### **Lecture** 005

### Shrinkage methods

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# Admin

# Admin

## Material

### Last time

- Linear regression
- Model selection
  - Best subset selection
  - Stepwise selection (forward/backward)

**Today** Shrinkage methods

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### Upcoming

### Readings

- Today ISL Ch. 6
- Next ISL 4

Problem sets Next: After we finish this set of notes

## Shrinkage methods

### Intro

Recap: Subset-selection methods (last time)

- 1. algorithmically search for the "best" subset of our p predictors
- 2. estimate the linear models via least squares

These methods assume we need to choose a model before we fit it...

Alternative approach: Shrinkage methods

- fit a model that contains all *p* predictors
- simultaneously: shrink<sup>†</sup> coefficients toward zero

*Idea*: Penalize the model for coefficients as they move away from zero.

**†** Synonyms for *shrink*: constrain or regularize

## Shrinkage methods

## Why?

Q How could shrinking coefficients twoard zero help or predictions?

A Remember we're generally facing a tradeoff between bias and variance.

- Shrinking our coefficients toward zero **reduces the model's variance**.<sup>+</sup>
- **Penalizing** our model for **larger coefficients** shrinks them toward zero.
- The **optimal penalty** will balance reduced variance with increased bias.

Now you understand shrinkage methods.

- Ridge regression
- Lasso
- Elasticnet

† Imagine the extreme case: a model whose coefficients are all zeros has no variance.

## Back to least squares (again)

Recall Least-squares regression gets  $\hat{\beta}_j$ 's by minimizing RSS, *i.e.*,

$$\min_{\hat{eta}} \mathrm{RSS} = \min_{\hat{eta}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2 = \min_{\hat{eta}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \underbrace{\left[ \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_{i,1} + \dots + \hat{eta}_p x_{i,p} 
ight]}_{= \hat{y}_i} 
ight)^2$$

Ridge regression makes a small change

- adds a shrinkage penalty = the sum of squared coefficients  $\left(\lambda \sum_{j} \beta_{j}^{2}\right)$
- minimizes the (weighted) sum of RSS and the shrinkage penalty

$$\min_{\hat{eta}^R} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( {y_i - \hat{y}_i } 
ight)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j^2$$

**Ridge regression** 

Least squares

$$\min_{\hat{eta}^R} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( egin{matrix} y_i - \hat{y}_i \end{pmatrix}^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j^2$$

$$\min_{\hat{eta}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i - \hat{y}_i 
ight)^2$$

 $\lambda \ (\geq 0)$  is a tuning parameter for the harshness of the penalty.  $\lambda = 0$  implies no penalty: we are back to least squares. Each value of  $\lambda$  produces a new set of coefficients.

Ridge's approach to the bias-variance tradeoff: Balance

- reducing **RSS**, *i.e.*,  $\sum_{i} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$
- reducing **coefficients** (ignoring the intercept)

 $\lambda$  determines how much ridge "cares about" these two quantities.<sup>+</sup>

† With  $\lambda=0$ , least-squares regression only "cares about" RSS.

## $\lambda$ and penalization

Choosing a *good* value for  $\lambda$  is key.

- If  $\lambda$  is too small, then our model is essentially back to OLS.
- If  $\lambda$  is too large, then we shrink all of our coefficients too close to zero.

Q So what do we do?

A Cross validate!

(You saw that coming, right?)

## Penalization

*Note* Because we sum the **squared** coefficients, we penalize increasing *big* coefficients much more than increasing *small* coefficients.

*Example* For a value of  $\beta$ , we pay a penalty of  $2\lambda\beta$  for a small increase.<sup>†</sup>

- At  $\beta = 0$ , the penalty for a small increase is 0.
- At eta=1, the penalty for a small increase is  $2\lambda$ .
- At eta=2, the penalty for a small increase is  $4\lambda$ .
- At  $\beta = 3$ , the penalty for a small increase is  $6\lambda$ .
- At  $\beta = 10$ , the penalty for a small increase is  $20\lambda$ .

Now you see why we call it *shrinkage*: it encourages small coefficients.

<sup>†</sup> This quantity comes from taking the derivative of  $\lambda\beta^2$  with respect to  $\beta$ .

## Penalization and standardization

Important Predictors' units can drastically affect ridge regression results.

**Why?** Because  $\mathbf{x}_j$ 's units affect  $\beta_j$ , and ridge is very sensitive to  $\beta_j$ .

Example Let  $x_1$  denote distance.

#### Least-squares regression

If  $x_1$  is *meters* and  $\beta_1 = 3$ , then when  $x_1$  is km,  $\beta_1 = 3,000$ . The scale/units of predictors do not affect least squares' estimates.

**Ridge regression** pays a much larger penalty for  $\beta_1 = 3,000$  than  $\beta_1 = 3$ . You will not get the same (scaled) estimates when you change units.

Solution Standardize your variables, *i.e.*, x\_stnd = (x - mean(x))/sd(x).

### Example

Let's return to the credit dataset.

Recall We have 11 predictors and a numeric outcome balance.

I standardized our **predictors** using preProcess() from caret, *i.e.*,

```
# Standardize all variables except 'balan ce'
credit_stnd = preProcess(
    # Do not process the outcome 'balance'
    x = credit_dt %>% dplyr::select(-balance),
    # Standardizing means 'center' and 'scale'
    method = c("center", "scale")
)
# We have to pass the 'preProcess' object to 'predict' to get new data
credit_stnd %<% predict(newdata = credit_dt)</pre>
```

### Example

For ridge regression<sup>†</sup> in R, we will use glmnet() from the glmnet package.

The **key arguments** for glmnet() are

- x a **matrix** of predictors
- y outcome variable as a vector
- standardize (T Or F)
- alpha elasticnet parameter
  - alpha=0 gives ridge
  - alpha=1 gives lasso

- lambda tuning parameter (sequence of numbers)
- <code>nlambda</code> alternatively, R picks a sequence of values for  $\lambda$

### Example

We just need to define a decreasing sequence for  $\lambda$ , and then we're set.

```
# Define our range of lambdas (glmnet wants decreasing range)
lambdas = 10^seq(from = 5, to = -2, length = 100)
# Fit ridge regression
est_ridge = glmnet(
    x = credit_stnd %>% dplyr::select(-balance) %>% as.matrix(),
    y = credit_stnd$balance,
    standardize = T,
    alpha = 0,
    lambda = lambdas
)
```

The glmnet output (est\_ridge here) contains estimated coefficients for  $\lambda$ . You can use predict() to get coefficients for additional values of  $\lambda$ .

#### **Ridge regression coefficents** for $\lambda$ between 0.01 and 100,000



### Example

glmnet also provides convenient cross-validation function: cv.glmnet().

```
# Define our lambdas
lambdas = 10^seq(from = 5, to = -2, length = 100)
# Cross validation
ridge_cv = cv.glmnet(
  x = credit_stnd %>% dplyr::select(-balance) %>% as.matrix(),
  y = credit_stnd$balance,
  alpha = 0,
  standardize = T,
  lambda = lambdas,
  # New: How we make decisions and number of folds
  type.measure = "mse",
  nfolds = 5
)
```

#### **Cross-validated RMSE and** $\lambda$ : Which $\lambda$ minimizes CV RMSE?



Often, you will have a minimum farther away from your extremes...

#### **Cross-validated RMSE and** $\lambda$ : Which $\lambda$ minimizes CV RMSE?



### Example

We can also use train() from caret to cross validate ridge regression.

```
# Our range of lambdas
lambdas = 10^{\text{seq}}(\text{from} = 5, \text{ to } = -2, \text{ length } = 1e3)
# Ridge regression with cross validation
ridge cv = train(
  # The formula
  balance ~ .,
  # The dataset
  data = credit stnd,
  # The 'glmnet' package does ridge and lasso
  method = "glmnet",
  # 5-fold cross validation
  trControl = trainControl("cv", number = 10),
  # The parameters of 'glmnet' (alpha = 0 gives ridge regression)
  tuneGrid = expand.grid(alpha = 0, lambda = lambdas)
```

## Prediction in R

#### Once you find your $\lambda$ via cross validation

1. Fit your model on the full dataset using the optimal  $\lambda$ 

```
# Fit final model
final_ridge = glmnet(
    x = credit_stnd %>% dplyr::select(-balance) %>% as.matrix(),
    y = credit_stnd$balance,
    standardize = T,
    alpha = 0,
    lambda = ridge_cv$lambda.min
)
```

## Prediction in R

Once you find your  $\lambda$  via cross validation

1. Fit your model on the full dataset using the optimal  $\lambda$ 

2. Make predictions

```
predict(
  final_ridge,
  type = "response",
  # Our chosen lambda
  s = ridge_cv$lambda.min,
  # Our data
  newx = credit_stnd %>% dplyr::select(-balance) %>% as.matrix()
)
```

## Shrinking

While ridge regression *shrinks* coefficients close to zero, it never forces them to be equal to zero.

#### Drawbacks

- 1. We cannot use ridge regression for subset/feature selection.
- 2. We often end up with a bunch of tiny coefficients.

Q Can't we just drive the coefficients to zero? A Yes. Just not with ridge (due to  $\sum_j \hat{\beta}_j^2$ ).

## Lasso

### Lasso

### Intro

**Lasso** simply replaces ridge's *squared* coefficients with absolute values.

**Ridge regression** 

$$\min_{\hat{eta}^R} \sum_{i=1}^n ig( oldsymbol{y}_i - \hat{oldsymbol{y}}_i ig)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j^2$$

Lasso

$$\min_{\hat{eta}^{L}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}
ight)^{2}+\lambda\sum_{j=1}^{p}\left|eta_{j}
ight|$$

Everything else will be the same—except one aspect...

## Shrinkage

Unlike ridge, lasso's penalty does not increase with the size of  $\beta_j$ .

You always pay  $\lambda$  to increase  $|\beta_j|$  by one unit.

The only way to avoid lasso's penalty is to **set coefficents to zero**.

This feature has two **benefits** 

1. Some coefficients will be **set to zero**—we get "sparse" models.

2. Lasso can be used for subset/feature **selection**.

We will still need to carefully select  $\lambda$ .

## Lasso

### Example

We can also use glmnet() for lasso.

Recall The **key arguments** for glmnet() are

- x a **matrix** of predictors
- y outcome variable as a vector
- standardize (T Or F)
- alpha elasticnet parameter
  - alpha=0 gives ridge
  - alpha=1 gives lasso

- lambda tuning parameter
   (sequence of numbers)
- <code>nlambda</code> alternatively, R picks a sequence of values for  $\lambda$

### Lasso

### Example

#### Again, we define a decreasing sequence for $\lambda$ , and we're set.

```
# Define our range of lambdas (glmnet wants decreasing range)
lambdas = 10^seq(from = 5, to = -2, length = 100)
# Fit ridge regression
est_lasso = glmnet(
    x = credit_stnd %>% dplyr::select(-balance) %>% as.matrix(),
    y = credit_stnd$balance,
    standardize = T,
    alpha = 1,
    lambda = lambdas
)
```

The glmnet output (est\_lasso here) contains estimated coefficients for  $\lambda$ . You can use predict() to get coefficients for additional values of  $\lambda$ .

#### **Lasso coefficents** for $\lambda$ between 0.01 and 100,000



Compare lasso's tendency to force coefficients to zero with our previous ridge-regression results.

#### **Ridge regression coefficents** for $\lambda$ between 0.01 and 100,000



## Lasso

### Example

We can also cross validate  $\lambda$  with cv.glmnet().

```
# Define our lambdas
lambdas = 10^seq(from = 5, to = -2, length = 100)
# Cross validation
lasso_cv = cv.glmnet(
  x = credit_stnd %>% dplyr::select(-balance) %>% as.matrix(),
  y = credit_stnd$balance,
  alpha = 1,
  standardize = T,
  lambda = lambdas,
  # New: How we make decisions and number of folds
  type.measure = "mse",
  nfolds = 5
)
```

#### **Cross-validated RMSE and** $\lambda$ : Which $\lambda$ minimizes CV RMSE?



Again, you will have a minimum farther away from your extremes...

#### **Cross-validated RMSE and** $\lambda$ : Which $\lambda$ minimizes CV RMSE?



So which shrinkage method should you choose?

## Ridge or lasso?

#### **Ridge regression**

- + shrinks  $\hat{\beta}_j$  near 0
- many small  $\hat{\beta}_j$
- doesn't work for selection
- difficult to interpret output
- + better when all  $\beta_j 
  eq 0$

#### Lasso

- + shrinks  $\hat{\beta}_j$  to 0
- + many  $\hat{\beta}_j = 0$
- + great for selection
- + sparse models easier to interpret
- implicitly assumes some  $\beta = 0$

Best: p is large &  $eta_j pprox eta_k$ 

*Best: p* is large & many  $\beta_j pprox$  0

[N]either ridge... nor the lasso will universally dominate the other.

ISL, p. 224

## Ridge and lasso

### Why not both?

**Elasticnet** combines ridge regression and lasso.

$$\min_{eta^E} \sum_{i=1}^n ig( egin{smallmatrix} y_i - \hat{y}_i ig)^2 + (1-lpha) \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j^2 + lpha \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |eta_j|$$

(We now have two tuning parameters:  $\lambda$  and  $\alpha$ .

Remember the alpha argument in glmnet()?

- $\alpha = 0$  specifies ridge
- $\alpha = 1$  specifies lasso

## Why not both?

We can use train() from caret to cross validate  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$ .

*Note* You need to consider all combinations of the two parameters. This combination can create *a lot* of models to estimate.

For example,

- 1,000 values of  $\lambda$
- 1,000 values of lpha

leaves you with 1,000,000 models to estimate.<sup>+</sup>

```
# Our range of \lambda
lambdas = 10^{seq} (from = 5, to = -2, length = 1e3)
# Our range of a
alphas = seq(from = 0, to = 1, by = 0.1)
# Ridge regression with cross validation
net cv = train(
  # The formula
  balance ~ ..
  # The dataset
  data = credit_stnd,
  # The 'glmnet' package does ridge and lasso
  method = "glmnet",
  # 5-fold cross validation
  trControl = trainControl("cv", number = 10),
  # The parameters of 'glmnet'
  tuneGrid = expand.grid(alpha = alphas, lambda = lambdas)
```

## Sources

These notes draw upon

• An Introduction to Statistical Learning (ISL)

James, Witten, Hastie, and Tibshirani

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