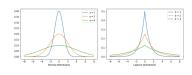
# Introduction to Machine Learning

# Regularization in Non-Linear Models and Bayesian Priors



#### Learning goals

- Understand that regularization and parameter shrinkage can be applied to non-linear models
- Know structural risk minimization
- Know how regularization risk minimization is the same as MAP in a Bayesian perspective, where the penality corresponds to parameter prior.

#### SUMMARY: REGULARIZED RISK MINIMIZATION

If we should define ML in only one line, this might be it:

$$\mathcal{R}_{\text{reg}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(y^{(i)}, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}\right)\right) + \lambda \cdot J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

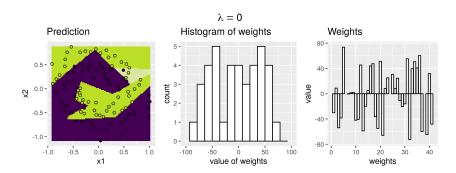
We can choose for a task at hand:

- the hypothesis space of f, which determines how features can influence the predicted y
- the **loss** function *L*, which measures how errors should be treated
- the **regularization**  $J(\theta)$ , which encodes our inductive bias and preference for certain simpler models

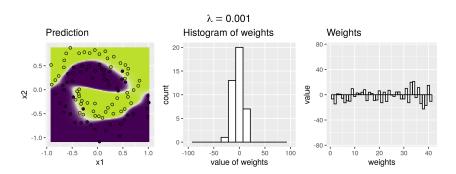
By varying these choices one can construct a huge number of different ML models. Many ML models follow this construction principle or can be interpreted through the lens of regularized risk minimization.

- So far we have mainly considered regularization in LMs.
- Can also be applied to non-linear models (with numeric parameters), where it is often important to prevent overfitting.
- Here, we typically use L2 regularization, which still results in parameter shrinkage and weight decay.
- By adding regularization, prediction surfaces in regression and classification become smoother.
- Note: In the chapter on non-linear SVMs we will study the effects of regularization on a non-linear model in detail.

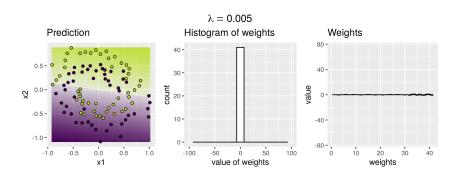
**Setting**: Classification for the spirals data. Neural network with single hidden layer containing 10 neurons and logistic output activation, regularized with L2 penalty term for  $\lambda>0$ . Varying  $\lambda$  affects smoothness of the decision boundary and magnitude of network weights:



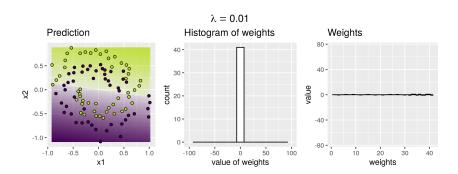
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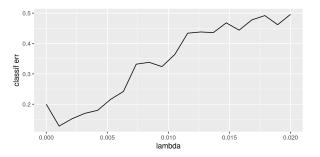
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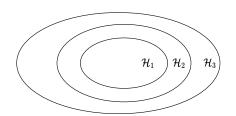


The prevention of overfitting can also be seen in CV. Same settings as before, but each  $\lambda$  is evaluated with repeated CV (10 folds, 5 reps).

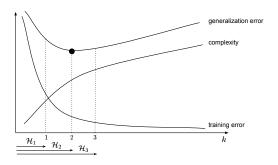


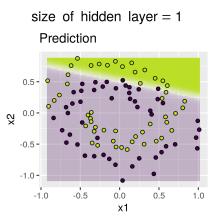
We see the typical U-shape with the sweet spot between overfitting (LHS, low  $\lambda$ ) and underfitting (RHS, high  $\lambda$ ) in the middle.

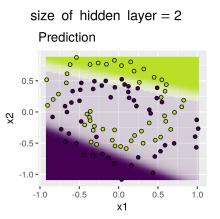
- Thus far, we only considered adding a complexity penalty to empirical risk minimization.
- Instead, structural risk minimization (SRM) assumes that the hypothesis space  $\mathcal{H}$  can be decomposed into increasingly complex hypotheses (size or capacity):  $\mathcal{H} = \bigcup_{k>1} \mathcal{H}_k$ .
- Complexity parameters can be the, e.g. the degree of polynomials in linear models or the size of hidden layers in neural networks.

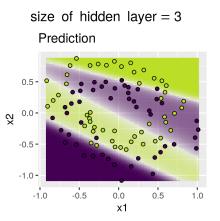


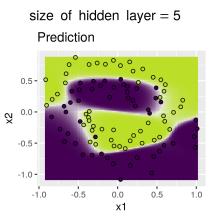
- SRM chooses the smallest k such that the optimal model from H<sub>k</sub> found by ERM or RRM cannot significantly be outperformed by a model from a H<sub>m</sub> with m > k.
- By this, the simplest model can be chosen, which minimizes the generalization bound.
- One challenge might be choosing an adequate complexity measure, as for some models, multiple complexity measures exist.

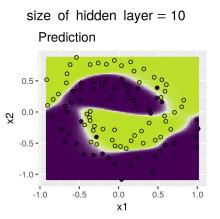


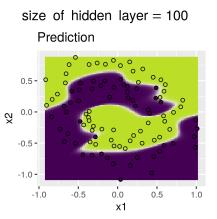




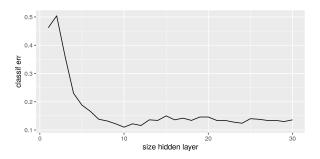








Again, complexity vs CV score.



A minimal model with good generalization seems to have ca. 6-8 hidden neurons.

# STRUCTURAL RISK MINIMIZATION AND RRM

Note that normal RRM can also be interpreted through SRM, if we rewrite the penalized ERM as constrained ERM.

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(y^{(i)}, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}\right)\right)$$
 s.t. 
$$\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_{2}^{2} \leq t$$
 
$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{Ridge}}$$

We can interpret going through  $\lambda$  from large to small as through t from small to large. This constructs a series of ERM problems with hypothesis spaces  $\mathcal{H}_{\lambda}$ , where we constrain the norm of  $\theta$  to unit balls of growing size.

#### RRM VS. BAYES

We already created a link between max. likelihood estimation and ERM.

Now we will generalize this for RRM.

Assume we have a parameterized distribution  $p(y|\theta, \mathbf{x})$  for our data and a prior  $q(\theta)$  over our parameter space, all in the Bayesian framework.

From the Bayes theorem we know:

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{x},y) = \frac{p(y|\theta,\mathbf{x})q(\theta)}{p(y|\mathbf{x})} \propto p(y|\theta,\mathbf{x})q(\theta)$$

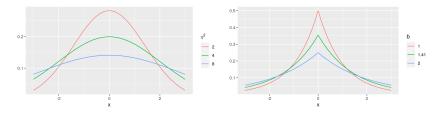
#### RRM VS. BAYES

The maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimator of  $\theta$  is now the minimizer of

$$-\log p(y \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}) - \log q(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

- Again, we identify the loss  $L(y, f(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta))$  with  $-\log(p(y|\theta, \mathbf{x}))$ .
- If  $q(\theta)$  is constant (i.e., we used a uniform, non-informative prior), the second term is irrelevant and we arrive at ERM.
- If not, we can identify  $J(\theta) \propto -\log(q(\theta))$ , i.e., the log-prior corresponds to the regularizer, and the additional  $\lambda$ , which controls the strength of our penalty, usually influences the peakedness / inverse variance / strength of our prior.

### RRM VS. BAYES



- L2 regularization corresponds to a zero-mean Gaussian prior with constant variance on our parameters:  $\theta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2)$
- L1 corresponds to a zero-mean Laplace prior:  $\theta_j \sim Laplace(0, b)$ .  $Laplace(\mu, b)$  has density  $\frac{1}{2b} \exp(-\frac{|\mu-x|}{b})$ , with scale parameter b, mean  $\mu$  and variance  $2b^2$ .
- In both cases, regularization strength increases as the variance of the prior decreases: a prior probability mass more narrowly concentrated around 0 encourages shrinkage.

# **EXAMPLE: BAYESIAN L2 REGULARIZATION**

We can easily see the equivalence of L2 regularization and a Gaussian prior:

• We define a Gaussian prior with uncorrelated components for  $\theta$ :

$$q(\theta) = \mathcal{N}_d(\mathbf{0}, \textit{diag}(\tau^2)) = \prod_{j=1}^d \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2) = (2\pi\tau^2)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau^2} \sum_{j=1}^d \theta_j^2\right).$$

With this, the MAP estimator becomes

$$\begin{split} \hat{\theta}^{\text{MAP}} &= & \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( -\log p\left(y \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}\right) - \log q(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right) \\ &= & \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( -\log p\left(y \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}\right) + \frac{d}{2}\log(2\pi\tau^2) + \frac{1}{2\tau^2}\sum_{j=1}^d \theta_j^2 \right) \\ &= & \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( -\log p\left(y \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}\right) + \frac{1}{2\tau^2} \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2 \right). \end{split}$$

• We see how the inverse variance (precision)  $1/\tau^2$  controls shrinkage.