## Purdue-NCKU program

## Lecture 9 <br> Advanced Regression Technique

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## Beyond Normality

## generalized linear regression model

To handle data with different distribution and different support

- $E(Y \mid X)=g^{-1}(X \beta)$, where $g$ is called link function
- $Y \sim f_{Y}(y \mid \theta, \tau)=h(y, \tau) \exp \left(\frac{b(\theta) T(y)-A(\theta)}{d(\tau)}\right)$
- examples include families of normal, Bernoulli, Poisson, exponential distributions
- We reparameterize the model such that $b(\theta)=\theta$. If furthermore that $T(y)=y$ then we can show that $E(Y)=$ $A^{\prime}(\theta)$ and $\operatorname{var}(Y)=A^{\prime \prime}(\theta) d(\tau)$
- Canonical link: $X \beta=b(\theta)$


## Common choice

Common distributions with typical uses and canonical link functions

| ommon distributions with typical uses and canonical link functions |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Distribution | Support of distribution | Typical uses | Link name | Link function, $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=g(\mu)$ | Mean function |
| Normal | real: $(-\infty,+\infty)$ | Linear-response data | Identity | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\mu$ | $\mu=\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ |
| Exponential | real: $(0,+\infty)$ | Exponential-response data, scale parameters | Negative inverse | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=-\mu^{-1}$ | $\mu=-(\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{-1}$ |
| Inverse Gaussian | real: $(0,+\infty)$ |  | Inverse <br> squared | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\mu^{-2}$ | $\mu=(\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{-1 / 2}$ |
| Poisson | integer: $0,1,2, \ldots$ | count of occurrences in fixed amount of time/space | Log | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\ln (\mu)$ | $\mu=\exp (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})$ |
| Bernoulli | integer: $\{0,1\}$ | outcome of single yes/no occurrence | Logit | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\ln \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right)$ | $\mu=\frac{\exp (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})}{1+\exp (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})}=\frac{1}{1+\exp (-\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})}$ |
| Binomial | integer: $0,1, \ldots, N$ | count of \# of "yes" occurrences out of N yes/no occurrences |  | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\ln \left(\frac{\mu}{n-\mu}\right)$ |  |
|  | integer: $[0, K)$ | outcome of single K-way occurrence |  | $\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}=\ln \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right)$ |  |
| Categorical | K -vector of integer: $[0,1]$, where exactly one element in the vector has the value 1 |  |  |  |  |
| Multinomial | $K$-vector of integer: $[0, N]$ | count of occurrences of different types ( 1 .. $K$ ) out of $N$ total $K$-way occurrences |  |  |  |

source: wikipedia.com

## Estimation

- MLE estimation: $\beta=\arg \max l(\beta)=\arg \max \left\{\sum b\left(\theta_{i}\right) T\left(Y_{i}\right)-\right.$ $\left.A\left(\theta_{i}\right)\right\}$
- Newton-Raphson method: $\beta_{t+1}=\beta_{t}-\left(l^{\prime \prime}(\beta)\right)^{-1} l^{\prime}(\beta)$. If $b$ and $T$ are identity mapping, then

$$
\frac{\partial l(\beta)}{\partial \beta}=\sum X_{i}^{\prime}\left(Y_{i}-A^{\prime}\left(\theta_{i}\right)\right)
$$

- 

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} l(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}=-\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}
$$

where $\mathbf{W}=\operatorname{diag}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)=\left[\operatorname{diag}\left(A^{\prime \prime}\left(\theta_{1}\right), \ldots, A^{\prime \prime}\left(\theta_{n}\right)\right)\right]^{-1}$

- Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares

$$
\beta_{t+1}=\left(\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}
$$

where $\mathbf{z}=\mathbf{X} \beta_{t}+\mathbf{W}^{-1}\left(\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{A}^{\prime}(\theta)\right), \mathbf{A}^{\prime}(\theta)=\left(A^{\prime}\left(\theta_{1}\right), \ldots, A^{\prime}\left(\theta_{n}\right)\right)^{\prime}$

## Beyond Normality

## quantile regression

The method of least squares estimates the conditional mean of the response variable, while quantile regression estimates the conditional median (or other quantiles) of the response variable.

- Square distance leads to mean estimation
- Pinball loss, $\rho_{\tau}(x)=x\left(\tau-I_{(x<0)}\right)$ leads to $\tau$-th quantile estimation



## quantile linear regression

- $Q=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho_{\tau}\left(Y_{i}-X \beta\right)$
- More robust than OLS to non-normal errors and outliers in $y$ direction)
- Optimization: quadratic majorization or gradient descent

Quantile Regression in the Heteroscedastic Error Model


## Beyond Linearity

## Local regression

Adaptive to local smoothness via weighting

- $E(Y)=f(X)$ and we estimate $f$ locally
- $f\left(X_{h}\right)$ is estimated by
- Weighted Least Squared estimator with ( $X_{i}, Y_{i}$ ) associated with weights $w\left(X_{i}, X_{h}\right)$.
- $w$ is larger is $X_{i}$ and $X_{h}$ is closer. Local data play more important role of estimation
- Choices of weight function $w$ : Gaussian $\exp \left\{-\left\|X_{i}-X_{h}\right\|^{2} / \sigma^{2}\right\}$, uniform $I\left(\left\|X_{i}-X_{h}\right\| \leq b\right)$, triangle function, or $k$-NN


## Local regression

- Choice of Bandwidth can be important (trade-off between smoothness and biasness)
- Biased estimation, especially when $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ is large
- Consistent estimation, as local data density goes to infinity and bandwidth goes to zero.
- Locally 0-order (kernel smoother) or high-order (local polynomial regression) extension.


## Local regression


source: https://medium.com/100-days-of-algorithms/day-97-locally-weighted-regression-c9cfaff087fb

## Beyond Linearity

## Sieve/Spline regression

- Sieve expansion: $f_{m}(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{K_{m}} z_{j m}(x) \beta_{j m}$ approximates true $f^{*}$
- $z_{j m}$ is pre-designed nonlinear basis function.
- A larger $K_{m}$ (hopefully) leads to a better approximation
- Example: polynomial basis, wavelet basis and spline basis
- Estimation follows MLR


## Spline regression

- Spline function: piece-wise polynomial functions with smooth connection
- B-spline or basis spline. Any spline function of given degree can be expressed as a linear combination of B-splines of that degree, under same knots setting.



## Spline regression

- Choice of degree (usually 3)
- Choice of knots (usually uniform grid)
- Smoothing spline: minimizing $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i}-f\left(X_{i}\right)\right)^{2}+\lambda \int_{0}^{2}\left(f^{\prime \prime}(x)\right)^{2} d x$
- The solution to this minimization problem is a cubic spline with knots set being the $X_{i}$ 's.
- $\lambda$ controls the smoothness level


## Kernel Ridge regression

- Mapping all $X_{i}$ to feature space $\left(\phi_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), \ldots, \phi_{k}\left(X_{i}\right), \ldots\right)=$ $\phi\left(X_{i}\right)$
- Linear regression on feature space, or view $\phi_{i}$ 's as (infinite) basis functions
- Denote $\Phi$ be the $n \times \infty$ dimension design matrix, we consider ridge regression
- $\beta=\left(\Phi^{T} \Phi+\lambda I_{\infty}\right) \Phi^{T} Y=\Phi^{T}\left(\Phi \Phi^{T}+\lambda I_{n}\right) Y$
- Fitted value $\phi\left(X_{h}\right)^{T} \Phi^{T}\left(\Phi \Phi^{T}+\lambda I_{n}\right) Y$
- Kernel $<\phi\left(X_{i}\right), \phi\left(X_{j}\right)>=K\left(X_{i}, X_{j}\right)$
- Requires inverting $n$ by $n$ matrix


## Choice of kernel and $\lambda$



Source: https://rpubs.com/Saulabrm/210788

## Beyond Linearity

## Gaussian Process

- View function $f$ as a random process (GP)
- For any vector $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right),\left(f\left(X_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(X_{n}\right)\right)$ follows multivariate normal with covariance matrix $k\left(X_{i}, X_{j}\right)$.
- $Y_{i}=f\left(X_{i}\right)+N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$
- What is the joint distribution of $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n}, Y_{h}$, or $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n}, f\left(X_{h}\right)$, ?
- Conditional distribution of multivariate normal (source: wikipedia)


## Conditional distributions [edit]

If N -dimensional $\mathbf{x}$ is partitioned as follows

$$
\mathbf{x}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{x}_{1} \\
\mathbf{x}_{2}
\end{array}\right] \text { with sizes }\left[\begin{array}{c}
q \times 1 \\
(N-q) \times 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

and accordingly $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ are partitioned as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{\mu} & =\left[\begin{array}{l}
\boldsymbol{\mu}_{1} \\
\boldsymbol{\mu}_{2}
\end{array}\right] \text { with sizes }\left[\begin{array}{c}
q \times 1 \\
(N-q) \times 1
\end{array}\right] \\
\boldsymbol{\Sigma} & =\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \\
\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}
\end{array}\right] \text { with sizes }\left[\begin{array}{cc}
q \times q & q \times(N-q) \\
(N-q) \times q & (N-q) \times(N-q)
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

then the distribution of $\mathbf{x}_{1}$ conditional on $\mathbf{x}_{2}=\mathbf{a}$ is multivariate normal $\left(\mathbf{x}_{1} \mid \mathbf{x}_{2}=\mathbf{a}\right) \sim N(\bar{\mu}, \overline{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}})$ where

$$
\overline{\boldsymbol{\mu}}=\boldsymbol{\mu}_{1}+\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1}\left(\mathbf{a}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_{2}\right)
$$

and covariance matrix

$$
\overline{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}=\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}-\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21}
$$

- Estimate (predicted) $f\left(X_{h}\right)$ or $Y_{h}$ by the conditional distribution.
- Bayesian interval inference


## Example

Gaussian process regression on a noisy dataset

source: https://scikit-learn.org

## Beyond Linearity

## Tree Model and Random Forest

Constant prediction over a rectangle region of the predictors


Source: https://www.datacamp.com/tutorial/decision-tree-classificatic python

## Constructing Trees

- Piecewise constant regression function
- Basically partition the $X$ space into rectangles
- Predicted value is mean of responses in rectangle
- Minimize SSE via greedy search (sequentially partitioning)
- Trade off between minimizing SSE and complexity; proper stopping rule (e.g., never yield a node that contains less than $2 \%$ of the data)
- Generalize to non-rectangle split


## Random Forest

trees that are grown very deep tend to learn highly irregular patterns. Overfitting occurs

- Average result of many many small trees.
- Each tree is based on a subset of data set; reduce variance
- Each tree is based on a subset of predictors; reduce tree-totree correlation

Random Forest Simplified


Source: Wikipedia

## Beyond Linearity

## Neural Network

- Combination of affine mapping and nonlinear elementwise mapping

$$
y=B_{1} \circ \sigma_{1} \circ B_{2} \circ \sigma_{2} \ldots B_{m} \circ x
$$

- Choice of affine mapping: fully connected layer, CNN layer
- Choice of nonlinear mapping: activation function, Batch normalization
- Other special structure: skip connection, Recurrent neural networks

DNN is not only for regression or classification. Generative model, unsupervised learning, "longitudinal" data

## Deep learning and A.I.

- Surprising performance due to explosion of the scale of structure, and massive of training data
- How to use non-supervised data
- How to use pre-trained model
- How to improve adversarial robustness
- How to improve fairness
- How to introduce inference such as C.I. or hypothesis testing?


## Neural Network

- Universality of approximation power

Relu networks means all piecewise linear functions.

- (Stochastic) Gradient Descent Chain rule and Back propagation algorithm (GPU computing)
- Non-convex optimization problem, non-unique solution
- Required experienced research to train a good DNN
- Other special structure: skip connection, Recurrent neural networks


## Sparse Model

High dimensional regression $E(Y)=X \beta$ where $\beta \in R^{p}$ and $p \gg n$

- $\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}$ is not invertible, and columns of $\mathbf{X}$ is always linear dependent
- OLS estimation is not unique, with SSE $=0$.
- People are willing to believe that there exist a "sparse truth", i.e., most entries of true $\beta^{*}$ is almost zero
- Restricted estimation: finding a best sparse $\beta$ that minimizes the SSE


## LASSO

- LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator):

$$
\mathbf{b}=\arg \min \|\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{X b}\|, \text { subject to } \sum\left|b_{i}\right| \leq t
$$

- Equivalent estimation:

$$
\mathbf{b}=\arg \min \|\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{X b}\|+\lambda \sum\left|b_{i}\right|
$$

- a sequence of models, from null to full, as $t$ increases (or $\lambda$ decrease)
- How to choose $\lambda$ ?
- One can pick one among them, depending on some criterion (e.g. testing accuracy).

The non-smoothness of absolute function introduces sparsity in the solution.


Source: glmnet package in R .

The penalty can be generalized to any modeling.

## Model Complexity and Generalization bound

- Candidates family of functions $\mathcal{F}$, and loss function $L$
- Optimization problem:

$$
\begin{gathered}
R_{e m p}(f)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(y_{i}, f\left(x_{i}\right)\right) \\
\widehat{f}=\arg \min _{f \in \mathcal{F}} R_{e m p}(f)
\end{gathered}
$$

- Generalization error: the discrepancy between training accuracy and testing accuracy.

If all $f \in \mathcal{F}$ are bounded functions, then

$$
R(\hat{f}) \leq R_{e m p}(\hat{f})+\sqrt{\frac{\log |\mathcal{F}|+\log (2 / \delta)}{2 n}}
$$

with probability $1-\delta$, where $R(f)=E L(y, f(x))$

## Balance between model complexity and fitting perfor


source: https://djsaunde.wordpress.com/2017/07/17/the-bias-variance-tradeoff/

## Explain

- Bias: $f^{*} \notin \mathcal{F}$, or $\min _{f \in \mathcal{F}} R(f)>\min _{f} R(f)$
$\mathcal{F}$ is incapable to model the true function
- Variance: the estimation is too difficult, hard to search a overly large space
- The theorem can be generalized to other complexity measure (e.g. V.C dimension, Rademacher complexity)
- The theorem only gives an upper bound, fails to explain model DNN behavior.

