important?

```
sigma = 0.1
epsilon = sigma*np.random.randn(n)
y2 = X[:,0] + X[:,1] + epsilon
clf = Lasso(0.1)
clf.fit(X,y2)
np.where(abs(clf.coef_) > 1e-10)
```

- Vary the values of α between 0.1 and 2.
- Repeat the previous exercise for larger values of `sigma2`.

If you have time, use the lasso to identify relevant predictors in either the cars or the boston dataset.