W3. Linear Models, Regularization, and Hyperparameter Tuning

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Week 3

You have a dataset with various economic indicators and want to predict the unemployment rate Y. The dataset includes features such as:

• X₁: GDP (Gross Domestic Product)

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- Some of these features might be correlated, and this sort of multicollinearity could be impacting the performance of a traditional linear regression model;
- For better interpretability, you want to identify the most influential factors contributing to the unemployment rate.

Linear regression modelling

• We model the data in the following linear regression

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \epsilon$$

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• Meanwhile, we want to have a sparse estimate $\widehat{\beta} = (\widehat{\beta}_0, \dots, \widehat{\beta}_5)$ in the sense that some $\widehat{\beta}_i$'s are zero, while still maintaining accurate prediction of Y.

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- Meanwhile, we want to have a sparse estimate $\widehat{\beta} = (\widehat{\beta}_0, \dots, \widehat{\beta}_5)$ in the sense that some $\widehat{\beta}_i$'s are zero, while still maintaining accurate prediction of Y.
- We need spare estimate for two reasons: (i) remove those features that are highly correlated with each other; (ii) enhance the interpretability of the prediction model where only a few features determine the unemployment rate.

One solution: shrinkage methods

 Shrinkage methods, in the context of statistical modeling and machine learning, are techniques that involve intentionally reducing the impact or size of certain parameters or coefficients in a model. These methods are particularly useful for preventing overfitting, handling multicollinearity, and improving model interpretability.

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- One price to pay is that shrinkage/regularization methods often introduce some estimation bias;

Shrinkage methods

Shrinkage methods are formulated as

$$(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}) = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda J(\beta)$$

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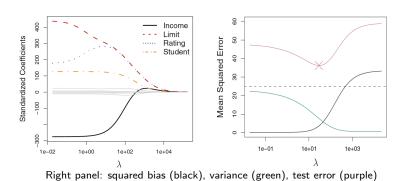
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- Various choices of $J(\beta)$ lead to different shrinkage methods and possess different properties
- After centralization, it becomes

$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta)^2 + \lambda J(\beta)$$

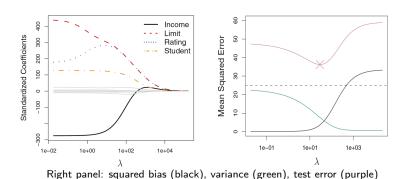
Deeper understanding of shrinkage estimate

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Deeper understanding of shrinkage estimate

- In general, any shrinkage estimate $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}$ is biased in the sense that its mean is not the same as true β .
- As for the impact of the tuning parameter λ , we can see from the following two plots



• Ridge regression uses an L_2 -norm penalty, $\|\beta\|^2 = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = \beta^T \beta$,

$$\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}^{\textit{ridge}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \, \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \, \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2$$

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- If $\lambda=0$, ridge regression produces the oridnary linear regression; if $\lambda\to\infty$, all estimates of β_i 's are zero

• Solution of the ridge regression is (by make first order derivative to be zero!). try to derive it in class

$$\hat{eta}_{\lambda}^{ extit{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \, \mathbf{X} + \lambda I_p)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \, \mathbf{y}$$

How to do the derivations?

Objective Function:

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Objective Function with Expanded Terms:

$$J(\beta) = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - 2\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{X}\beta + \beta^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\beta + \lambda \beta^T \beta$$

How to do the derivations?

Differentiation and Setting to Zero:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \beta + 2\lambda \beta = 0$$

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• Final Ridge Regression Estimate:

$$\hat{eta}_{\lambda}^{\textit{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$$

An equivalent formulation,

$$\hat{\beta}_{\lambda}^{\textit{ridge}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \, \beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \, \beta)$$
 subject to $\|\beta\|^2 \le s$

Shrinkage method II: Lasso

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$$\hat{eta}^{\textit{lasso}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{eta} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \, eta)^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \, eta)$$
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 In comparison with ridge estimate, there is no explicit solution for Lasso. Rather, a quadratic programming (QP) algorithm can be used to solve the above optimization problem.

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- Machine learning models applied to datasets containing clinical information can assist in predicting the likelihood of prostate cancer based on relevant features.

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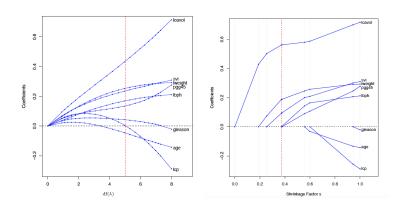
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- We use ridge regression and lasso regression to fit the data, and plot the coefficients of each under different regularized parameters.

Example: Prostate cancer - results



Left: ridge regression; Right: lasso regression

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ullet This definition reflects the fact that as λ increases, each predictor's influence on the response variable is reduced, thus reducing the effective degrees of freedom.

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• As λ approaches infinity, the shrinkage factor s approaches 0, leading to maximal shrinkage. Conversely, as λ approaches 0, the shrinkage factor s approaches 1, implying minimal shrinkage and the model approaches the ordinary least squares solution.

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- For lasso regression, the regularized term will make the coefficients sparse (many of them become zero when choosing appropriate regularized term).

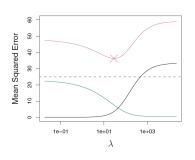
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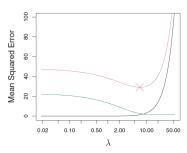
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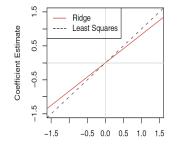
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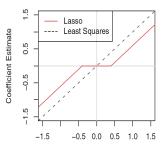
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Elastic net: combination of ridge and lasso

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- Elastic Net is a regularization technique that combines both Lasso Regression (L1 regularization) and Ridge Regression (L2 regularization) in an effort to leverage the benefits of both methods.
- It was introduced to address some limitations of Lasso Regression, such as its tendency to arbitrarily select one feature among a group of highly correlated features. Elastic Net introduces an additional hyperparameter to control the mixture of L1 and L2 regularization: its penalty is of the form

$$\lambda_1 \|\beta\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|\beta\|^2.$$

A general regularization: bridge estimators

With
$$L_r(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|^r$$
,
$$\hat{\beta}^{bridge} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\beta} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \, \beta\|^2 + \lambda L_r(\beta)$$

• $L_0(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^p I(\beta_j \neq 0)$; (Hard thresholding)

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- $L_1(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$; (Lasso)
- $L_2(\beta) = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$; (Ridge regression)
- $L_{\infty}(\beta) = \max_{j} |\beta_{j}|$.

The penalty form

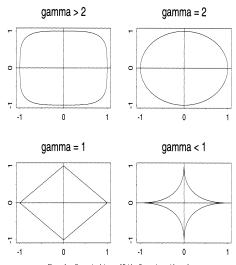


Figure 1. Constrained Areas of Bridge Regressions with t = 1.

Revisit unemployment rate prediction example

• Back to the unemployment rate prediction example

Revisit unemployment rate prediction example

- Back to the unemployment rate prediction example
- Let's take a look at the coefficients obtained using these three methods (ordinary, ridge and lasso regression) respectively.

Codes: Linear regression vs Ridge vs Lasso

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from sklearn, model selection import train test split
from sklearn, linear model import LinearRegression, Ridge, Lasso
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
# Generate synthetic economic data for unemployment rate prediction
np.random.seed(42)
data = pd.DataFrame({
   'GDP': np.random.uniform(1000, 5000, 100),
   'Inflation Rate': np.random.uniform(1, 5, 100),
   'Education Level': np.random.uniform(10, 16, 100),
   'Average Income': np.random.uniform(20000, 80000, 100),
   'Infrastructure Spending': np.random.uniform(500, 2000, 100),
   'Unemployment_Rate': 5 + 2 * np.random.randn(100)
# Split the data into features (X) and target variable (v)
X = data.drop('Unemployment Rate', axis=1)
y = data['Unemployment Rate']
# Split the data into training and testing sets
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X, y, test size=0.2, random state=42)
# Ordinary Linear Regression
linear model = LinearRegression()
linear model.fit(X train, y train)
linear coefficients = linear model.coef
# Ridae Rearession
ridge model = Ridge(alpha=1.0) # regularization (alpha=1.0)
ridge model.fit(X train, y train)
ridge coefficients = ridge model.coef
# Lasso Regression
lasso model = Lasso(alpha=1.0) # regularization (alpha=1.0)
lasso model.fit(X train, v train)
lasso coefficients = lasso model.coef
# Print the coefficients
print("Ordinary Linear Regression Coefficients:", linear coefficients)
print("Ridge Regression Coefficients:", ridge coefficients)
print("Lasso Regression Coefficients:", lasso coefficients)
```

Week 3

Results: Linear regression vs Ridge vs Lasso

```
Ordinary Linear Regression Coefficients: [ 5.60267613e-04 9.73517555e-02 -8.54416857e-02 -3.02802913e-05 2.78483294e-04]
Ridge Regression Coefficients: [ 5.60329468e-04 9.65052229e-02 -8.51602793e-02 -3.02710257e-05 2.78285136e-04]
Lasso Regression Coefficients: [ 5.85345112e-04 0.00000000e+00 -0.00000000e+00 -2.78329035e-05
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```

Conclusion

2.45653738e-041

 Ridge regression slightly shrinks the fitting coefficients, while lasso regression makes the fitting coefficients sparse.

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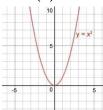
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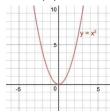
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- **Question**: What if there is no explicit solution of the equation $\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = 0$?
- Answer: In practice, we often adopt the optimization algorithm called as "Gradient ascent" (for maximization) or "Gradient descent" (for minimization).

• Suppose we want to minimize $f(x) = x^2$

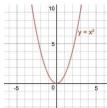


• Suppose we want to minimize $f(x) = x^2$



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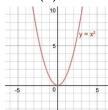
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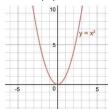


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- Repeat the above process until convergence.

 Motivation of Gradient descent: gradient provides information to minimize the objective function.

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- General form of gradient descent: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ be a p-variate function. Then gradient descent has the form

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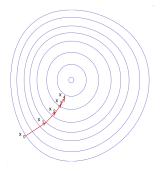
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- Question: When does gradient descent stop?
- **Answer**: When $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(t)}) \approx \mathbf{0}$ for a sufficiently large t.

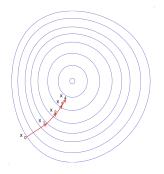
Application of gradient descent

 Gradient descent is usually employed, when optimization problem is non-convex or does not have analytic solution or high-dimensional x, for example Deep neural networks (Non-convex)



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 However, if the loss function is convex, then the output of Gradient Descent is guaranteed to be the optimal solution.

How to choose learning rate in gradient descent?

 \bullet The gradient descent algorithm has different convergence rate with different choices of learning rate α

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- See the example in the next page.

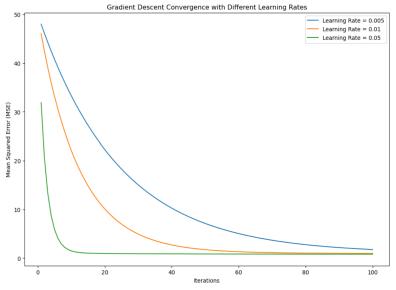
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- Use the different learning rate ($\alpha = 0.005, 0.01, 0.05$) for training, and get the plot of MSE versus the iterations.

Learning rate tuning in Gradient Descent: plots



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 - Assume the learning rate $\alpha = 0.1$.

Steps

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- Conclusion: the value of x keeps going down, and eventually converges to zero.

 Computational Intensity: GD requires the computation of gradients for the entire dataset (recall that the loss function is defined on the whole dataset) to perform a single update of the model parameters. This can be extremely computationally intensive and inefficient for large datasets.

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- Memory Constraints: Storing the entire dataset in memory for computation can be impractical or impossible with very large datasets, leading to memory constraints.

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- Convergence Speed: The process of using the entire dataset for each update makes GD slow, particularly for large datasets. This slow convergence can be a major drawback in practice.
- Difficulty in Escaping Local Minima: In high-dimensional and complex error landscapes (common in deep learning), GD can get stuck in local minima or saddle points, especially if the initial parameter values are not optimal.

• How to deal with the above drawbacks ?

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- Use stochastic gradient descent (SGD)!

SGD - Basic Concept

 Unlike GD, which uses the entire dataset to compute the gradient of the cost function, SGD updates the model parameters using only a single data point (or a small batch of data points) chosen at random in each iteration.

SGD - Working Mechanism

 In SGD, a random sample (or a mini-batch of samples) is selected from the dataset, and the gradient of the cost function is computed based on this sample only. The model parameters are then updated accordingly. This process is repeated for each sample or mini-batch in the dataset.

• The parameter update rule in SGD is given by:

$$\theta = \theta - \alpha \cdot \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta; x^{(i)}; y^{(i)})$$

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 - $\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta; x^{(i)}; y^{(i)})$ is the gradient of the loss function with respect to the parameters θ , evaluated at the single data point $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$.

$$\theta = \theta - \alpha \cdot \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta; X^{(i:i+n)}, Y^{(i:i+n)})$$

• The parameter update rule in Mini-Batch SGD is given by:

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 - $\nabla_{\theta}J(\theta;X^{(i:i+n)},Y^{(i:i+n)})$ is the gradient of the loss function with respect to the parameters θ , computed over a mini-batch of data points. Here, $X^{(i:i+n)}$ and $Y^{(i:i+n)}$ represent the features and labels of the mini-batch, respectively, starting from the i-th data point to the (i+n)-th data point.

• Efficiency with Large Datasets: Deep learning often involves training on very large datasets. SGD is more efficient compared to traditional batch gradient descent, as it does not require the entire dataset to be loaded into memory or used for each parameter update. Instead, SGD updates parameters using only a small subset of data at a time, making it computationally feasible even with large-scale data.

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 dataset to be loaded into memory or used for each parameter update.
 Instead, SGD updates parameters using only a small subset of data at
 a time, making it computationally feasible even with large-scale data.
- Faster Convergence: By updating the model parameters more frequently, SGD can converge faster to a solution, especially in complex and high-dimensional spaces typical of deep neural networks. This is crucial in practical applications where training time is a critical factor.

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- Ability to Escape Local Minima: In the complex, non-convex error landscapes typical of deep neural networks, SGD's stochasticity helps in escaping local minima. The randomness in selecting data points or batches introduces noise into the optimization process, which can aid in finding a more global minimum.