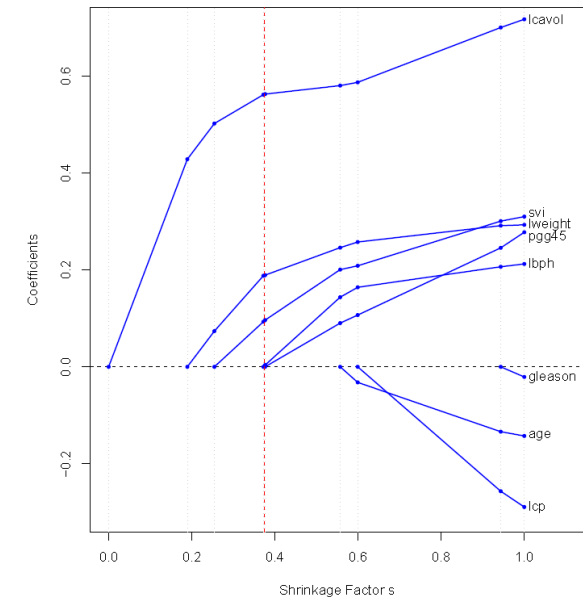
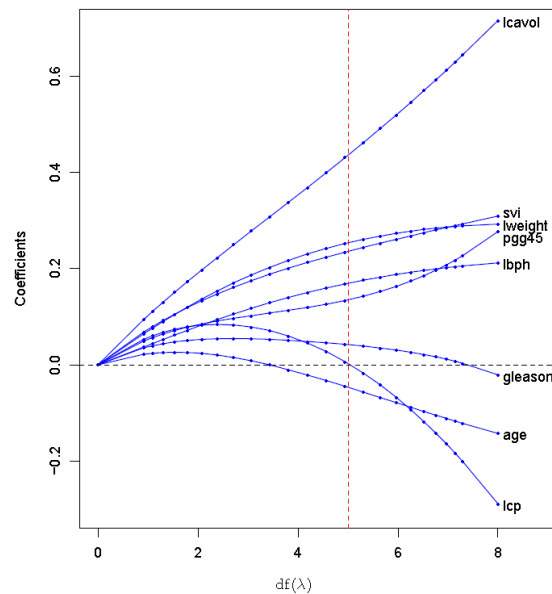
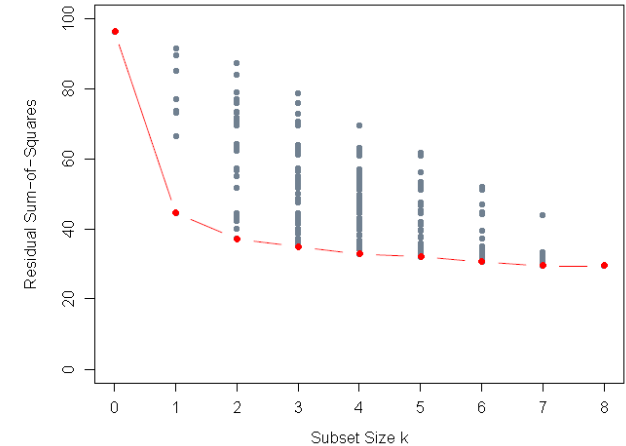


Lineární regrese, výběr atributů, regularizace

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

- AIC, BIC, krosvalidace
- exercises.RData
- toclustf.RData



Korelovaná pozorování (rezidua)

- např. u časové řady
- zpravidla podhodnocuje odhad chyby.

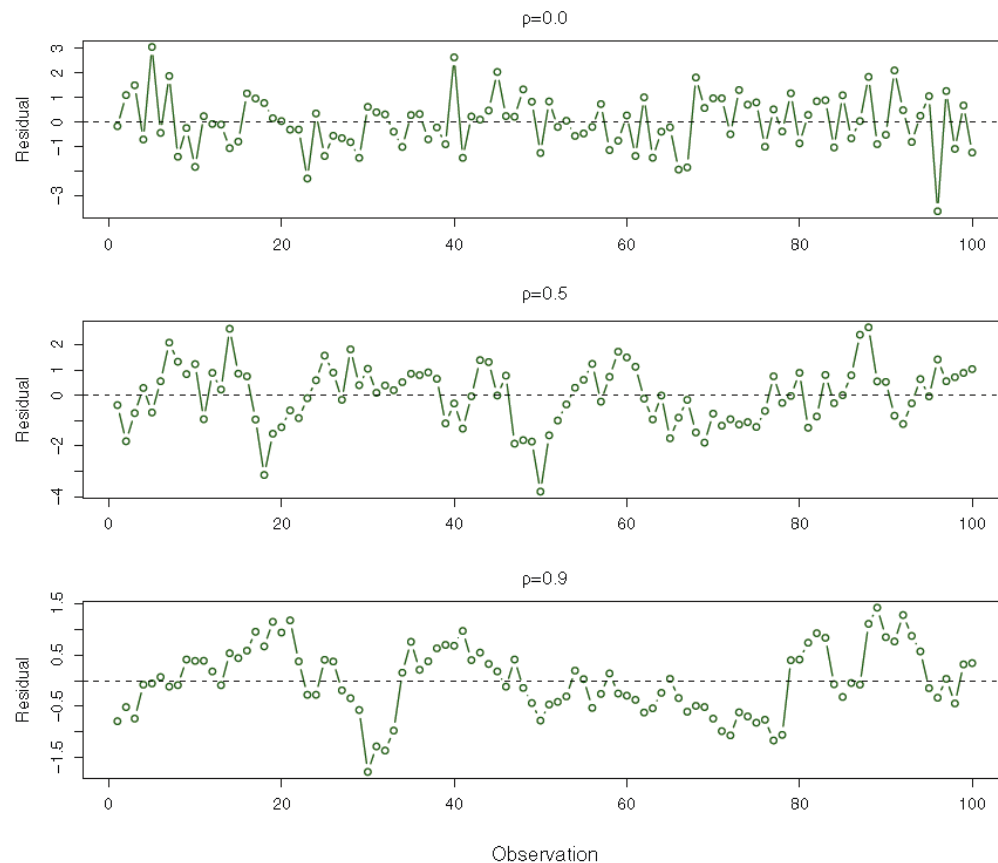


FIGURE 3.10. Plots of residuals from simulated time series data sets generated with different levels of correlation ρ between error terms for adjacent time points

Nekonstantní rozptyl reziduí

- log transformace, vážené neimenší čtverce

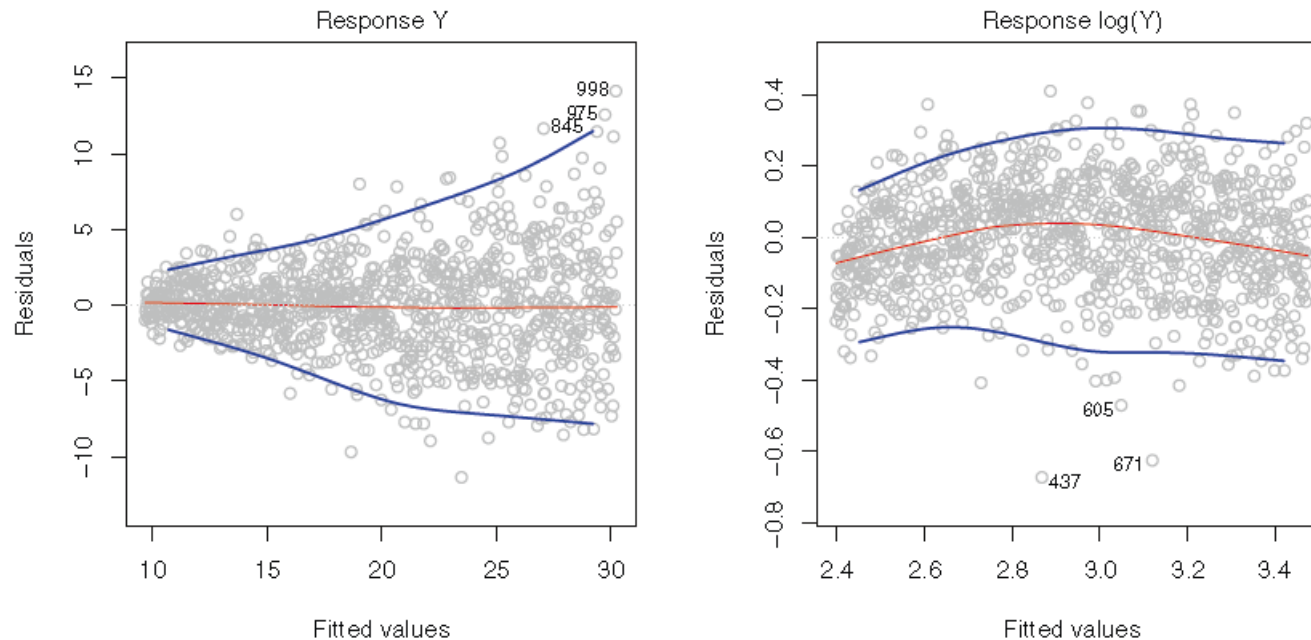


FIGURE 3.11. Residual plots. In each plot, the red line is a smooth fit to the residuals, intended to make it easier to identify a trend. The blue lines track the outer quantiles of the residuals, and emphasize patterns. Left: The funnel shape indicates heteroscedasticity. Right: The predictor has been log-transformed, and there is now no evidence of heteroscedasticity.

Rezidua „nerovnoměrně“ - nelinearita

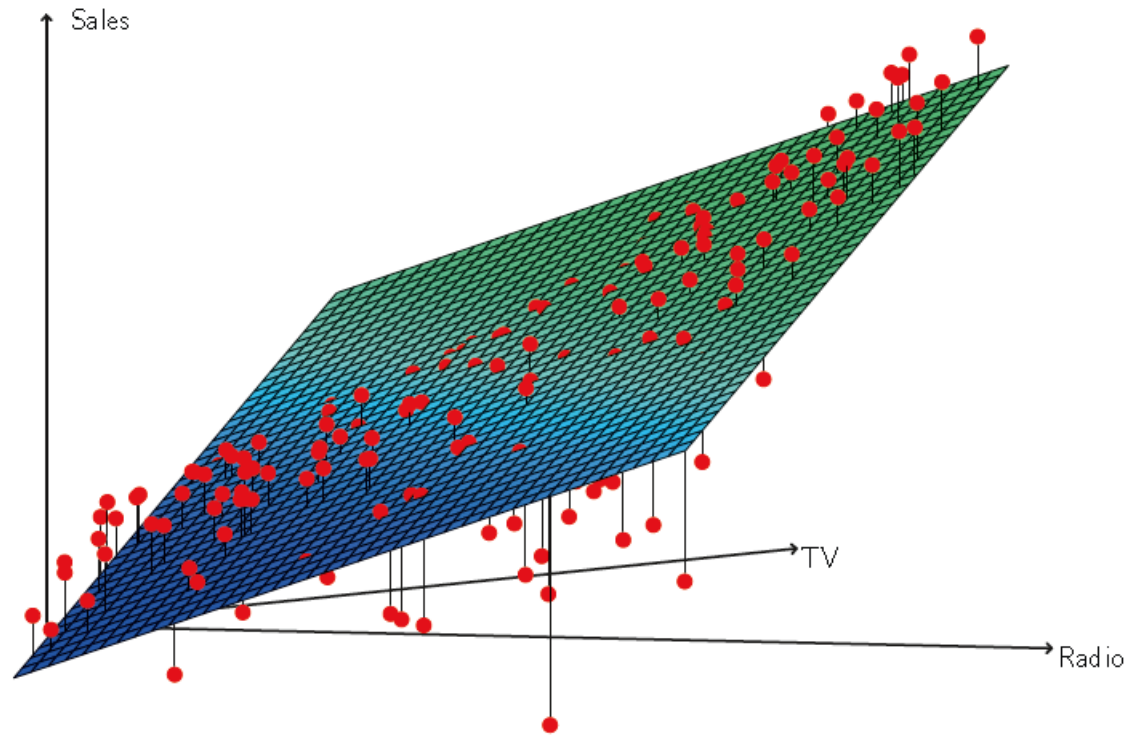
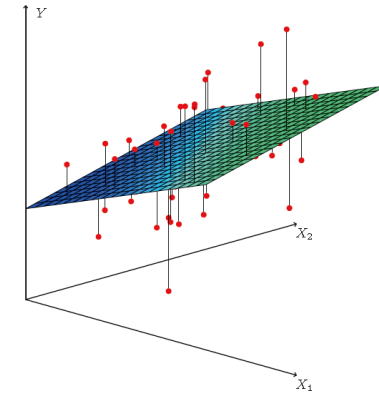


FIGURE 3.5. For the Advertising data, a linear regression fit to sales using TV and radio as predictors. From the pattern of the residuals, we can see that there is a pronounced non-linear relationship in the data.

Vícerozměrná lineární regre



- Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon$$

$$\text{sales} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{TV} + \beta_2 \times \text{radio} + \beta_3 \times \text{newspaper} + \epsilon.$$

- p – počet vstupních proměnných
- minimalizací RSS dostaneme koeficienty $\tilde{\beta}$.

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	2.939	0.3119	9.42	< 0.0001
TV	0.046	0.0014	32.81	< 0.0001
radio	0.189	0.0086	21.89	< 0.0001
newspaper	-0.001	0.0059	-0.18	0.8599

- jednorozměrná:

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	12.351	0.621	19.88	< 0.0001
newspaper	0.055	0.017	3.30	< 0.0001

- Je inzerce v novinách (dle modelu) důležitá?

Kolinearita v extrémě vede k neinvertibilitě

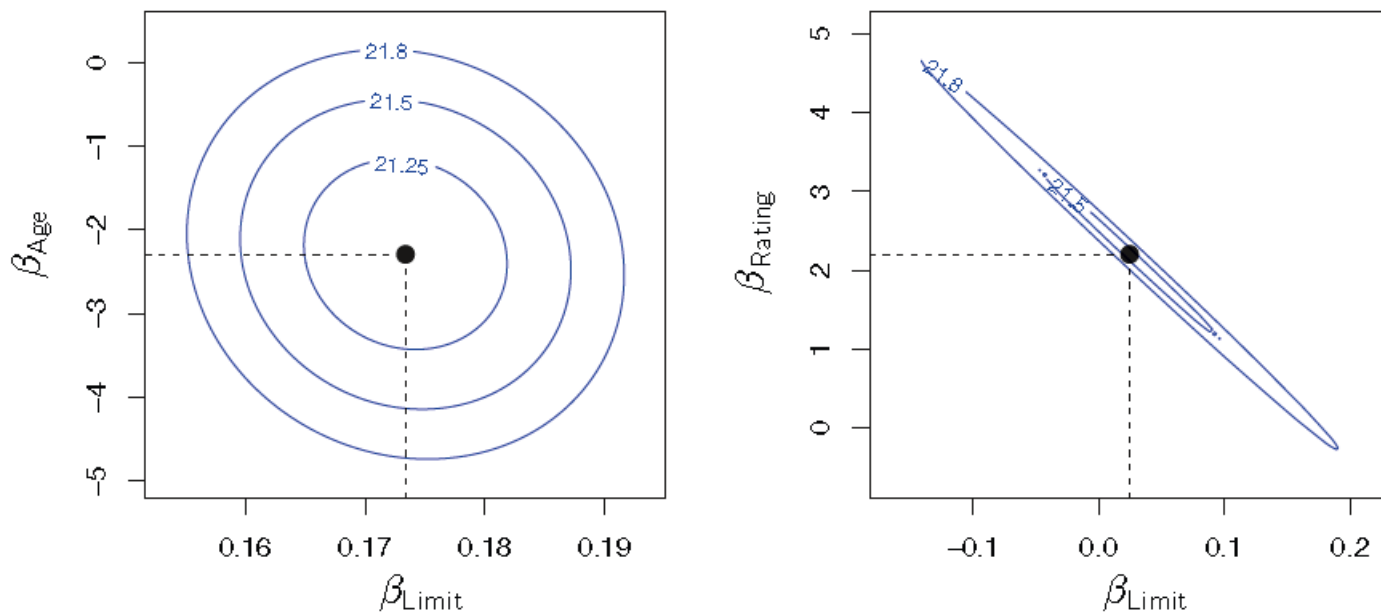


FIGURE 3.15. Contour plots for the β for various regressions involving t dots represent the coefficient values. A contour plot of RSS for the regression of **balance** onto **rating** and **limit**. The minimum value is well defined. Right plot shows contours for a regression of **balance** onto **rating** and **limit**. The contours are elongated and the minimum is poorly defined due to collinearity.

		Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Model 1	Intercept	-173.411	43.828	-3.957	< 0.0001
	age	-2.292	0.672	-3.407	0.0007
	limit	0.173	0.005	34.496	< 0.0001
Model 2	Intercept	-377.537	45.254	-8.343	< 0.0001
	rating	2.202	0.952	2.312	0.0213
	limit	0.025	0.064	0.384	0.7012

TABLE 3.11. The results for two multiple regression models involving the **Credit** data set are shown. Model 1 is a regression of **balance** on **age** and **limit**, and Model 2 a regression of **balance** on **rating** and **limit**. The standard error of $\hat{\beta}_{\text{limit}}$ increases 12-fold in the second regression, due to collinearity.

$$VIF(\hat{\beta}_j) = \frac{1}{1 - R_{X_j|X_{-j}}^2}$$

Kvalitativní (diskrétní) proměnné

- Kódujeme 0/1, vícehodnotové pro každou(-1) hodnotu zvlášť.
- Př. národnost

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th person is Asian} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_2 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th person is Caucasian} \\ \beta_0 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th person is African American} \end{cases}$$

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	531.00	46.32	11.464	< 0.0001
ethnicity[Asian]	-18.69	65.02	-0.287	0.7740
ethnicity[Caucasian]	-12.50	56.68	-0.221	0.8260

TABLE 3.8. Least squares coefficient estimates associated with the regression of **balance** onto **ethnicity** in the **Credit** data set. The linear model is given in (3.30). That is, **ethnicity** is encoded via two dummy variables (3.28) and (3.29).

Různý sklon pro třídy LR nezjistí

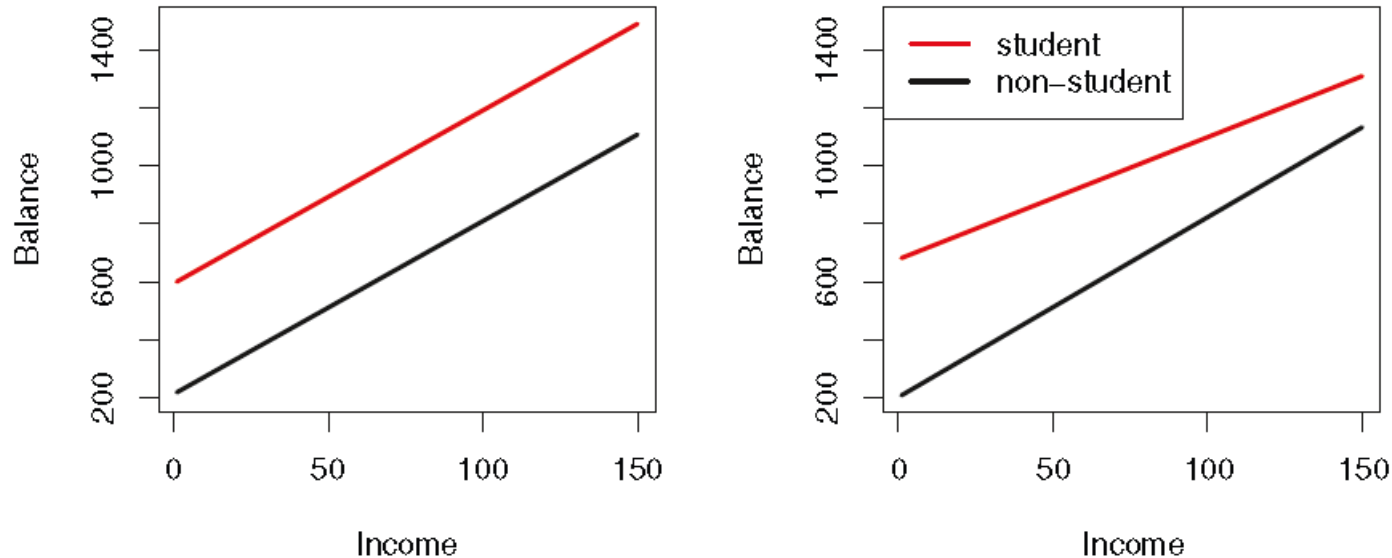


FIGURE 3.7. For the **Credit** data, the least squares lines are shown for prediction of **balance** from **income** for students and non-students. Left: The model (3.34) was fit. There is no interaction between **income** and **student**. Right: The model (3.35) was fit. There is an interaction term between **income** and **student**.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{balance}_i &\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_2 & \text{if } i\text{th person is a student} \\ 0 & \text{if } i\text{th person is not a student} \end{cases} \\
 &= \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_2 & \text{if } i\text{th person is a student} \\ \beta_0 & \text{if } i\text{th person is not a student.} \end{cases} \\
 \text{balance}_i &\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_2 + \beta_3 \times \text{income}_i & \text{if student} \\ 0 & \text{if not student} \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

Outliers (odlehlá pozorování)

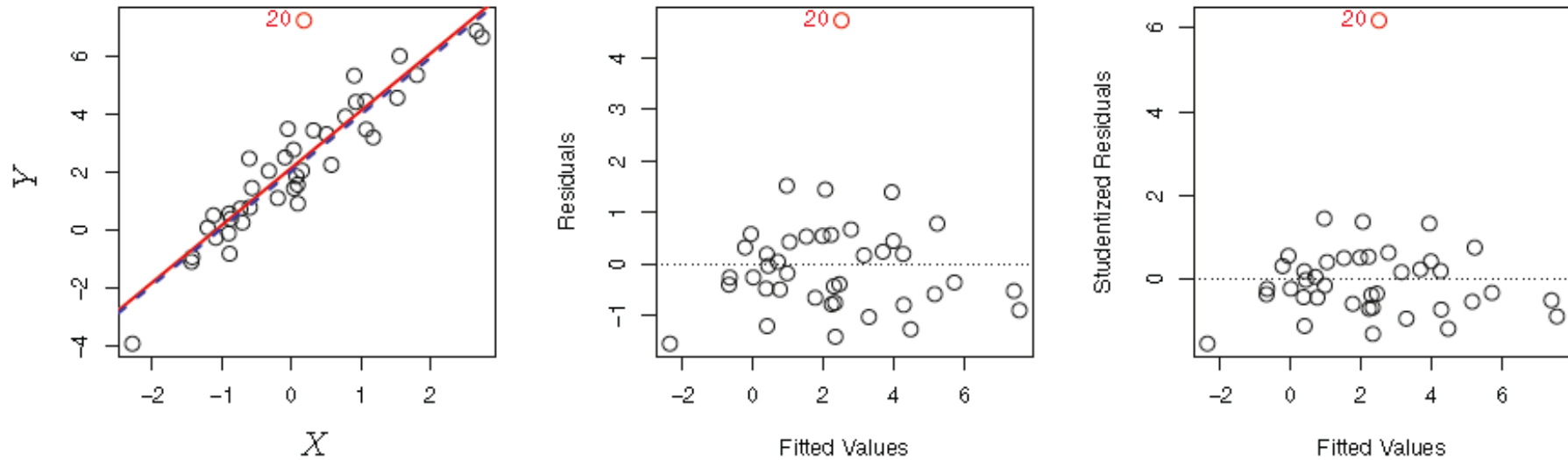


FIGURE 3.12. Left: The least squares regression line is shown in red, and the regression line after removing the outlier is shown in blue. Center: The residual plot clearly identifies the outlier. Right: The outlier has a studentized residual of 6; typically we expect values between -3 and 3 .

- Chyba v datech nebo chybějící prediktor?

High leverage – vzdálená X

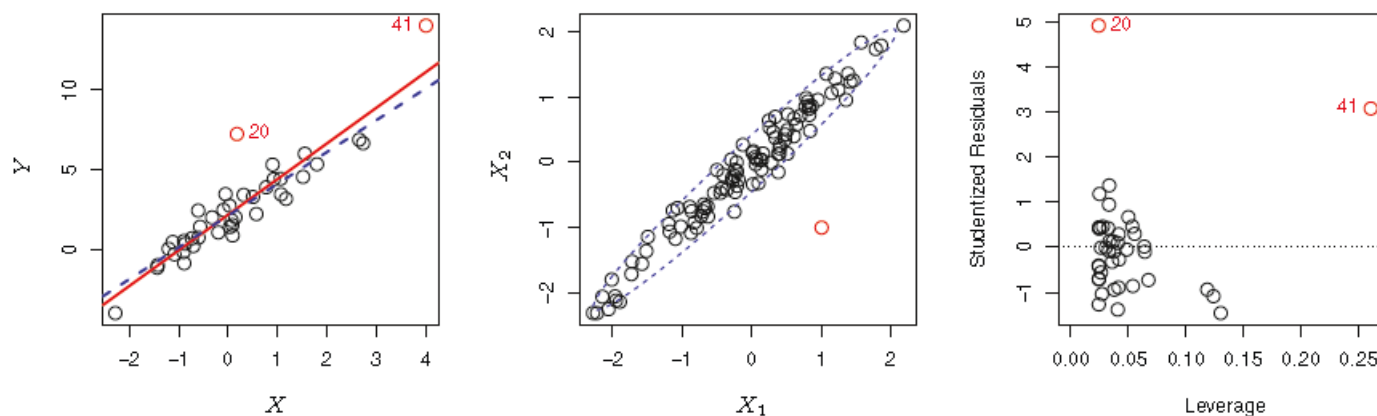


FIGURE 3.13. Left: Observation 41 is a high leverage point, while 20 is not. The red line is the fit to all the data, and the blue line is the fit with observation 41 removed. Center: The red observation is not unusual in terms of its X_1 value or its X_2 value, but still falls outside the bulk of the data, and hence has high leverage. Right: Observation 41 has a high leverage and a high residual.

- leverage statistics: diagonála $H = X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$.

- Jednorozměrně:

$$h_i = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{j'=1}^n (x_{j'} - \bar{x})^2}$$

Why Linear Model Regularization?

- Linear models are simple, BUT
- consider $p \gg N$,
 - we have more features than data records
 - we can (often) learn model with 0 training error
 - even for independent features!
 - it is overfitted model.
- Less features in the model may lead to smaller test error.
- We add constraints or a penalty on coefficients.
- Model with fewer features is more interpretable!¹¹

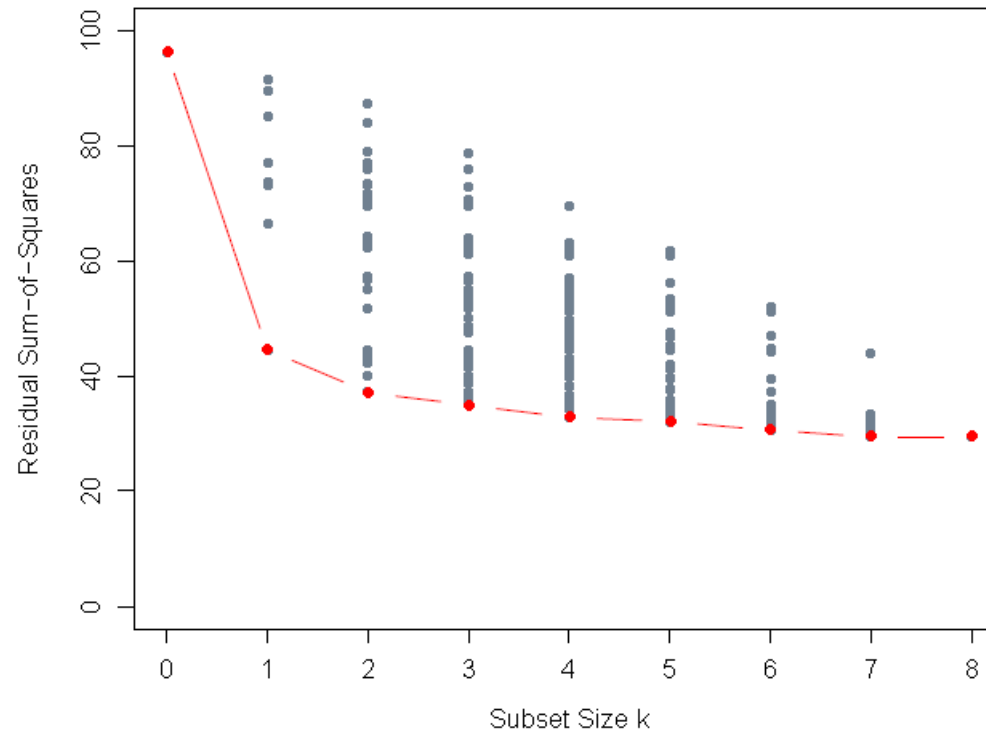
Selection, Regularization Methods

- **Subset Selection**
 - evaluate all subsets and select the best model (CV)
- **Shrinkage (regularization):**
 - a penalty on coefficients size shrinks them towards zero
- **Dimension Reduction:**
 - from p dimension select M -dimensional subspace, $M < p$.
 - fit a linear model in this M -dim. subspace.

Best Subset Selection

- Null model \mathcal{M}_0 predicts $\hat{f}(x) = \bar{y}$
- for(k in 1:p)
 - fit $\binom{p}{k}$ models with exactly k predictors
 - select the one with smallest RSS, or equiv. largest R^2
 - denote it \mathcal{M}_k
- Select a single best model from among $\mathcal{M}_0, \dots, \mathcal{M}_p$ using crossvalidation, AIC, BIC or adjusted R^2 .

Best Subset Selection



- tractable up to $p=30,40$.
- Similarly, for logistic regression
 - with deviance as error measure instead of RSS,
 - again, CV for model 'size' selection.

Forward Stepwise Selection

- Null model \mathcal{M}_0 predicts $\hat{f}(x) = \bar{y}$
- for(k in 0:(p-1))
 - consider (p-k) adding one predictor to \mathcal{M}_k
 - select the one with smallest RSS, or equiv. largest R^2
 - denote it \mathcal{M}_{k+1}
-
- Select a single best model from among $\mathcal{M}_0, \dots, \mathcal{M}_p$
- using crossvalidation, AIC, BIC or adjusted R^2 .

Backward Stepwise Selection

- Full model \mathcal{M}_p with p predictors (standard LR).
- for(k in $(p-1):0$)
 - consider $(k+1)$ models removing one predictor from \mathcal{M}_{k+1}
 - select the one with smallest RSS, or equiv. largest R^2
 - denote it \mathcal{M}_k
-
- Select a single best model from among $\mathcal{M}_0, \dots, \mathcal{M}_p$
- using crossvalidation, AIC, BIC or adjusted R^2 .

Hybrid Approaches

- go Forward, any time try to eliminate useless predictor.
- Each algorithm may provide different subset for a given size k (except 0 and p ;-)
- None of these has to be optimal with respect to mean test error.

Choosing the Optimal Model

- Two main approaches:
- Analytical criteria, adjustment to the training error to reduce overfitting ('penalty')
 - should not be used for $p \gg N$!
- Direct estimate of test error, either
 - validation set
 - or cross-validation approach.

Analytical Criteria

- Mallow 'in sample error estimate'

$$C_p = \frac{1}{n} (\text{RSS} + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

- Akaike: (more general, proportional to C_p here)

$$\text{AIC} = \frac{1}{n\hat{\sigma}^2} (\text{RSS} + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

- Bayesian Information Criterion:

$$\text{BIC} = \frac{1}{n} (\text{RSS} + \log(n)d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

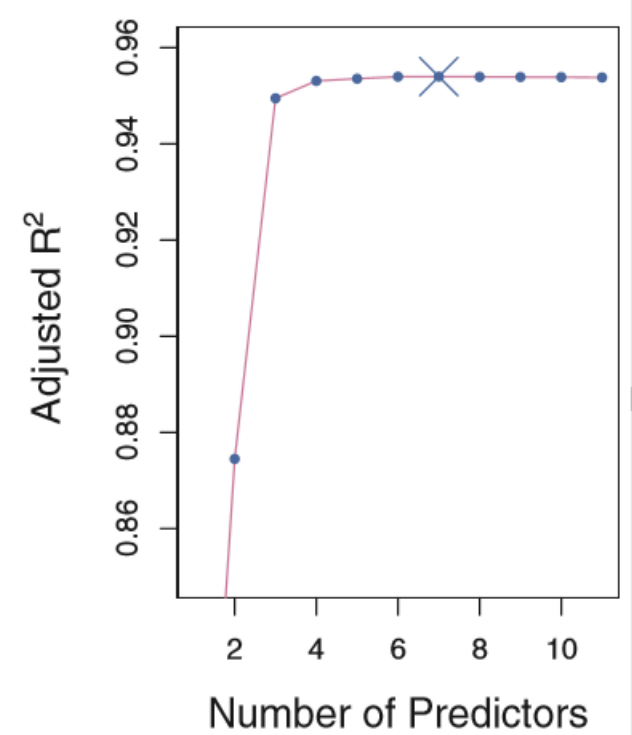
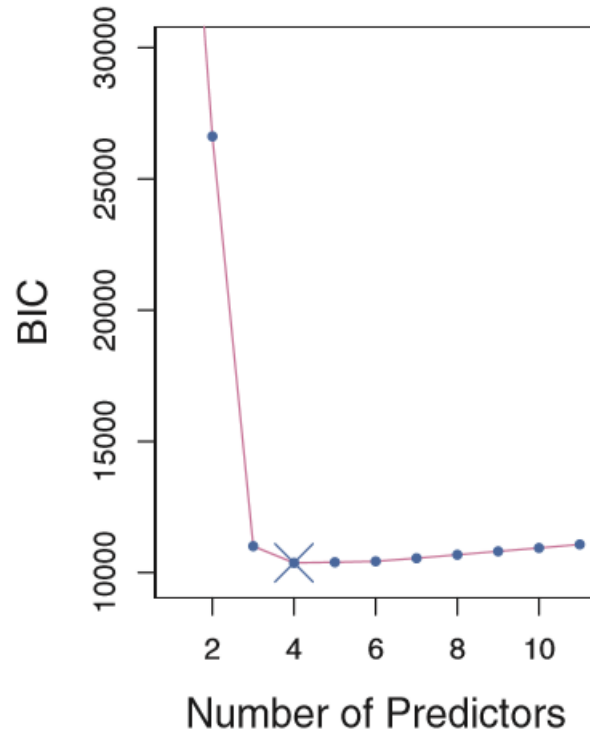
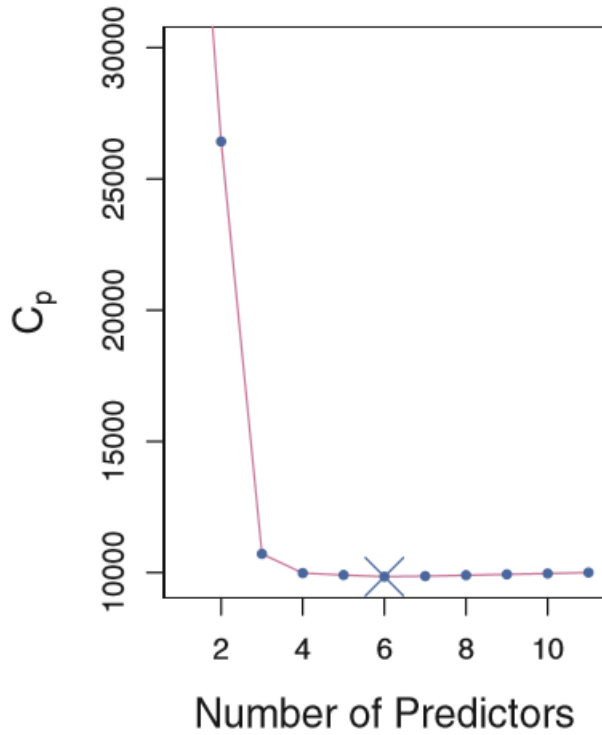
- Adjusted R^2 :

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}/(n-d-1)}{\text{TSS}/(n-1)}$$

equiv. minimize $\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-d-1}$

$$\text{TSS} = \sum (y_i - \bar{y}_i)^2$$

Example

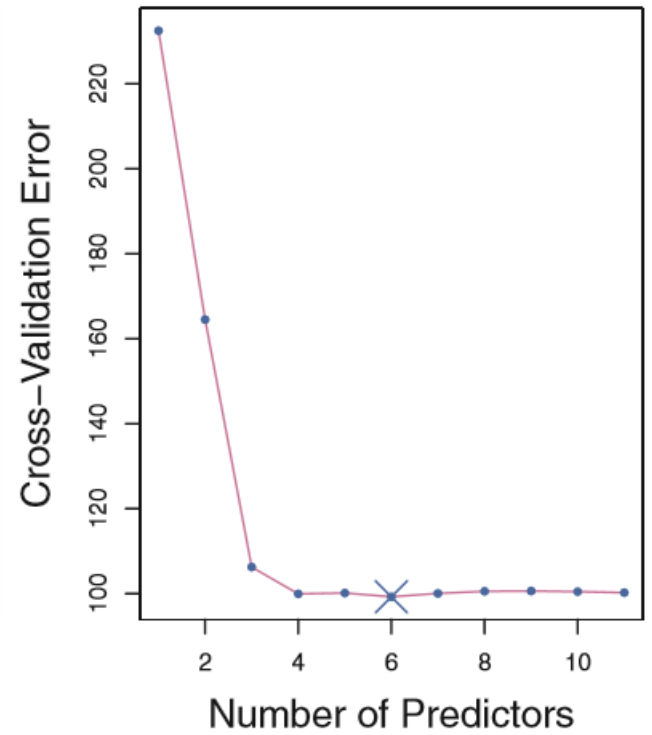
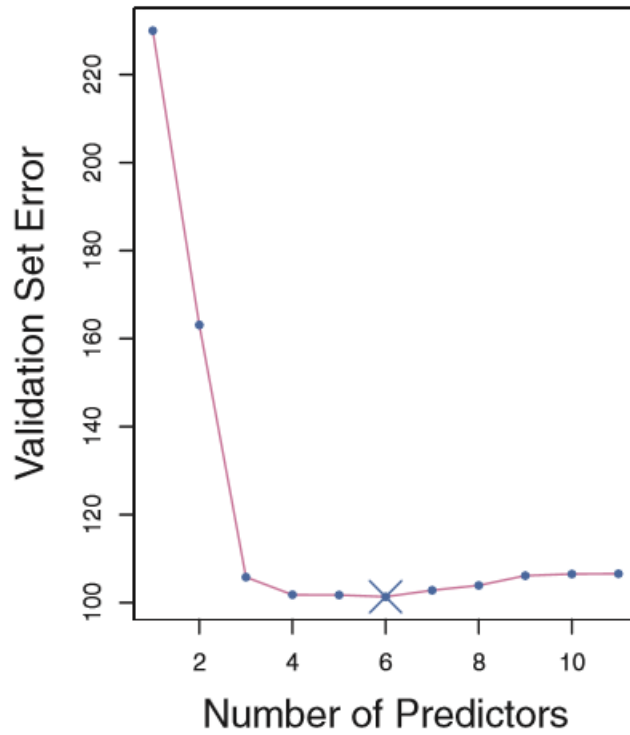
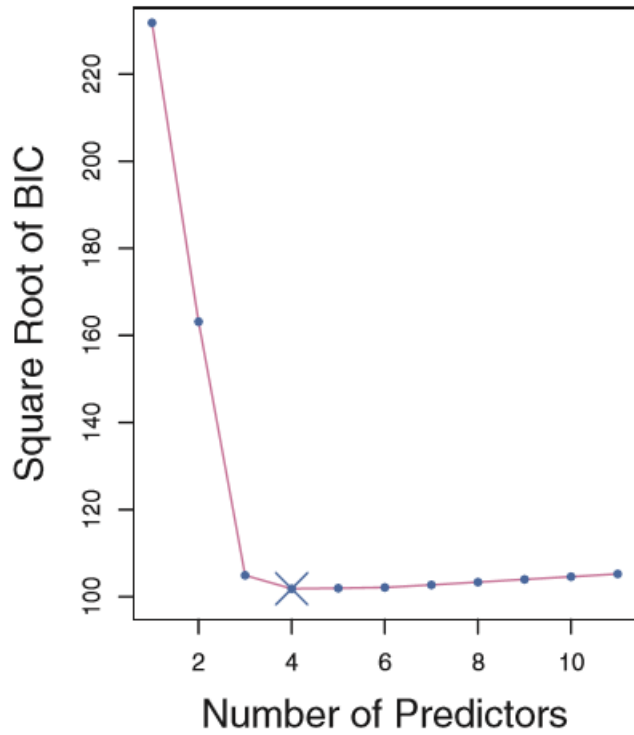


Validation and Cross-Validation

- **Validation**: at the beginning,
 - exclude 1/4 of data samples from training
 - use them for error estimation for model selection.
- **Cross-Validation**: at the beginning,
 - split data records into $k=10$ folds,
 - for k in 1:10
 - hide k -th fold for training
 - use it for error estimation for model selection.

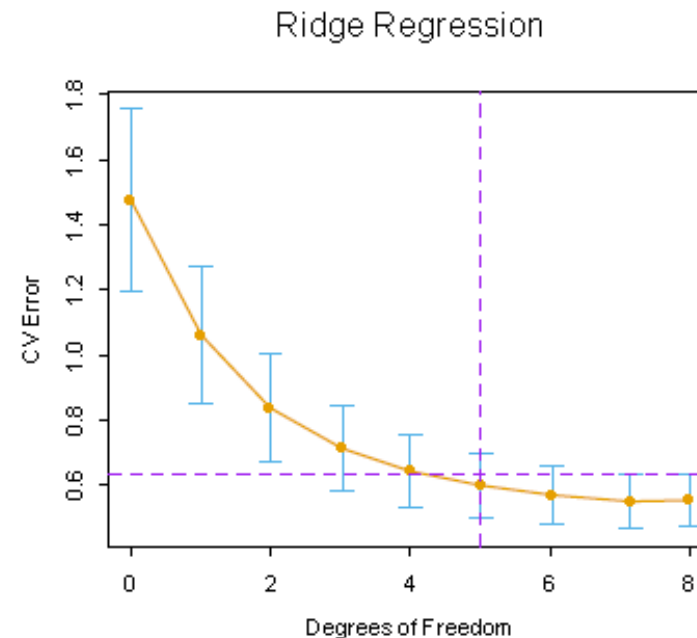
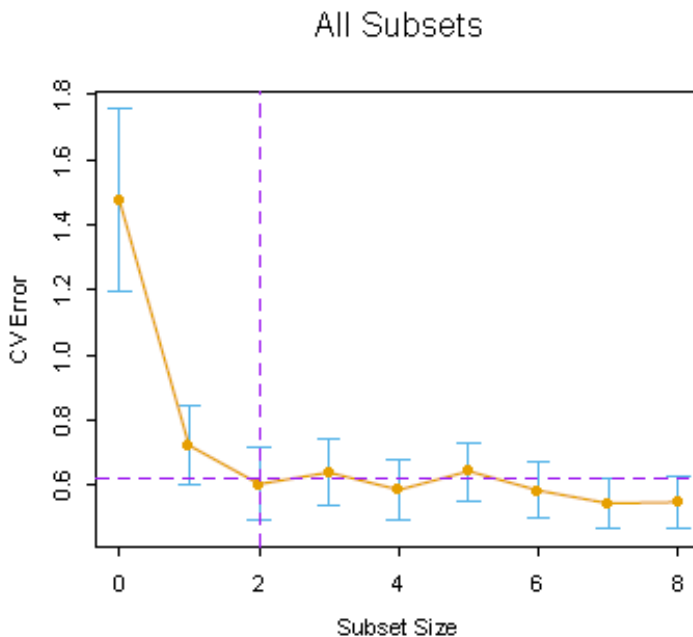
Note: different runs may provide different subsets of size 3_1

Example



One Standard Error Rule

- take the model size with the minimal CV error
- calculate 1 std. err. interval around this error,
- select the smallest model with error inside this interval.



Shrinkage Methods

- Penalty for non-zero model parameters,
- no penalty for intercept.

- Ridge:
$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \right\}.$$

- Lasso:

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \right\}.$$

Ridge

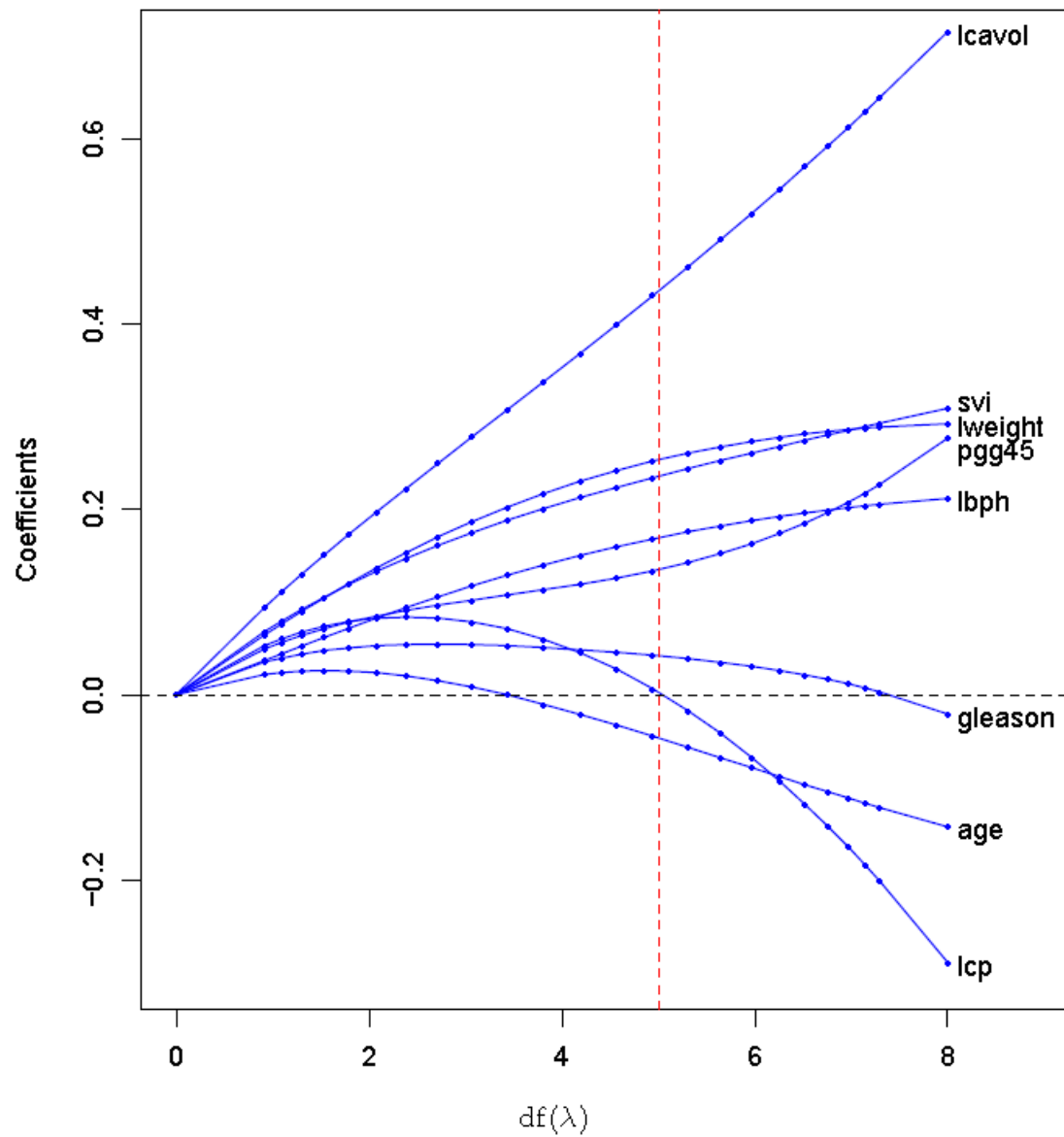
$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \right\}. \quad \lambda \geq 0$$

- Parameter lambda penalizes the sum of β^2 .
- β_0 intentionally excluded from the penalty.
- we can center features and fix:

$$\beta_0 \text{ by } \bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i.$$

- For centered features: $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$,
- for orthonormal features: $\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \hat{\beta} / (1 + \lambda)$.
- Dependent on scale: **standardization** usefull.

Ridge coef. - Cancer example



Lasso regression

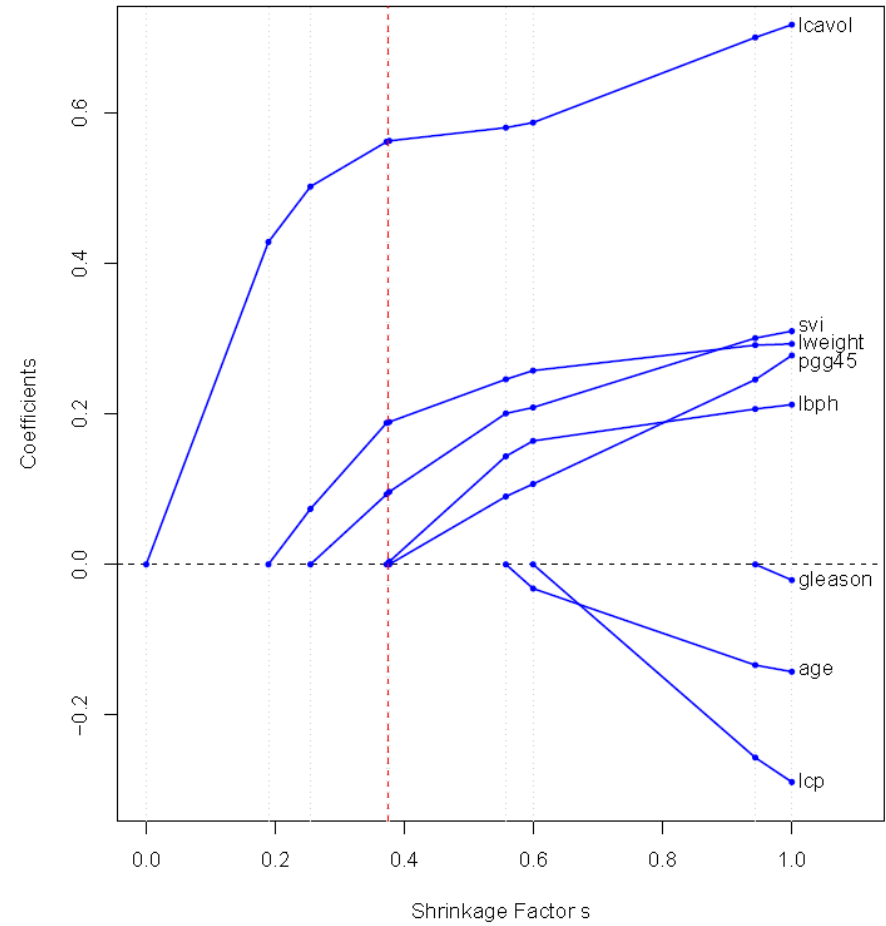
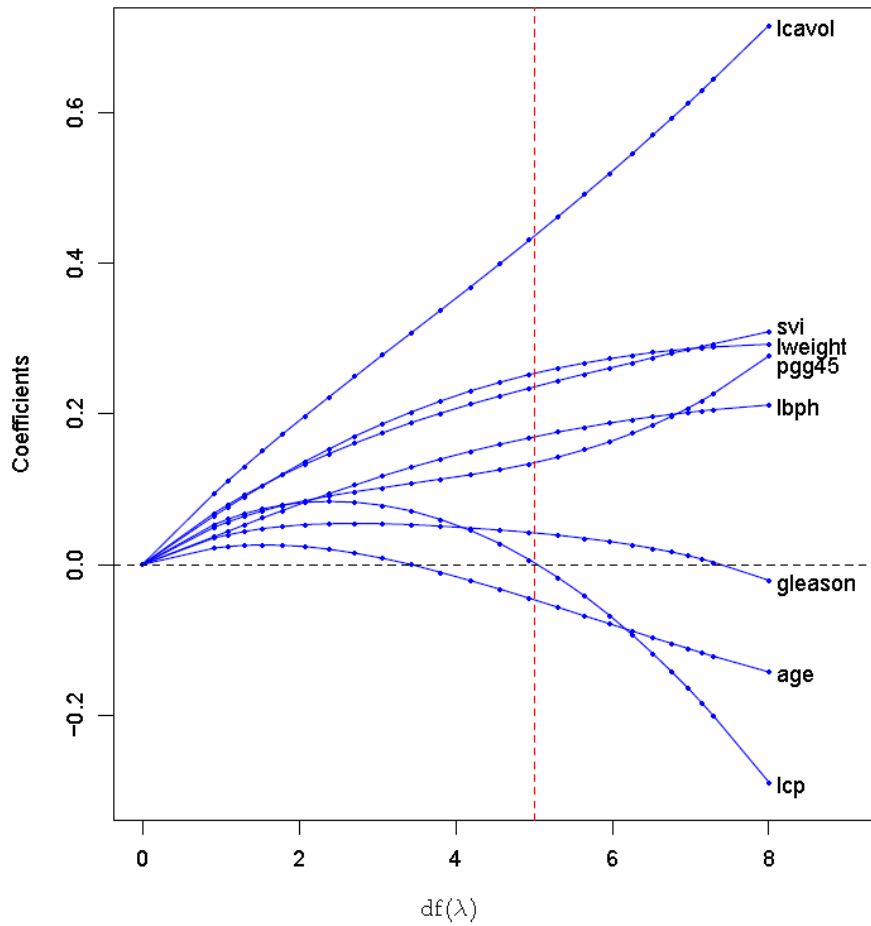
$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \right\}.$$

- the penalty is $\sum_1^p |\beta_j|$
- it forces some coefficients to be zero
- an equivalent specification:

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j \right)^2$$

subject to $\sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \leq t.$

Ridge x Lasso



Linear Models for Regression

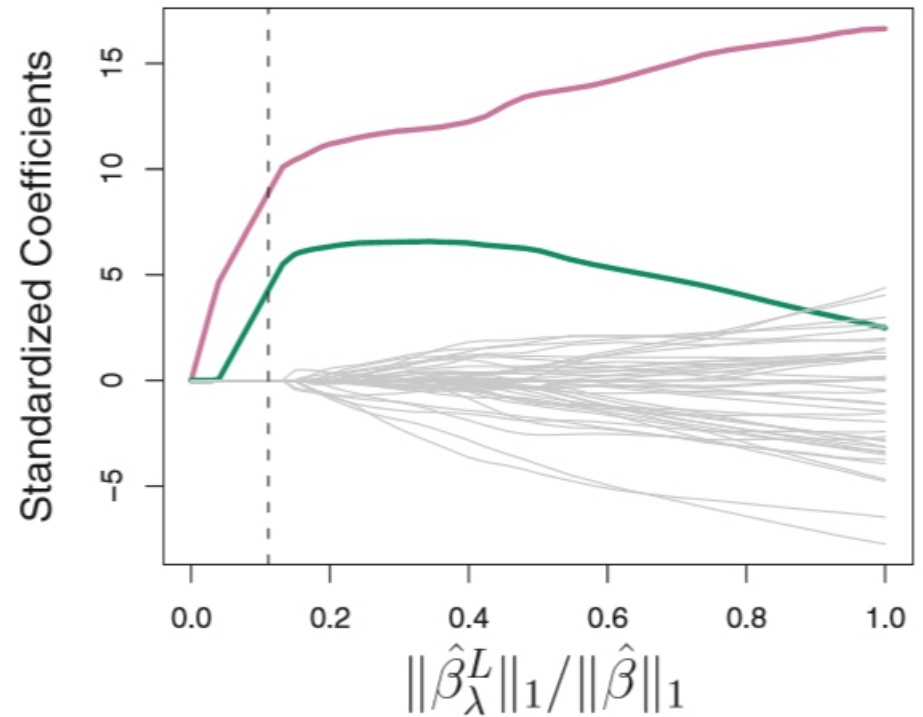
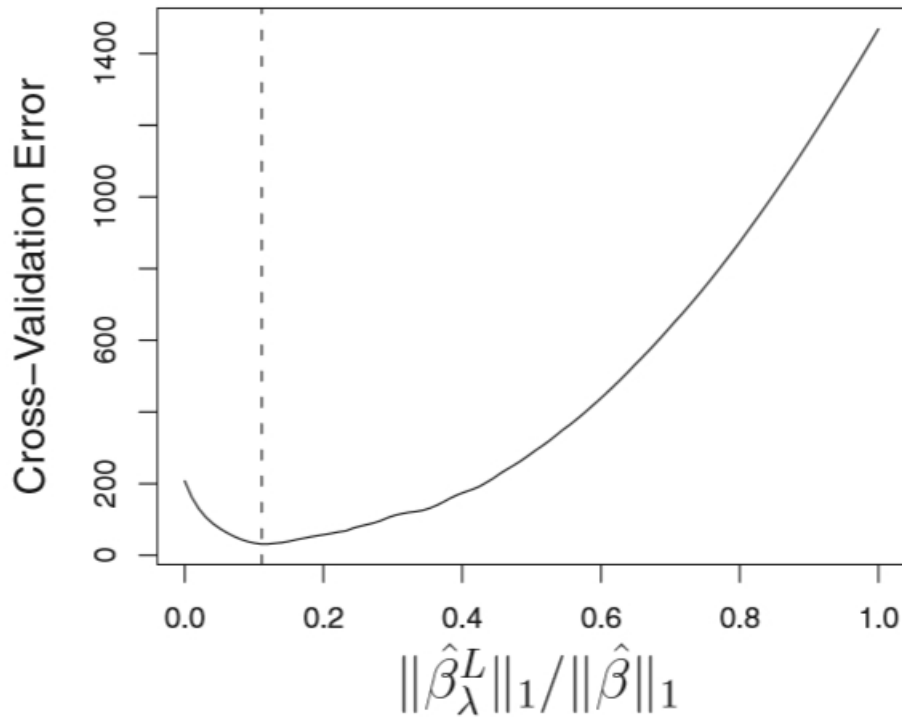
TABLE 3.3. *Estimated coefficients and test error results, for different subset and shrinkage methods applied to the prostate data. The blank entries correspond to variables omitted.*

Term	LS	Best Subset	Ridge	Lasso	PCR	PLS
Intercept	2.465	2.477	2.452	2.468	2.497	2.452
lcavol	0.680	0.740	0.420	0.533	0.543	0.419
lweight	0.263	0.316	0.238	0.169	0.289	0.344
age	-0.141		-0.046		-0.152	-0.026
lbph	0.210		0.162	0.002	0.214	0.220
svi	0.305		0.227	0.094	0.315	0.243
lcp	-0.288		0.000		-0.051	0.079
gleason	-0.021		0.040		0.232	0.011
pgg45	0.267		0.133		-0.056	0.084
Test Error	0.521	0.492	0.492	0.479	0.449	0.528
Std Error	0.179	0.143	0.165	0.164	0.105	0.152

- Ridge, Lasso – penalization
- PCR, PLS – coordinate system change + dimension selection

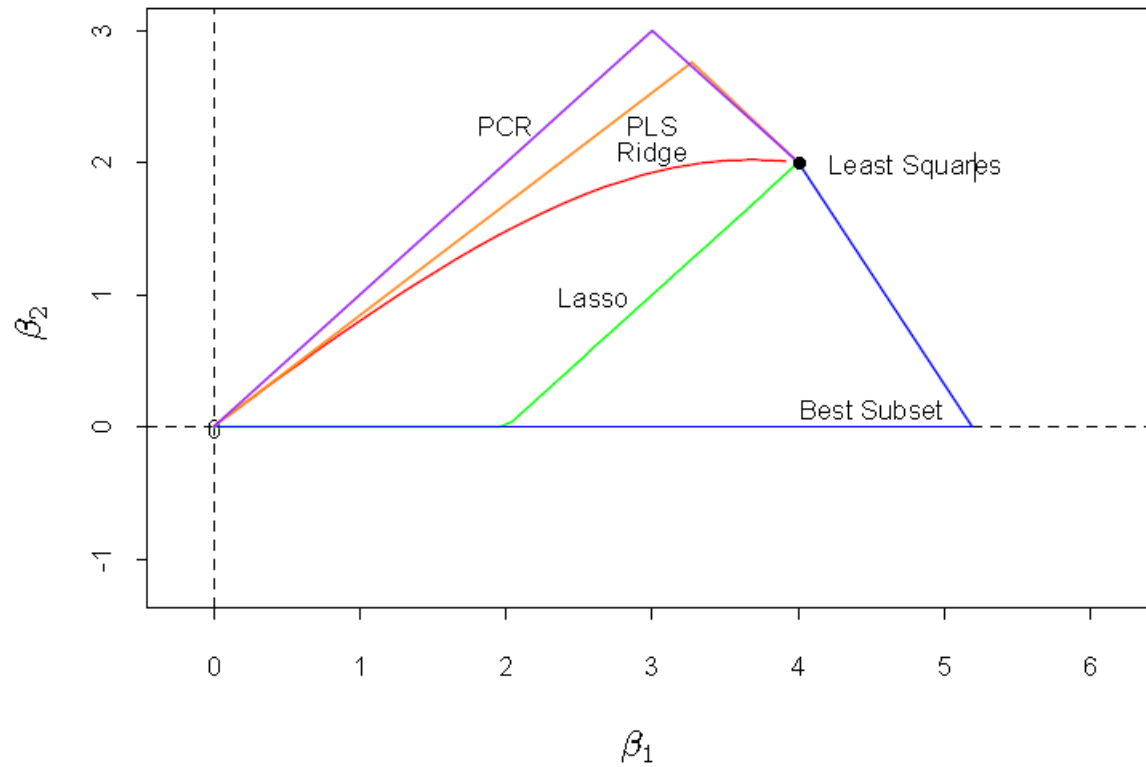
Example

- $p=45$, $n=50$, 2 predictors relate to output.

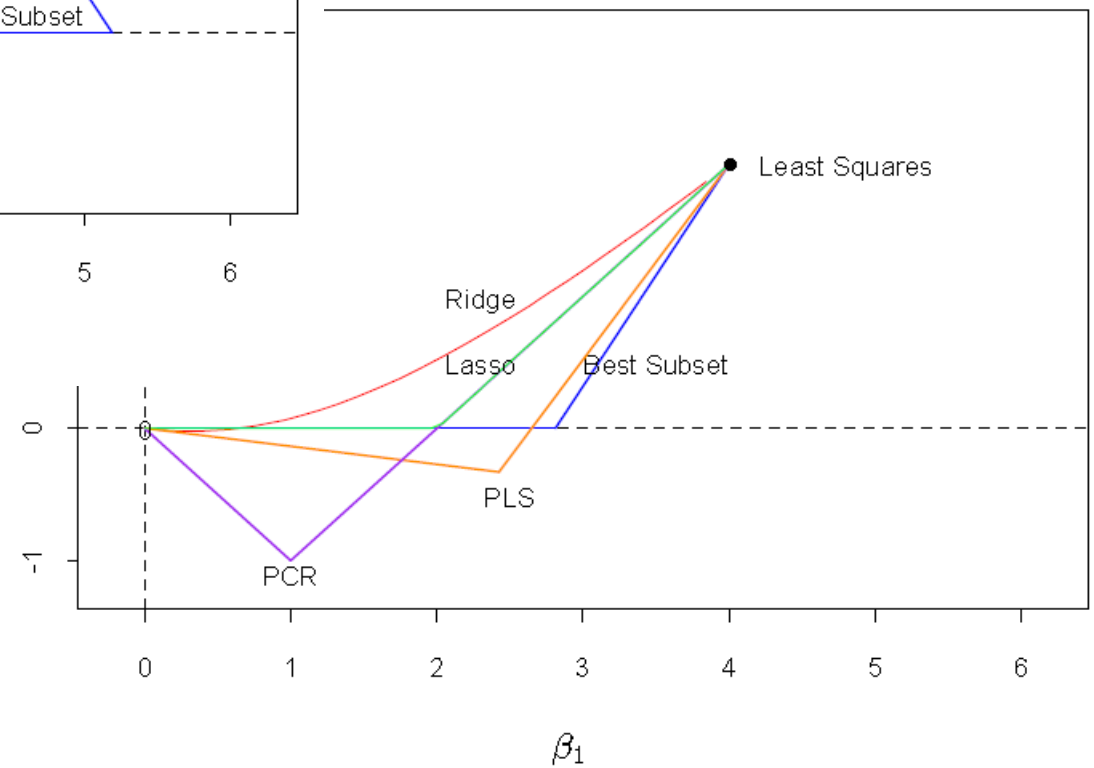


Corellated X, Parameter Shrinkage

$\rho = 0.5$



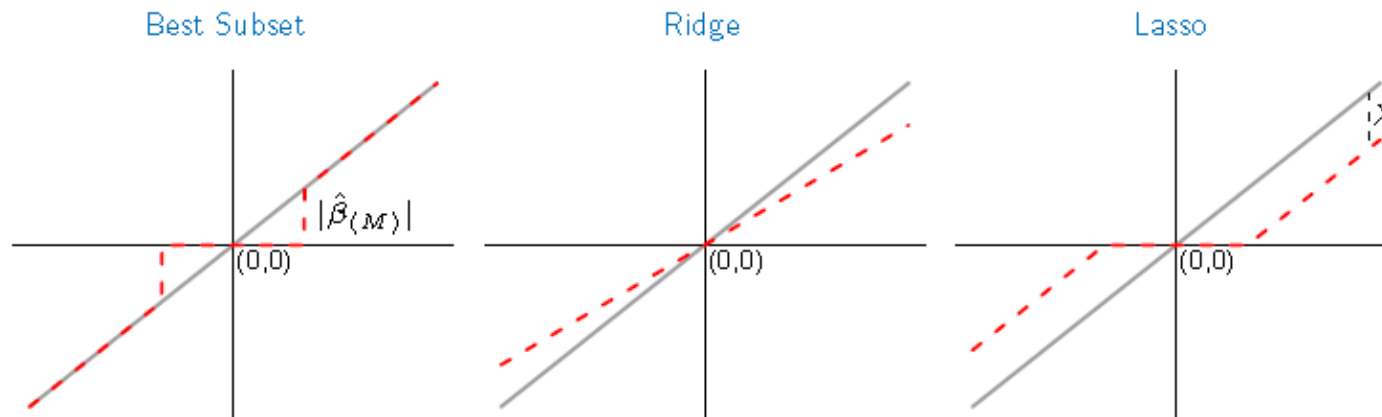
$\rho = -0.5$



Best subset, Ridge, Lasso

- Coefficient change for orthonormal features:

Estimator	Formula
Best subset (size M)	$\hat{\beta}_j \cdot I(\hat{\beta}_j \geq \hat{\beta}_{(M)})$
Ridge	$\hat{\beta}_j / (1 + \lambda)$
Lasso	$\text{sign}(\hat{\beta}_j)(\hat{\beta}_j - \lambda)_+$



PCR, PLS

- PCR **Principal component regression**
 - select direction corresponding to largest eigenvalues
 - for these directions, regression coeff. are fitted.
 - For size= p equivalent with linear regression.
- **Partial least squares** – considers Y for selection
 - calculates regression coefficients
 - weight features and calculate eigenvalues
 - select the first direction of PLS,
 - other direction similar, orthogonal to the first.

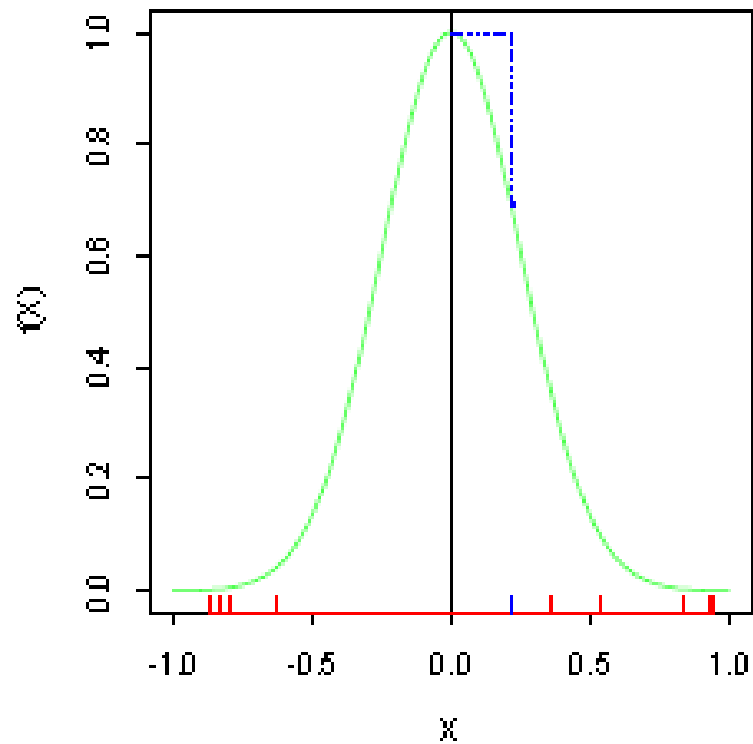
Bias-variance decomposition

$$\begin{aligned}\text{MSE}(x_0) &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}[f(x_0) - \hat{y}_0]^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}[\hat{y}_0 - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{y}_0)]^2 + [\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{y}_0) - f(x_0)]^2 \\ &= \text{Var}_{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{y}_0) + \text{Bias}^2(\hat{y}_0).\end{aligned}$$

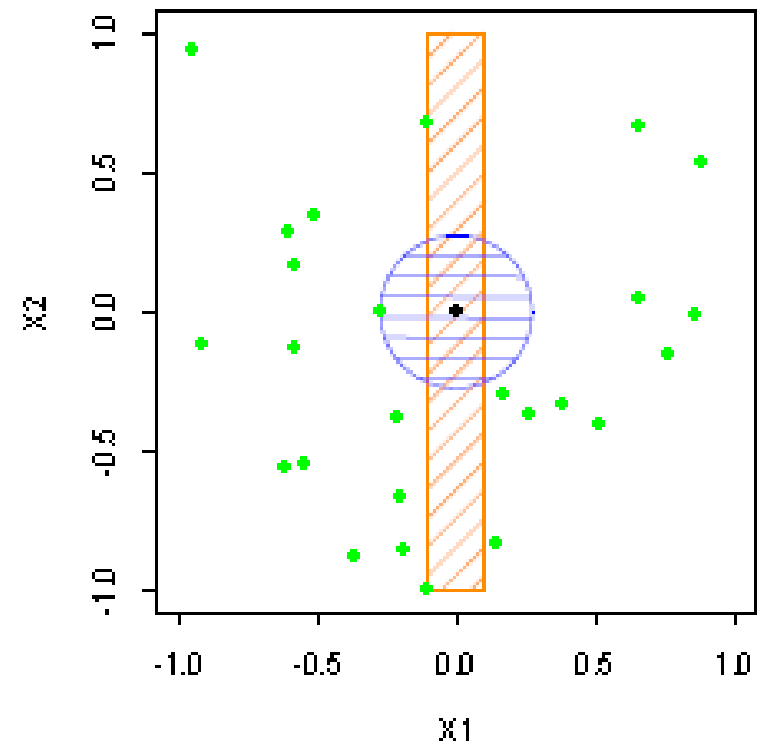
- Bias – 'systematic error',
 - usually caused by restricted model subspace
- Var – variance of the estimate
- we wish both to be zero.

Example of Bias

1-NN in One Dimension

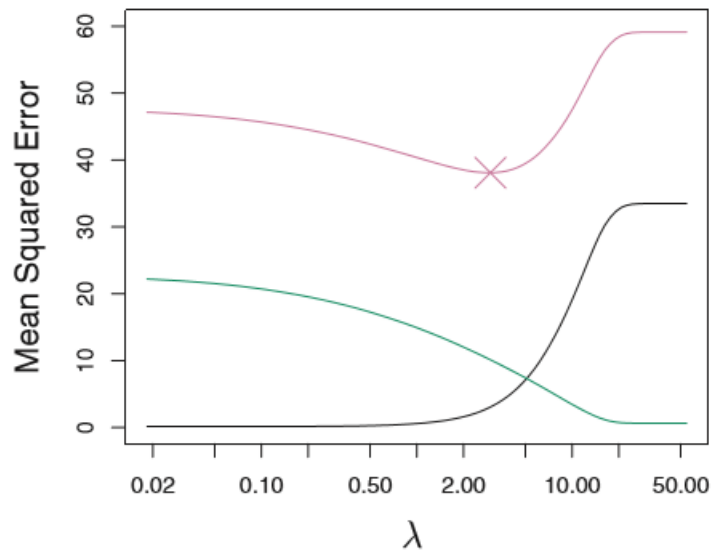


1-NN in One vs. Two Dimensions

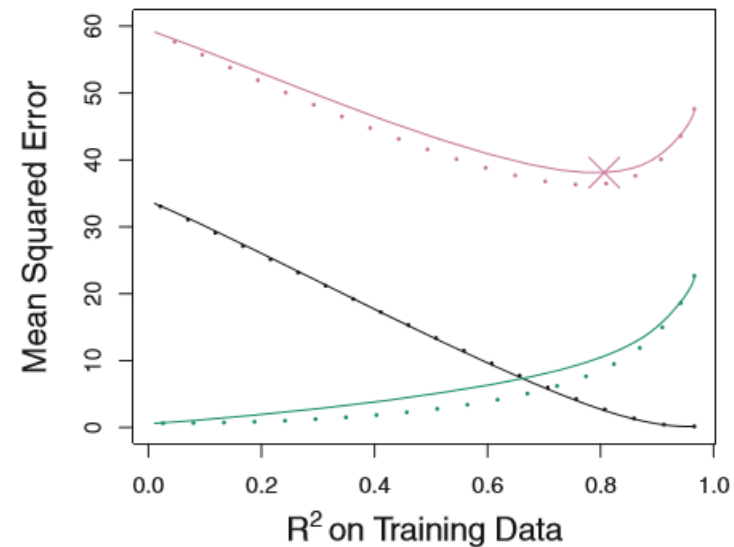


Example: Lasso, Ridge Regression

- red: MSE
- green: variance
- black: squared Bias

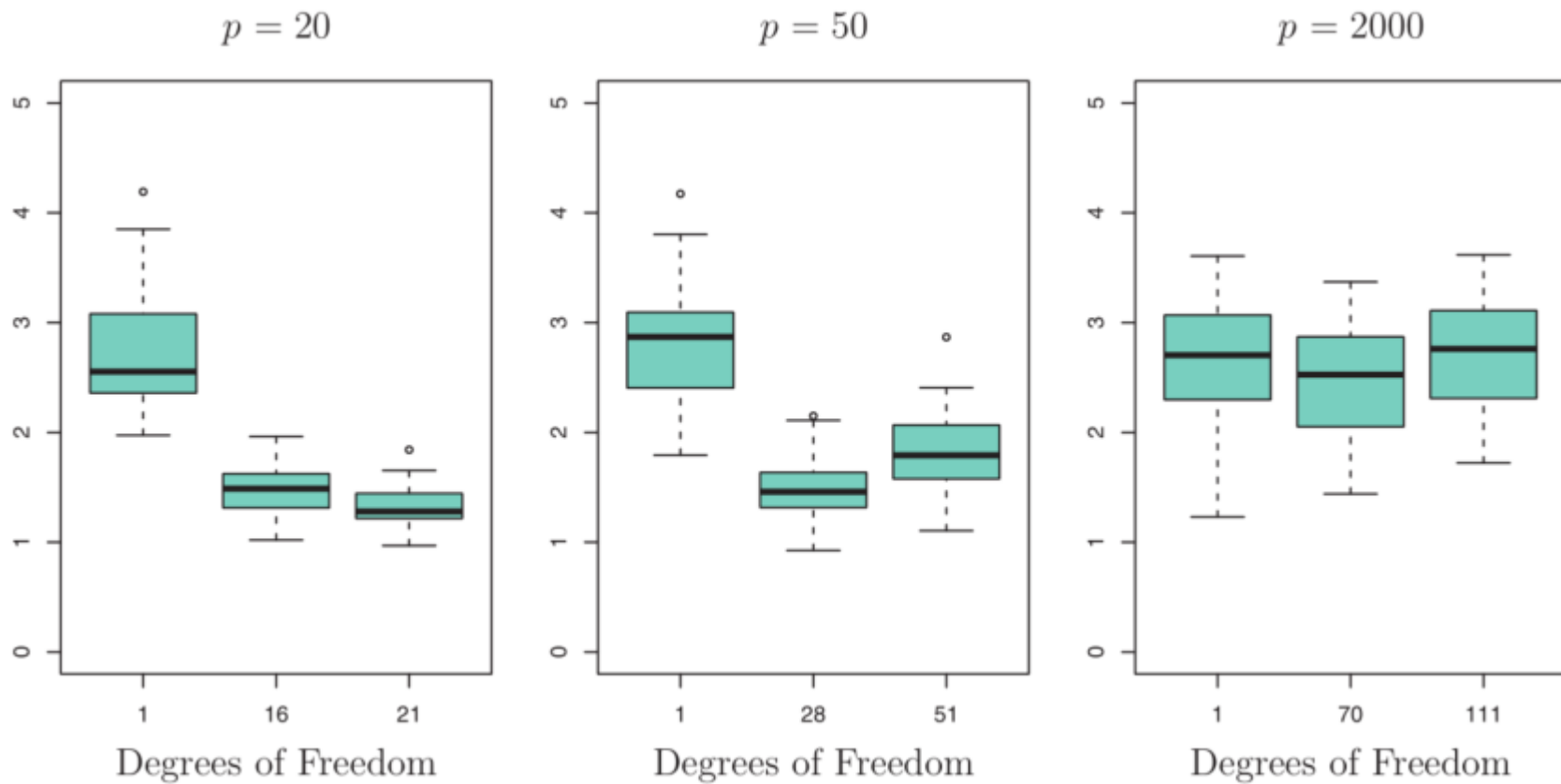


penalty



positive

MSE: 100 observations, p differs



Penalty ~ prior model probability

- Ridge
$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{ridge}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \right\}.$$

- we assume prior probability of parameters

- β_j independent, $N(0, \tau^2)$

$$y_i \sim N(\beta_0 + x_i^T \beta, \sigma^2)$$

$$\lambda \cong \sigma^2 / \tau^2$$

then Ridge is most likely estimate (posterior mode).

- Bayes formula
$$P(\beta | X) = \frac{P(X | \beta) \cdot P(\beta)}{P(X)}$$

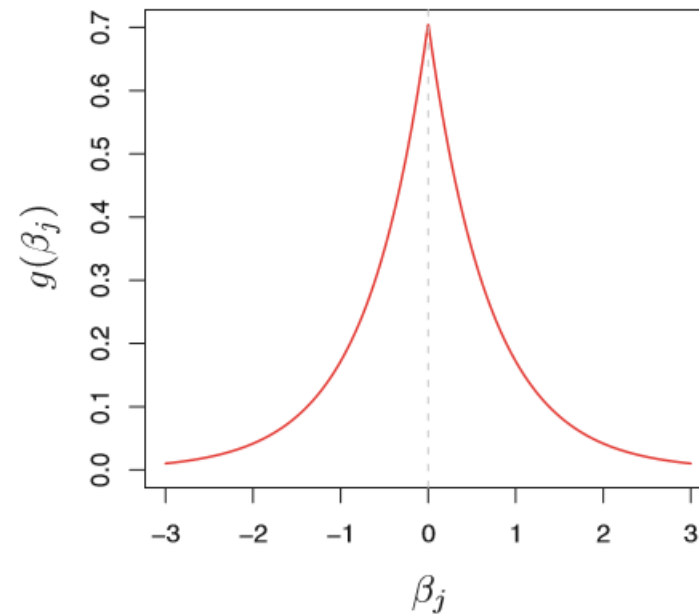
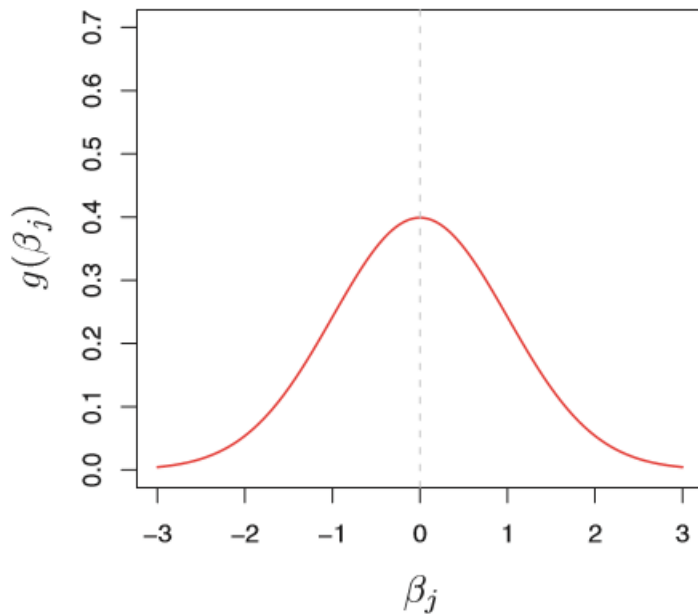
- $P(X)$ constant, $P(\beta)$ **prior probability**,

- $P(X | \beta)$ **likelihood**, $P(\beta | X)$ **posterior probability**.

Prior Probability Ridge, Lasso

- Ridge: Normal distribution
- Lasso: Laplace distribution

$$\frac{1}{2b} \exp\left(-\frac{|x - \mu|}{b}\right)$$



Principal Component Analysis PCA

sample covariance matrix is given by $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} / N$,

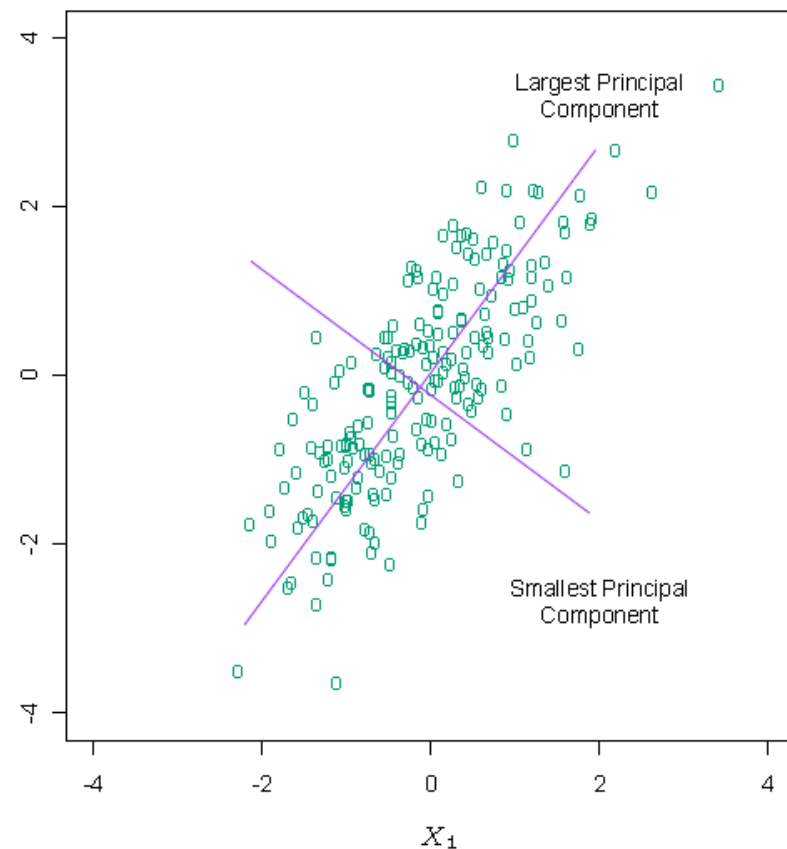
$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D}^2 \mathbf{V}^T,$$

eigenvectors v_j (columns of \mathbf{V})

principal components

directions of \mathbf{X} .

$$\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{X}v_1 = \mathbf{u}_1 d_1. \quad \text{Var}(\mathbf{z}_1) = \text{Var}(\mathbf{X}v_1) = \frac{d_1^2}{N},$$



(vlastní čísla, vlastní vektory)