Statistical Foundations of Data Science

Jianqing Fan

Princeton University

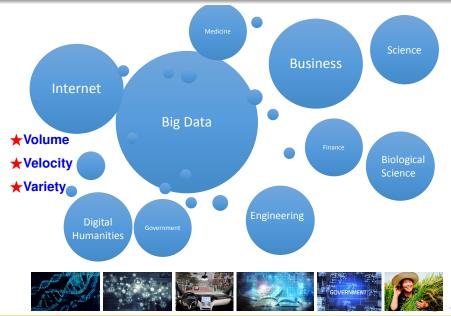
https://fan.princeton.edu





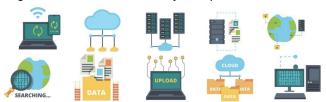


Big Data are ubiquitous

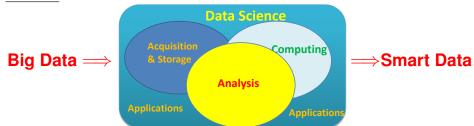


Impact of Data Tsunami Gives Rise to Data Science

System: storage, communication, security, computation architectures



Analysis: statistics, computation, optimization, privacy



What can big data do?

Hold great promises for understanding

- ★ Heterogeneity: personalized medicine or services
- ★ Commonality: in presence of large variations (noises)

from large pools of variables, factors, genes, environments and their interactions as well as **latent factors**.

Aims of Data Science:

- Prediction: To construct as effective a method as possible to predict future (unseen) observations.(correlation)
- Inference and Prediction: To gain insight into relationship between features and response for scientific purposes and to construct an improved prediction method. (causation)

Common Features and Techniques

Common Features of Big Data:

- ★ Dependence, heavy tails, endogeneity, spurious corr, heterogeneity,
- Missing data, measurement errors, survivor, sampling biases
- Computation, communication, privacy, ownership



Common Techniques for Data Science:

- ★ Statistical Techniques: Least-Squares, MLE, M-estimation
- Regression: Parametric, Nonparametric, Sparse, Factor(PCR)
- Principal Component Analysis: Supervised, unsupervised.

Foundations of Model Al

Scaling Law: Prediction gets better as

- ★ data size
- ★ model size
- ★ computation power get bigger (eventually, intelligence emgerges)

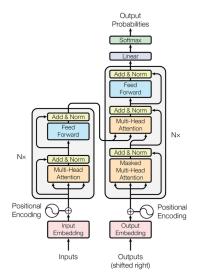


Figure 1: The Transformer - model architecture.

1. Multiple and Nonparametric Regression

- 1.1. Least-Square Theory
- 1.3. Ridge Regression
- 1.5. Cross-validation

- 1.2. Arts of Model Building
- 1.4. Regression in RKHS

1.1. Multiple Regression

■ Read materials and R-implementations here https://fan.princeton.edu/fan/classes/245/chap11.pdf

Purpose of Multiple regression

- ★ Study assocations between dependent & independent variables
- ★ Screen irrelevant and select useful variables
- * Prediction

Example: Zillow is an online real estate database company founded in 2006. An important task for Zillow is

to predict the house price. (Training data: 15129 cases, testing data: 6484 cases)

<u>Interest</u>: Associations between **housing** and its **attributes**.

- Response *Y* = Housing prices
- Covariates

No. of bathrooms X₁;
No. of bedrooms X₂

▶ sqft-living room X_3 ; sqft-lot X_4

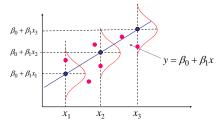
zipcode X₅ (70 zipcodes); view X₆ (5 categories)

. . .

Multiple linear regression model

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p + \varepsilon$$

- Y: response / dependent variable
- X_j 's: explanatory / independent variables or covariates
- ε: random error not explained / predicted by covariates
- include intercept (bias) by setting $X_1 = 1$



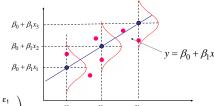
Method of Least-squares

$$\underline{\mathbf{Data}}: \left\{ \left(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \cdots x_{ip}, y_i \right) \right\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$$

Model:
$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} + \varepsilon_i$$

Matrix form:
$$y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \left(\begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{array} \right), \, \mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{array} \right), \, \boldsymbol{\beta} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_p \end{array} \right), \, \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_n \end{array} \right)$$



Method of Least-Squares:

$$\mathsf{min}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \quad \mathsf{RSS}\Big(\beta\Big) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^n \big(y_i - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij}\beta_j\big)^2 = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2$$

RSS stands for residual sum-of-squares



Closed-form solution

Least-squares: Minimize wrt $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

Setting gradients to zero yields **normal equations**:

$$\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Least-squares estimator: (assume X has full column rank)

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}$$

<u>Multiple R^2 </u>: $R^2 = 1 - \frac{RSS(\widehat{\beta})}{(n-1)var(\mathbf{y})}$, proportion of variance of y explained by regression. It measures the **goodness-of-fit**. $\phi(n-1)var(\mathbf{y}) = RSS(1)$

Geometric interpretation of least-squares

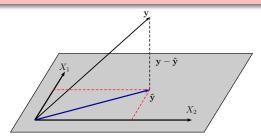
Fitted value:
$$\widehat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underbrace{\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T}_{\triangleq \mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}} \mathbf{y}$$

Theorem 2.1 [Property of projection matrix]

$$\bigstar$$
 $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}_j = \mathbf{x}_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \cdots, p$

$$\bigstar P^2 = P \text{ or } P(I_n - P) = 0$$

★ Eigenvalues of P are 0 or 1, with number of 1's = rank(P)



project response vector **y** onto linear space spanned by **X**

Statistical properties of least-squares estimator

Assumption:

- Exogeneity: $\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon|\mathbf{X}) = 0$;
- Homoscedasticity: $var(\epsilon | \mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2$.

Statistical Properties:

- \bigstar bias: $\mathbb{E}(\widehat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}) = \beta$
- \bigstar <u>variance</u>: $var(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ often dropped
- Recall $cov(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}) = E(\mathbf{U} \mu_u)(\mathbf{V} \mu_v)^T$ and $var(\mathbf{U}) = cov(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{U})$

$$cov(AU,BV) = A cov(U,V)B^{T}, var(a^{T}U) = a^{T} var(U)a;$$



Gauss-Markov Theorem

■How large is variance?

Compared with other estimators?

Theorem 2.2 [Gauss-Markov Theorem]

LSE $\widehat{\beta}$ is best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE):

- $\mathbf{a}^T\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is a linear unbiased estimator of parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbf{a}^T\boldsymbol{\beta}$
- for any linear unbiased estimator $\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y}$ of θ ,

$$var(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}) \ge var(\mathbf{a}^T \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} | \mathbf{X})$$

**Estimation of
$$\sigma^2$$**: $\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\text{RSS}}{\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{p}} = \frac{\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\|^2}{n - p}$

 $\widehat{\sigma}^2$ is is an unbiased estimator of σ^2



Statistical inference

Additional assumption: $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$

Under fixed design or conditioning on X,

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{\beta} + (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$$

- $\bigstar \ \widehat{\beta}_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_j, v_j \sigma^2)$ where v_j is jth diag of $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$
- $\bigstar (n-p)\widehat{\sigma}^2 \sim \sigma^2 \chi^2_{n-p}$ and $\widehat{\sigma}^2$ is indep. of $\widehat{\beta}$.
- $\bigstar \ \underline{1-\alpha \ \text{CI for } \beta_j} : \widehat{\beta}_j \pm t_{n-p} (1-\alpha/2) \sqrt{v_j} \widehat{\sigma}$

(homework)

 $\bigstar \underline{H_0: \beta_j = 0}$: test statistics $t_j = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_j}{\sqrt{v_j \widehat{\sigma}}} \sim_{H_0} t_{n-p}$.



Proof of the classical result

- **2** By eigendecomposition, $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{\Gamma} \operatorname{diag}(\overbrace{1, \cdots, 1}^{p}, 0, \cdots, 0) \mathbf{\Gamma}^{T}$.
- **1** RSS depends only on $(\mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{P})\varepsilon$ and $\widehat{\beta}$ depends on $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\varepsilon$. They are joint normal and uncorrelated \Longrightarrow indep.



Zillow Data Analysis: Regression outputs

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i \in \mathsf{TRAIN}} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i \in \mathsf{TRAIN}} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}, \qquad \mathsf{Adjusted} \ R^2 = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i \in \mathsf{TRAIN}} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2}{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i \in \mathsf{TRAIN}} (y_i - \overline{y})^2},$$

Model 1: $Im(price \sim bathrooms + bedrooms + saft_living + saft_lot)$

 R^2 -values: In sample = 0.5101, adjusted = 0.5100, Out-sample = 0.5051

fit.lm1 = lm(price~bathrooms + bedrooms + sqft_living + sqft_lot, data = train_data) #fit linear model

summary(fit.lm1) #summarize the fit

Call:

lm(formula = price ~ bathrooms + bedrooms + sqft living + soft lot, data = train data)

Residuals:

Min 1Q Median 3Q Max -1571803 -143678 -22595 103133 4141210

Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

(Intercept) 8.083e+04 8.208e+03 9.848 < 2e-16 *** bathrooms 3.682e+03 4.178e+03 0.881 0.378

Jianging Fan (Princeton University) ORF 525, S24: Statistical Foundations of Data

```
bedrooms -5.930e+04 2.753e+03 -21.537 < 2e-16 ***
sqft_living 3.167e+02 3.750e+00 84.442 < 2e-16 ***
sqft_lot -4.267e-01 5.504e-02 -7.753 9.52e-15 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 257200 on 15124 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5101, Adjusted R-squared: 0.51
F-statistic: 3937 on 4 and 15124 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

- ★ The first part reminds us the models used:
- the second part summarizes the residual statistics:
- \star the third part depicts estimated coefficients $\hat{\beta}_i$ (second column), its standard error $\sqrt{v_i}\hat{\sigma}$ (third column), and t-statistic t_i ,
- ★ the last part summarizes overall model fits: $\hat{\sigma} = 257200$, n p = 15124, $R^2 = 0.5101$, adj- $R^2 = 0.5101$ 0.51, F-statistic for testing H_0 : $\beta = 0$ is 3937 with degree of freedom p-1=4 and n-p=15124. Small P-value suggests that we reject H_0 that these four variables are not related to the house price.

```
Now, let us compute the out-of-sample R^2, showing roughly percentage of predicability.
##### out-of-sample R^2#######
fit.lml.pred.out <- predict(fit.lml, newdata = test data)</pre>
SS.total <- sum((test_data$price - mean(train_data$price))^2)</pre>
SS.residual <- sum( (test_data$price - fit.lm1.pred.out)^2)</pre>
1 - SS.residual / SS.total
[1] 0.5051489
                                                            ◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆重▶ ◆重 ◆の○○
```

Non-normal error

Appeal to asymptotic theory:

$$\sqrt{n}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \underbrace{(n^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}}_{n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\boldsymbol{X}_{i}\boldsymbol{X}_{i}^{T}} \underbrace{n^{-1/2}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{n^{-1/2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\boldsymbol{X}_{i}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i}}$$

Using Slutsky's theorem, with $\mathbf{\Sigma} = E\mathbf{X}_i\mathbf{X}_i^T$,

(homework)

$$\sqrt{\textit{n}}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \overset{\textit{d}}{\longrightarrow} \textit{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}) \qquad \text{or} \qquad \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \overset{\textit{d}}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2) \text{ (informal)}$$

Holds approx. for large n

Correlated errors

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$
, where $\operatorname{var}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}|\mathbf{X}) = \boldsymbol{\sigma^2}\mathbf{W}$

Transform data: $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{W}^{-1/2}\mathbf{y}, \ \mathbf{X}^* = \mathbf{W}^{-1/2}\mathbf{X}, \ \epsilon^* = \mathbf{W}^{-1/2}\epsilon.$ Then

$$\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{X}^* \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^*, \quad \text{with} \quad \text{var}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^* | \mathbf{X}) = \boldsymbol{\sigma^2} \mathbf{I}.$$

General Least-Squares: (assuming W known)

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \quad ||\mathbf{y}^* - \mathbf{X}^*\boldsymbol{\beta}||^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T \mathbf{W}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

<u>Heteroscedastic errors</u>: $W_i = \sigma^2 \operatorname{diag}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$

Weighted Least-squares: $\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mathbf{X}_i^T \beta)^2 / v_i$.



1.2. Arts of Model Building

Nonlinear and nonparametric regression

"Essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful."

George Box (1987)

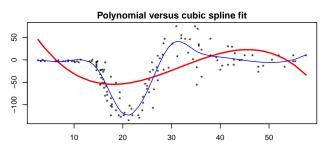
Nolinear regression

Polynomial regression: univariate

$$Y = \overbrace{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \dots + \beta_d X^d}^{\approx f(X)} + \varepsilon$$

★ multiple regression with $X_1 = X, \dots, X_d = X^d$ (basis function)

<u>Drawback</u>: not suitable for functions with **varying** degrees of smoothness



motorcycle data: time vs. head acceleration (red: cubic polynomial; blue: cubic splines)



Spline regression

- \star piecewise polynomials with degree d and continuous $(d-1)^{th}$ derivative.
- ★ Knots: $\{\tau_i\}_{i=1}^K$ where discontinuity occurs.

★data quantiles

$$Y = \text{Spline}_{K}(X) + \varepsilon = \sum_{j=0}^{d+K} \beta_{j} B_{j}(X) + \varepsilon$$

Basis functions:
$$\{1, x, \dots, x^d, (x - \tau_j)_+^d, \quad j = 1, \dots, K\} = \{B_j(x)\}_{j=0}^{d+K}$$

- \star cubic spline: d = 3, widely used;
- \bigstar multiple regression with $X_j = B_j(x)$.

(feature)

Nonparametric: When *K* is large, $K_n \rightarrow \infty$



Extension to multiple covariates

Bivariate quadratic regression model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1^2 + \beta_4 \underbrace{X_1 X_2}_{\text{interaction}} + \beta_5 X_2^2 + \varepsilon$$

Multivariate quadratic regression:

(linear in parameters)

$$Y = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j X_j + \sum_{i \le k} \beta_{jk} X_j X_k + \varepsilon$$

Multivariate quadratic regression with main effect and interactions

$$Y = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j X_j + \sum_{j < k} \beta_{jk} X_j X_k + \varepsilon$$



Model 2: (heterogeneity + interaction) Consider four variables and their interaction with zipcode. This amounts to fit a multiple regression with the four variables for each zip code. There are 70 different zip codes, representing different intercepts. The estimated coefficients are typically presented as the difference (contrast) to the baseline factor (zipcode: 98001).

```
train_data$zipcode = as.factor(train_data$zipcode) #treat zipcode as factor
test data$zipcode = as.factor(test data$zipcode)
fit.lm4 = lm(price ~ bathrooms + bedrooms + sqft living + sqft lot+ zipcode
+ zipcode*bathrooms + zipcode*bedrooms+zipcode*sqft_lot
+ zipcode*sqft living, data = train data)
summary(fit.lm4)
Residual standard error: 156900 on 14779 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.822, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8178
F-statistic: 195.5 on 349 and 14779 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
fit.lm4.pred.out <- predict(fit.lm4, newdata = test_data)</pre>
SS.residual <- sum( (test data$price - fit.lm4.pred.out)^2)
```

[1] 0.7950443

1 - SS.residual / SS.total

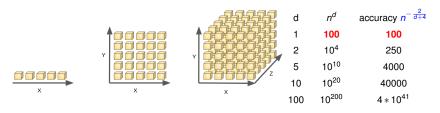
◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆重▶ ◆重 ◆の○○

Multivariate spline regression

Idea: Tensor products of univariate basis functions

$$\{B_{i_1}(x_1)B_{i_2}(x_2)\cdots B_{i_p}(x_p)\}_{i_1=1}^{b_1}\cdots _{i_p=1}^{b_p}$$

<u>Drawbacks</u>: curse of dimensionality, namely, number of basis functions scales exponentially with *p*



Structured multivariate regressions

Remedy: Add additional structure to $f(\cdot)$

Example: Additive model

$$Y = f_1(X_1) + \cdots + f_p(X_p) + \varepsilon$$

Number of basis functions scales **linearly** with *p*

Example: Bivariate interaction models:

$$Y = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq p} f_{ij}(X_i, X_j) + \varepsilon$$

- Number of basis functions scales quadratically with p
- ■Implementation: Bivariate tensors

Q: How to write?

Best predictor and nonparametric regression

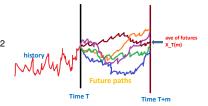
Double Expectation: $EZ = E\{E(Z|X)\}$, for any X

Bias-var in prediction: Letting $f^*(\mathbf{X}) = E(Y|\mathbf{X})$, then

$$E(Y - f(\mathbf{X}))^2 = \underbrace{E(Y - f^*(\mathbf{X}))^2}_{\mathbf{var} = \mathbf{E}\sigma^2(\mathbf{X})} + E\underbrace{(f^*(\mathbf{X}) - f(\mathbf{X}))^2}_{\mathbf{bias}}.$$

Best prediction: $E(Y|\mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{argmin}_f E(Y - f(\mathbf{X}))^2$

Nonparametric reg.: Estimating $f^*(\cdot)$ directly



Bias variance decomposition

<u>Bias-var in estimation</u>: letting $\overline{f}(\mathbf{x}) = E\hat{f}_n(\mathbf{x})$, then

$$E(\widehat{f}_n(\mathbf{X}) - f^*(\mathbf{X}))^2 = \underbrace{E(\widehat{f}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \overline{f}(\mathbf{X}))^2}_{\text{var}} + E(\underbrace{\overline{f}(\mathbf{X}) - f^*(\mathbf{X})}_{\text{bias}})^2.$$

Role of Modeling:

- \star variance is small when n large, big when no. of parameters is big
- ★biases are small when model is complex (no. of parameters is big)

1.3. Ridge Regression

Ridge Regression

Drawbacks of OLS: $\bigstar n > p$

★large variance when collinearity: $Var(\widehat{\beta}) = \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

Remedy: Ridge regression (Hoerl and Kennard, 1970)

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\lambda} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}$$

 $\star\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter.

Tikhonov (1943) regularization

Interpretation: Penalized LS $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2$.

—Setting the gradient to zero, we get $\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{0}$.

Bias-Variance Tradeoff*

Smaller variances:

$$\mathsf{Var}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\lambda}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda\boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda\boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2 \prec \mathsf{Var}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}).$$

Larger biases:

$$E(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\lambda}) - \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\beta} = -\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

Overall error:

$$\label{eq:MSE} \text{MSE}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\lambda}) = \text{E} \, \| \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\lambda} - \boldsymbol{\beta} \|^2 = \text{tr} \{ (\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-2} [\lambda^2 \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathsf{T}} + \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{X}] \}.$$

Generalization: ℓ_q Penalized Least Squares

ℓ_q penalized least-squares estimate:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_q^q, \ \ q \geq 0.$$

- λ tuning parameter, $\|\beta\|_q^q = |\beta_1|^q + \cdots + |\beta_p|^q$
- q = 0 is the best subset selection

$$\|\beta\|_0 = \#\{j : \beta_j \neq 0\}$$

- Only q = 2 admits a closed-form solution.
- Known as Bridge estimator (Frank and Friedman, 1993);
- When q = 1, called Lasso estimator (Tibshirani, 1996);
- Folded concave when 0 < q < 1 and convex when q > 1;



Prediction by similarity

Theorem 2.4. Alternative expression $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\lambda} = \boldsymbol{X}^T (\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{X}^T + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$

Prediction at
$$\mathbf{x}$$
 is $\widehat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{x}^T \widehat{\mathbf{\beta}}_{\lambda} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$.
Note that $(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T)_{ij} = \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle$ and $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X}^T = (\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1 \rangle, \cdots, \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_n \rangle)$.

• Prediction depends only pairwise inner products;

similarity

• Generalize to other similarity measures $K(\cdot,\cdot)$, called kernel trick. K(M,M) = +10 K(M,M) = -10

Kernel regression

<u>Kernel</u>: $\mathbf{K} = (K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j))_{n \times n}$ is PSD, for any $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$.

Commonly used kernels: $K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$

- ★linear $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ ★polynomial $(1 + \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^{\mathbf{d}}$, $d = 2, 3, \cdots$;
- ★Gaussian $e^{-\gamma \|\mathbf{u} \mathbf{v}\|^2}$ ★Laplacian $e^{-\gamma \|\mathbf{u} \mathbf{v}\|}$

Basis:
$$\{K(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_j)\}_{j=1}^n$$
 and express $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_j)$. Fit $\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{K}\alpha\|^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbf{K}\alpha\}, \quad \mathbf{K} = (K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j))$

No curse-of-dim in implementation!





Kernel ridge regression

Kernel ridge regression

With $\mathbf{K} = (K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, prediction at \mathbf{x} is

$$\widehat{y} = (K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1), \cdots, K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_n))(\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{y},$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{y}} = \widehat{\widehat{f}(\mathbf{x})} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{\alpha_i} K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i),$$
testing training
$$\widehat{\alpha} = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y};$$

 \star tune the parameter λ to minimize prediction errors.

1.4 Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

Justification of Kernel Tricks by Representer Theorem

Hilbert Space

Hilbert space: a linear space of functions endowed with an inner product.

 $\blacksquare X = \text{set}, \ \mathcal{H} = \text{a space of functions on } X \text{ with inner product } \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle.$

Kernel function $K(\cdot,\cdot)$: Matrix $(K(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j))_{n\times n}$ is PSD, for all $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$,

Eigen-decomposition:

$$\mathcal{K}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{x}') = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_{j} \psi_{j}(\boldsymbol{x}) \psi_{j}(\boldsymbol{x}'), \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_{j}^{2} < \infty$$

 $-\{\gamma_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ are eigenvalues, and $\{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ are eigen-functions.



Reproducing Hilbert Space

Hilbert space associated with K: $\mathcal{H}_K = \{g = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \beta_j \psi_j\}$, endowed with inner product

$$\langle g,g'
angle_{\mathcal{H}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle K}} = \sum_{j=1}^\infty \gamma_j^{-1} \beta_j \beta_j'; \qquad \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle K}} = \sqrt{\langle g,g
angle_{\mathcal{H}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle K}}},$$

for any $g,g'\in\mathcal{H}_{\!K}$ with $g=\sum_{j=1}^\infty\beta_j\psi_j,g'=\sum_{j=1}^\infty\beta_j'\psi_j.$

Representer Theorem

Theorem 2.6. For a loss *L* and increasing function $P_{\lambda}(\cdot)$, let

$$\widehat{f} = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + P_{\lambda}(\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}) \right\}, \quad \lambda > 0,$$

Then

(homework)

$$\widehat{f}(\cdot) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \widehat{\alpha}_{j} K(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_{j}),$$

where $\widehat{\alpha} = (\widehat{\alpha}_1, \cdots, \widehat{\alpha}_n)^T$ solves

$$\min_{\alpha} \Big\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\Big(y_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)\Big) + P_{\lambda}\Big(\sqrt{\alpha^T \mathbf{K} \alpha}\Big) \Big\}.$$

- ★ Infinite-dimensional regression problem;
- ★ Finite-dimensional representation for the solution.



Outline of Proof

- Any f can be written as $f = f_K + r$, where $f_K(\cdot) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j K(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_j)$ (projection) and r is in its orthogonal complement.
- ② Orthogonality entails $0 = \langle K(\cdot, x_j), r \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K} = r(x_j)$ by reproducibility. Hence, $f(x_i) = f_K(x_i)$ (the same loss).
- **1** Optimality reaches only if r = 0.
- $\bullet \ \, \langle f,f\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K} = \textstyle \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle K(\cdot,x_i),K(\cdot,x_j)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_K} = \textstyle \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j K(x_i,x_j).$



Applications of Representer Theorem

Apply representer theorem to kernel ridge regression

$$\widehat{f} = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}_K} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2 + \lambda \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_K}^2 \right\}.$$

We must have $\widehat{f} = \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{\alpha}_i K(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_i)$ with $\widehat{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ solving

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{K}\alpha\|^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbf{K}\alpha \right\}.$$

It is easily seen that

$$\widehat{\alpha} = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}.$$

1.5 Cross-Validation

Cross-Validation

<u>Purpose</u>: To estimate <u>Prediction Error</u> for a procedure; to select tuning parameters, and compare multiple methods

k-fold Cross-Validation (CV)

- ★ Divide data randomly and evenly into k subsets;
- ★ Use one fold as testing set and remaining as training set to compute testing errors;
- ★ Repeat for each of *k* subsets and average testing errors.



PE for training size: (1-1/k)n

Choice of k: k = n (best, but expensive; leave-one out), 10 or 5 (5-fold).

Leave-one-out: $CV = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_i - \hat{t}^{-i}(\mathbf{x}_i)]^2$, $\hat{t}^{-i}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \text{predicted value based on } \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i \neq i}$

Linear smoother*

$$\mathbf{\overline{y}} = \mathbf{Sy}$$
 for data $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$,

S depends only on X.

<u>Self-stable</u> if $\overline{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \widehat{f}(\mathbf{x})$, where \overline{f} is estimated function based on data $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ and $(\mathbf{x}, \widehat{f}(\mathbf{x}))$, and \widehat{f} based on $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$

Theorem 2.7. For a self-stable linear smoother $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}$,

$$y_i - \widehat{f}^{-i}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{y_i - \widehat{y}_i}{1 - S_{ii}}, \quad \forall i \in [n], \qquad \text{CV} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y_i - \widehat{y}_i}{1 - S_{ii}} \right)^2.$$

Proof: By self-stability, $\{(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j), j \neq i\}$ and $\{(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j), j \neq i, (\mathbf{x}_i, \widehat{\mathbf{f}}^{(-i)}(\mathbf{x}_i))\}$ have the same fit: $\widehat{f}^{(-i)}(\mathbf{x}_i) = S_{ii}\widehat{f}^{(-i)}(x_i) + \sum_{j \neq i} S_{ij}y_j$ or $\widehat{f}^{(-i)}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \sum_{j \neq i} S_{ij}y_j/(1 - S_{ii})$. The proof follows from $\widehat{y}_i = S_{ii}y_i + \sum_{i \neq i} S_{ij}y_i$ and a simple algebra.



Generalized Cross-Validation*

GCV (Golub et al., 1979):
$$GCV = \frac{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{[1 - tr(\mathbf{S})/n]^2}$$
.

■tr(S) is called effective degrees of freedom.

For ridge regression, GCV chooses $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ by minimizing

$$GCV(\lambda) = \frac{\frac{1}{n}\mathbf{y}^{T}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{S}_{\lambda})\mathbf{y}}{[1 - \text{tr}(\mathbf{S}_{\lambda})/n]^{2}}.$$

	tr(S)
$\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$	р
$\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$	$\sum_{j=1}^{p} \frac{d_j^2}{d_j^2 + \lambda}$
$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}$	$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\gamma_j}{\gamma_j + \lambda}$
}	$\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$

 $\bigstar \{d_j\}$ and $\{\gamma_j\}$ are singular values of **X** and **K**.

