

Regression

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Linear regression

- Linear model $f(x, \beta) = \langle x, \beta \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^D \beta_i x^i$
- Define $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$, $\{X\}_{ij}$ defines the j -th feature of i -th object, $Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\{Y\}_i$ - target value for i -th object.
- Ordinary least squares (OLS) method:

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (f(x_n, \beta) - y_n)^2 = \sum_{n=1}^N \left(\sum_{d=1}^D \beta_d x_n^d - y_n \right)^2 \rightarrow \min_{\beta}$$

Solution

Stationarity condition:

$$2 \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \left(\sum_{d=1}^D \beta_d x_n^d - y_n \right) = 0$$

In matrix form:

$$2X^T(X\beta - Y) = 0$$

so

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

This is the global minimum, because the optimized criteria is convex.

- Geometric interpretation of linear regression, estimated with OLS.

Linearly dependent features

- Solution $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ exists when $X^T X$ is non-degenerate
- Using property $rank(X) = rank(X^T) = rank(X^T X) = rank(X X^T)$
 - problem occurs when one of the features is a linear combination of the other
 - example: constant unity feature c and one-hot-encoding e_1, e_2, \dots, e_K , because $\sum_k e_k \equiv c$
 - interpretation: non-identifiability of $\hat{\beta}$
 - solved using:
 - feature selection
 - extraction (e.g. PCA)
 - regularization.

Analysis of linear regression

Advantages:

- single optimum, which is global (for the non-singular matrix)
- analytical solution
- interpretability algorithm and solution

Drawbacks:

- too simple model assumptions (may not be satisfied)
- $X^T X$ should be non-degenerate (and well-conditioned)

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Generalization by nonlinear transformations

Nonlinearity by x in linear regression may be achieved by applying non-linear transformations to the features:

$$x \rightarrow [\phi_0(x), \phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots, \phi_M(x)]$$

$$f(x) = \langle \phi(x), \beta \rangle = \sum_{m=0}^M \beta_m \phi_m(x)$$

The model remains to be linear in w , so all advantages of linear regression remain.

Typical transformations

$\phi_k(x)$	comments
$\exp \left\{ -\frac{\ x-\mu\ ^2}{s^2} \right\}$	closeness to point μ in feature space
$x^i x^j$	interaction of features
$\ln x_k$	the alignment of the distribution with heavy tails
$F^{-1}(x_k)$	conversion of atypical continuous distribution to uniform ¹

¹why?

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Regularization

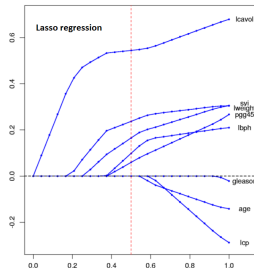
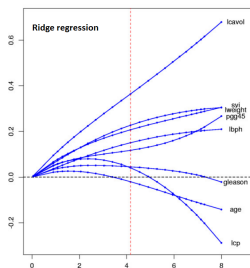
- Variants of target criteria $Q(\beta)$ with regularization²:

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n^T \beta - y_n)^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 \quad \text{Lasso}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n^T \beta - y_n)^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2 \quad \text{Ridge}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n^T \beta - y_n)^2 + \lambda_1 \|\beta\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|\beta\|_2^2 \quad \text{Elastic net}$$

- Dependency of β from $\frac{1}{\lambda}$:



²Derive solution for ridge regression. Will it be uniquely defined for correlated features?

Linear monotonic regression

- We can impose restrictions on coefficients such as non-negativity:

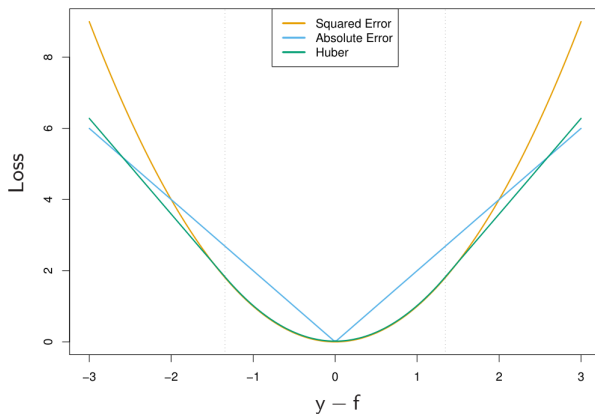
$$\begin{cases} Q(\beta) = \|X\beta - Y\|^2 \rightarrow \min_{\beta} \\ \beta_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, D \end{cases}$$

- Example: averaging of forecasts of different prediction algorithms
- $\beta_i = 0$ means, that i -th component does not improve accuracy of forecasting.

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Non-quadratic loss functions³⁴



³What is the value of constant prediction, minimizing sum of squared errors?

⁴What is the value of constant prediction, minimizing sum of absolute errors?

Conditional non-constant optimization

- For $x, y \sim P(x, y)$ and prediction being made for fixed x :

$$\arg \min_{f(x)} \mathbb{E} \left\{ (f(x) - y)^2 \mid x \right\} = \mathbb{E}[y|x]$$

$$\arg \min_{f(x)} \mathbb{E} \left\{ |f(x) - y| \mid x \right\} = \text{median}[y|x]$$

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Weighted account for observations⁵

- Weighted account for observations

$$\sum_{n=1}^N w_n (\mathbf{x}_n^T \beta - y_n)^2$$

- Weights may be:
 - increased for incorrectly predicted objects
 - algorithm becomes more oriented on error correction
 - decreased for incorrectly predicted objects
 - they may be considered outliers that break our model

⁵Derive solution for weighted regression.

Robust regression

- Initialize $w_1 = \dots = w_N = 1/N$
 - repeat until convergence of ε_i :
 - estimate regression $\hat{y}(x)$ using observations (x_i, y_i) with weights w_i .
 - re-estimate $\varepsilon_i = \hat{y}(x_i) - y_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$.
 - recalculate $w_i = w(\varepsilon_i)$ with $\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_N$
 - normalize weights $w_i = \frac{w_i}{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n}$

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Local constant regression

- Names: Nadaraya-Watson regression, kernel regression
- For each x assume $f(x) = \text{const} = \alpha$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$Q(\alpha, \mathcal{X}_{\text{training}}) = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i(x) (\alpha - y_i)^2 \rightarrow \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}}$$

- Weights depend on the proximity of training objects to the predicted object:

$$w_i(x) = K \left(\frac{\rho(x, x_i)}{h} \right)$$

- From stationarity condition $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \alpha} = 0$ obtain optimal $\hat{\alpha}(x)$:

$$f(x, \alpha) = \hat{\alpha}(x) = \frac{\sum_i y_i w_i(x)}{\sum_i w_i(x)} = \frac{\sum_i y_i K \left(\frac{\rho(x, x_i)}{h} \right)}{\sum_i K \left(\frac{\rho(x, x_i)}{h} \right)}$$

Comments

Under certain regularity conditions $g(x, \alpha) \xrightarrow{P} E[y|x]$

Typically used kernel functions⁶:

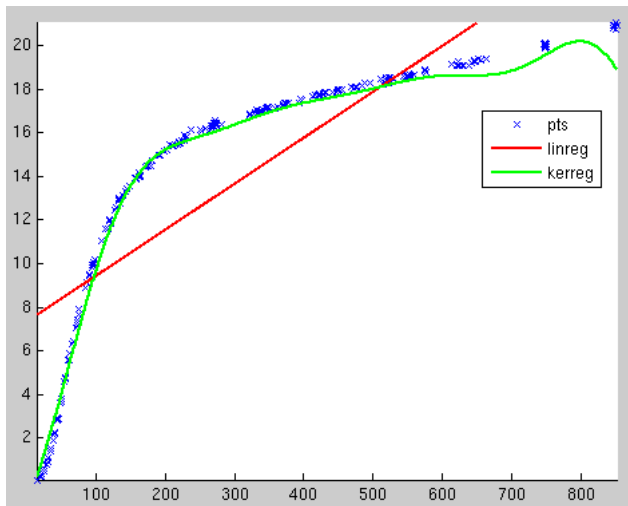
$$K_G(r) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}r^2} - \text{Gaussian kernel}$$

$$K_P(r) = (1 - r^2)^2 \mathbb{I}[|r| < 1] - \text{quartic kernel}$$

- The specific form of the kernel function does not affect the accuracy much
- h controls the adaptability of the model to local changes in data
 - *how h affects under/overfitting?*
 - h can be constant or depend on x (if concentration of objects changes significantly)

⁶Compare them in terms of required computation.

Example



Local linear regression

- Local (in neighbourhood of x_i) approximation $f(x) = x^T \beta$
- Solve for $w_n(x) = K\left(\frac{\rho(x, x_n)}{h}\right)$:

$$Q(\beta, \beta_0 | \mathbf{X}_{training}) = \sum_{n=1}^N w_n(x) (x^T \beta - y_n)^2 \rightarrow \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}}$$

Local linear regression

- Local (in neighbourhood of x_i) approximation $f(x) = x^T \beta$
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$$Q(\beta, \beta_0 | \mathbf{X}_{training}) = \sum_{n=1}^N w_n(x) \left(x^T \beta - y_n\right)^2 \rightarrow \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}}$$

- Advantages of local linear regression:
 - compared to local constant kernel linear regression better predicts:
 - local local minima and maxima
 - linear change at the edges of the training set

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Bias-variance decomposition

- True relationship $y = f(x) + \varepsilon$
- This relationship is estimated using training set $(X, Y) = \{(x_n, y_n), n = 1, 2 \dots N\}$
- Recovered relationship $\hat{f}(x)$
- Noise ε is independent of any x , $\mathbb{E}\varepsilon = 0$ and $\text{Var}[\varepsilon] = \sigma^2$

Bias-variance decomposition

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{X, Y, \varepsilon} \{ [\hat{f}(x) - y(x)]^2 | x \} &= \mathbb{E}_{X, Y} \{ \hat{f}(x) | x \} - f(x)]^2 \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_{X, Y} \{ [\hat{f}(x) - \mathbb{E}\hat{f}(x)]^2 | x \} + \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Intuition: $MSE = \text{bias}^2 + \text{variance} + \text{irreducible error}$
 - darts intuition

Proof of bias-variance decomposition

Define $f = f(x)$, $\hat{f} = \hat{f}(x)$, $\mathbb{E} = \mathbb{E}_{X,Y,\varepsilon}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - f)^2 &= \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f} + \mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)^2 = \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f})^2 + (\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)^2 \\ &\quad + 2\mathbb{E} [(\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f})(\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)] \\ &= \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f})^2 + (\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)^2 \end{aligned}$$

We used that $(\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)$ is a constant number and hence

$$\mathbb{E} [(\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f})(\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)] = (\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)\mathbb{E}(\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f}) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - y)^2 &= \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - f - \varepsilon)^2 = \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - f)^2 + \mathbb{E}\varepsilon^2 - 2\mathbb{E} [(\hat{f} - f)\varepsilon] \\ &= \mathbb{E} (\hat{f} - \mathbb{E}\hat{f})^2 + (\mathbb{E}\hat{f} - f)^2 + \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

Here $\mathbb{E} [(\hat{f} - f)\varepsilon] = \mathbb{E} [(\hat{f} - f)] \mathbb{E}\varepsilon = 0$ since ε is independent of x .