# MATH 637: Mathematical Techniques in Data Science <br> Linear Regression: old and new (part 2) 

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## The Gauss-Markov theorem

As before, we assume:

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Y=X_{1} \beta_{1}+\cdots+X_{p} \beta_{p}=X^{T} \beta
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We observe $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}, \mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Then

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(1) $E\left(\epsilon_{i}\right)=0$.
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Note:

- (3) means that the errors are uncorrelated. In particular, (3) holds if the errors are independent.
- The errors need not be normal, nor independent, nor identically distributed.


## Gauss-Markov (cont.)

Remarks: In our model $\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{X} \beta+\epsilon$,

- $\mathbf{X}$ is fixed.
- $\epsilon$ is random.
- $\mathbf{Y}$ is random.
- $\beta$ is fixed, but unobservable.

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A linear estimator of $\beta$, is an estimator of the form $\hat{\beta}=C \mathbf{Y}$, where $C=\left(c_{i j}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ is a matrix, and

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In particular, $\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{LS}}=\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{Y}$ is a linear estimator with $C=\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}$.

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$C=\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}$.
An estimator is unbiased if $E(\hat{\beta})=\beta$.

## Gauss-Markov (cont.)

Ultimately, we want to use $\hat{\beta}$ to predict $Y$, i.e., $\hat{Y}_{i}=X_{i 1} \hat{\beta}_{1}+X_{i 2} \hat{\beta}_{2}+\cdots+X_{i p} \hat{\beta}_{p}$.
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We define the mean squared error (MSE) of a linear combination of the coefficients of $\hat{\beta}$ by

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\operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)=E\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}\left(\hat{\beta}_{i}-\beta_{i}\right)\right)^{2}\right] \quad\left(a \in \mathbb{R}^{p}\right)
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## Theorem (Gauss-Markov theorem)

Suppose $\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{X} \beta+\epsilon$ where $\epsilon$ satisfies the previous assumptions. Let $\hat{\beta}=C \mathbf{Y}$ be a linear unbiased estimator of $\beta$. Then for all $a \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$,

$$
\operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}_{L S}\right) \leq M S E\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)
$$

We say that $\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{LS}}$ is the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) of $\beta$.

## Gauss-Markov (cont.)

The bias-variance tradeoff
Let $Z=a^{T} \beta$ and $\hat{Z}=a^{T} \hat{\beta}$. (Note: $Z$ is non-random). Then

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\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right) & =E\left[\left(a^{T}(\hat{\beta}-\beta)\right)^{2}\right]=E\left[(\hat{Z}-Z)^{2}\right] \\
& =E\left(Z^{2}-2 Z \hat{Z}+\hat{Z}^{2}\right) \\
& =E\left(Z^{2}\right)-2 E(Z \hat{Z})+E\left(\hat{Z}^{2}\right) \\
& =Z^{2}-2 Z E(\hat{Z})+\operatorname{Var}(\hat{Z})+E(\hat{Z})^{2} \\
& =\underbrace{(Z-E(\hat{Z}))^{2}}_{\text {bias }^{2}}+\underbrace{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{Z})}_{\text {variance }} .
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Therefore, MSE = Bias-squared + Variance.
As a result, if $\hat{\beta}$ is unbiased, then $\operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \beta\right)=\operatorname{Var}(\hat{Z})$.

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Proof. Let $\hat{\beta}=C \mathbf{Y}$ where $C=\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}+D$ for some $D \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$. We will compute $E(\hat{\beta})$ and $\operatorname{Var}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)$.

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\begin{aligned}
E(\hat{\beta}) & =E\left[\left(\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}+D\right) \mathbf{Y}\right] \\
& =E\left[\left(\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}+D\right)(\mathbf{X} \beta+\epsilon)\right] \\
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## Gauss-Markov (cont.)

## Recall:

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\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Var}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)=a^{T} \Sigma a \\
& \text { where } \Sigma=\left(\operatorname{Cov}\left(\hat{\beta}_{i}, \hat{\beta}_{j}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) .
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Using these formulas, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}) & =\operatorname{Var}(C \mathbf{Y}) \\
& =C \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{Y}) C^{T}=\sigma^{2} C C^{T} \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left(\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}+D\right)\left(\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}+D\right)^{T} \\
& =\sigma^{2}\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \\
& +\sigma^{2}[\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \underbrace{\mathbf{X}^{T} D^{T}}_{=(D X)^{T}=0}+\underbrace{D \mathbf{X}}_{=0}\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}+D D^{T}] \\
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Therefore,

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\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Var}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)=a^{T}\left(\sigma^{2}\left(X^{T} X\right)^{-1}+\sigma^{2} D D^{T}\right) a & \geq a^{T} \sigma^{2}\left(X^{T} X\right)^{-1} a \\
& =\operatorname{Var}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{LS}}\right)
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This concludes the proof.

## Back to bias-variance tradeoff

We saw that

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\operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)=\left(a^{T} \beta-E\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)\right)^{2}+\operatorname{Var}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)
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Moreover, according to the Gauss-Markov theorem, for every unbiased estimator $\hat{\beta}$,

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\operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{LS}}\right)=\operatorname{Var}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{LS}}\right) \leq \operatorname{MSE}\left(a^{T} \hat{\beta}\right)
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## Problems with least squares:

(1) Least squares estimates often have large variance, and can have low prediction accuracy (especially when working with small samples).
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We can often increase the prediction accuracy by sacrificing a little bit of bias to reduce the variance of the estimator.
We will later examine some useful alternatives to least squares.

## Training error and test error

A natural way to improve least squares is to force some of the coefficients to be zero.

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(3) We use the fitted model to predict values of the test data and compute the test error.


## Training error and test error (cont.)

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(2) $\widehat{Y}_{\text {test }}=X_{\text {test }} \hat{\beta}$.
(3) Test error:

$$
\mathrm{MSE}_{\text {test }}=\frac{1}{n_{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{2}}\left(\widehat{Y}_{\text {test }, i}-Y_{\text {test }, i}\right)^{2}
$$

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(3) Test error:

$$
\mathrm{MSE}_{\text {test }}=\frac{1}{n_{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{2}}\left(\widehat{Y}_{\text {test }, i}-Y_{\text {test }, i}\right)^{2}
$$

We choose a model that minimizes the test error.

## Training error and test error (cont.)

Typical behavior of the test and training error, as model complexity is varied.


## Training sets and test sets (Python)

Scikit-learn provides a function to split the data automatically for us.

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Scikit-learn provides a function to split the data automatically for

```
us.
from sklearn.model_selections import train_test_split
# Split data into training and test sets
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
    train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.25,
    random_state=42)
# Fit model on training data
lin_model = LinearRegression(fit_intercept=True)
lin_model.fit(X_train,y_train)
# Returns the coefficient of determination R^2.
lin_model.score(X_test, y_test)
```

- Regression models are often ranked using the coefficient of determination called "R squared" and denoted $R^{2}$.

$$
R^{2}=1-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}\right)^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)^{2}}
$$

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- In some sense, the $R^{2}$ measures "how much better" is the prediction, compared to a constant prediction equal to the average of the $y_{i} s$.
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- The score method in sklearn returns the $R^{2}$.
- We want a model with a test $R^{2}$ as close to 1 as possible.


## Lab - Part 1

- Load the Boston dataset. Read the description of the dataset.

```
from sklearn.datasets import load_boston
X, y = load_boston(return_X_y=True)
```

- Split the data into a training and a test set.

```
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.25,
random_state=42)
```

- Fit the model on the training data.
lin_model = LinearRegression(fit_intercept=True) lin_model.fit(X_train,y_train)
- Compute the mean squared error and the $R^{2}$ on the test data:

```
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
y_test_pred = lin_model.predict(X_test)
mean_squared_error(y_test, y_test_pred)
lin_model.score(X_test, y_test)
```


## Lab - Part 2

- Compute the training error and the test error obtained by using only the first $i$ variables, for $i=1, \ldots, 13$ :

```
err_test = np.zeros(13)
err_train = np.zeros(13)
for i in range(13):
    X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
    train_test_split(X[:,0:i+1], y,
    test_size=0.25, random_state=42)
    lin_model = LinearRegression(fit_intercept=True)
    lin_model.fit(X_train,y_train)
etc...
```

- Plot the train and test error as a function of $i$.


## Result



