

Note

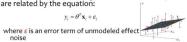
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- In the slides we have used the following to denote the model parameters/coefficients (θ,β,w) to be learnt during training.
- The hypothesis function is parameterized by these terms.
 - θ_i or β_i or w_i denote individual parameters.
 - $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ or $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ or \boldsymbol{w} denote the vector of parameters.
- \bullet These terms have been $\underline{\textbf{used interchangeably}}$ in the slides.

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Probabilistic Interpretation of LMS

- Let us assume that the target variable and the inputs are related by the equation: $|^{\nu}$



$$p(y_i \mid x_i; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

By independence assumption: $L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i \mid x_i; \theta) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\right)^n \exp\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\right)^n$

Probabilistic Interpretation of LMS

· Hence the log-likelihood is:

$$l(\theta) = n \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

• Do you recognize the last term?

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \theta - y_{i})^{2}$$
Yes it is:

• Thus under independence assumption, LMS is equivalent to MLE of θ !

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Non-linear Basis Function

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- So far we only used the observed values x_1, x_2, \dots
- However, linear regression can be applied in the same way to functions of these values
 - Eg: to add a term w x_1x_2 add a new variable $z=x_1x_2$ so each example becomes: $x_1, x_2, \, \ldots, \, z$
- As long as these functions can be directly computed from the observed values the parameters are still linear in the data and the problem remains a multi-variate linear regression problem

$$y = w_0 + w_1 x_1^2 + ... + w_k x_k^2 + \varepsilon$$

Non-linear Basis Functions

• What type of functions can we use?
• A few common examples:

• Polynomial: $\Delta(x) = x^{j}$ for i = 0. n• Gaussian:
• $\phi_{j}(x) = \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu_{j})^{2}}{2x^{2}}\right\}$ • Sigmoid: $\phi_{j}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-S_{j}X)}$ • Logs: $\phi_{j}(x) = \log(x+1)$

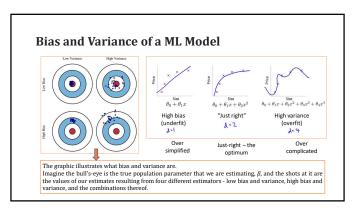
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General Linear Regression Problem

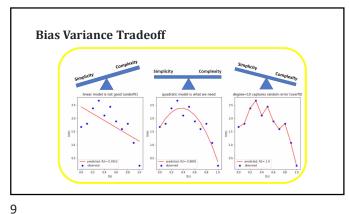
 Using our new notations for the basis function linear regression can be written as

$$y = \sum_{j=0}^{n} w_{j} \phi_{j}(\mathbf{x})$$

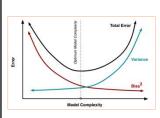
- Where φ_j(x) can be either x_j for multivariate regression or one of the non-linear basis functions we defined
- ... and $\phi_0(\mathbf{x})=1$ for the intercept term



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Regularized Regression



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- The OLS estimator has the desired property of being unbiased.
- However, it can have a huge variance. Specifically, this happens when:
- The predictor variables are highly correlated with each other;
- There are many predictors. if number pf predictors approaches total number of samples then variance approaches infinity.
- The general solution to this is: reduce variance at the cost of introducing some bias.
- This approach is called **regularization** and is almost always beneficial for the predictive performance of the model.

Regularized Regression

- As the model complexity, which in the case of linear regression can be thought of as the number of predictors, increases, estimates' variance also increases, but the bias decreases.
- \bullet The unbiased OLS would place us on the right-hand side of the picture, which is far from optimal.
- $\bullet\,\mbox{That's}$ why we regularize: to lower the variance at the cost of some bias, thus moving left on the plot, towards the optimum.

Regularization

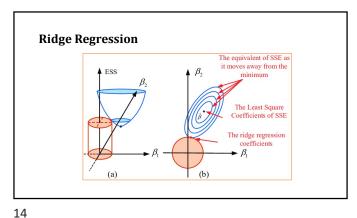
- Penalize large coefficients (controlling the importance of a feature)
- Making some coefficients zero (e.g. Lasso) the feature vanishes (effect of feature selection and dimension reduction)
- Controls model overfitting by not giving too much importance to any of the features. e.g. Ridge makes coefficients small.
- Feature selection also helps the model be trained on relatively less number of features (lower dimensional feature vectors). Faster training - training possible with relatively less amount of data.

Ridge Regression

Ridge regression penalizes **sum of squared** coefficients (L2 penalty). • Adds an L2 regularizer to Linear Regression $J_{\mathrm{RR}}(\theta) = J(\theta) + \frac{\lambda ||\theta||_2^2}{\lambda ||\theta||_2^2}$ $= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\theta^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2 + \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\theta_k^2}{\theta_k^2}$

• Bayesian interpretation: MAP estimation with a **Gaussian prior** on the parameters

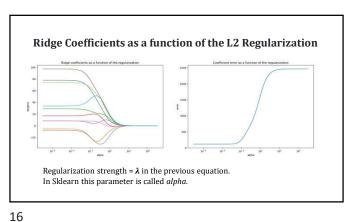
$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{MAP} &= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) + \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} J_{RR}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{aligned} \quad \overset{\text{where}}{\underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{\lambda})}}$$



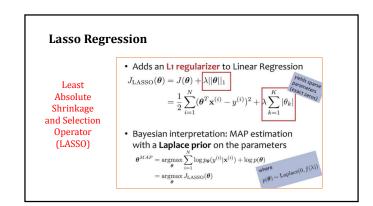
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Ridge Regression

- The $\pmb{\lambda}$ parameter is the regularization penalty.
- Notice that:
- As $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ $\theta_{ridge} \rightarrow \theta_{OLS}$
- As $\lambda \to \infty$ $\theta_{ridge} \to 0$
- So, setting λ to 0 is the same as using the OLS, while the larger its value, the stronger is the coefficients' size penalized.
- \bullet as λ becomes larger, the variance decreases, and the bias increases.
- How much bias are we willing to accept in order to decrease the variance? In other words, what is the optimal value for λ ?



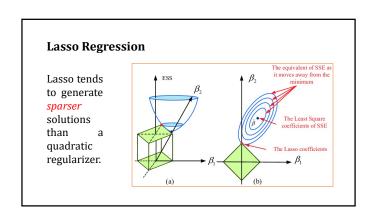
Model Coefficients
Shrinkage with Ridge



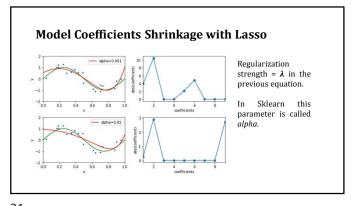
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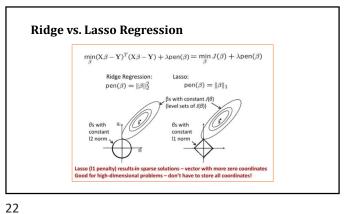
Lasso Regression

- Lasso, or Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator, is quite similar conceptually to ridge regression.
- It also adds a penalty for non-zero coefficients, but unlike ridge regression which penalizes sum of squared coefficients (L2 penalty), lasso penalizes the sum of their absolute values (L1 penalty).
- \bullet As a result, for high values of $\lambda,$ many coefficients are exactly zeroed under lasso, which is never the case in ridge regression.



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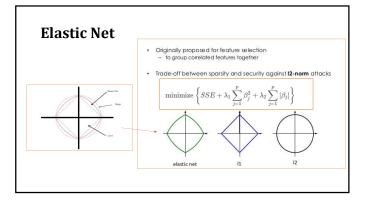
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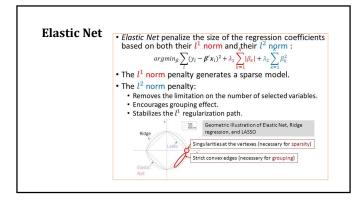
Regularized Least Squares $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\{t_n-\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2+\frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{M}|w_j|^q$

Ridge vs. Lasso Regression

- Often neither one is overall better.
- Lasso can set some coefficients to zero, thus performing variable selection, while ridge regression cannot.
- Both methods allow to use correlated predictors, but they solve multicollinearity issue differently:
 - In ridge regression, the coefficients of correlated predictors are similar;
 - In lasso, one of the correlated predictors has a larger coefficient, while the rest are (nearly) zeroed.
- Lasso tends to do well if there are a small number of significant parameters and the others are close to zero (ergo: when only a few predictors actually influence the response).
- Ridge works well if there are many large parameters of about the same value (ergo: when most predictors impact the response).
- However, in practice, we don't know the true parameter values, so the previous two points are somewhat theoretical. Just run cross-validation to select the more suited model for a specific case.
- Or... combine the two!

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Elastic Net

- Elastic Net first emerged as a result of critique on lasso, whose variable selection can be too dependent on data and thus unstable. The solution is to combine the penalties of ridge regression and lasso to get the best of both worlds.
- \bullet Elastic Net aims at minimizing a loss function that involves both L1 and L2 penalty terms.

Penalty Term =
$$\lambda \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \hat{\beta}_{j}^{2} + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\hat{\beta}_{j}| \right)$$

Here λ is the regularization parameter – controls the degree of regularization. α is the parameter controlling the influence of the L1 vs. L2 penalty. β_j are the model parameters/coefficients.

Optimal value of λ

• λ is a hyperparameter o the model.

• To choose λ through cross-validation, you should choose a set of values (denote by p in the algorithm) of λ to test, split the dataset into K folds, and follow this algorithm:

• for p in FP:

• for k in FK:

• keep fold k as hold-out data

• use the remaining folds and $\lambda = \lambda_{p}$ to estimate $\hat{\beta}_{ridge}$ • predict hold-out data: $y_{test,k} = X_{test,k} \hat{\beta}_{ridge}$ • compute a sum of squared residuals: $SSR_{k} = ||y - y_{test,k}||^{2}$ • end for k

• average SSR over the folds: $SSR_{p} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} SSR_{k}$ • end for p

• choose optimal value: $\lambda_{opt} = argmin_{p}SSR_{p}$

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Summary

- If your linear model contains many predictor variables or if these variables are correlated, the standard OLS parameter estimates have large variance, thus making the model unreliable.
- To counter this, you can use regularization a technique allowing to decrease this variance at the
 cost of introducing some bias. Finding a good bias-variance trade-off allows to minimize the
 model's total error.
- There are three popular regularization techniques, each of them aiming at decreasing the size of the coefficients:
 - Ridge Regression, which penalizes sum of squared coefficients (L2 penalty).
 - Lasso Regression, which penalizes the sum of absolute values of the coefficients (L1 penalty).
 - Elastic Net, a convex combination of Ridge and Lasso.
- The size of the respective penalty terms can be tuned via cross-validation to find the model's best fit.

How to *build* a Regularized Regression Model in *Scikit-Learn*

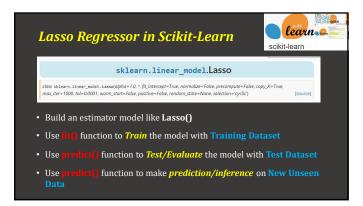
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Ridge Regressor in Scikit-Learn sklearn.linear_model.Ridge class sklearn.linear_model.Ridge() class sklearn.linear_model.Ridge() Build an estimator model like Ridge() Use fit() function to Train the model with Training Dataset Use predict() function to Test/Evaluate the model with Test Dataset Use predict() function to make prediction/inference on New Unseen Data

```
Example Code

>>> from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge
>>> import numpy as np
>>> n_samples, n_features = 10, 5
>>> rng = np.random.RandomState(0)
>>> y = rng.randn(n_samples)
>>> X = rng.randn(n_samples, n_features)
>>> clf = Ridge(alpha=1.0)
>>> clf.fit(X, y)
Ridge()
```

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Example Code

>>> from sklearn import linear_model
>>> clf = linear_model.Lasso(alpha=0.1)
>>> clf.fit([[0,0], [1, 1], [2, 2]], [0, 1, 2])
Lasso(alpha=0.1)
>>> print(clf.coef_)
[0.85 0.]
>>> print(clf.intercept_)
0.15...

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```
| Sklearn.linear_model.ElasticNet | class skle
```

```
Example Code

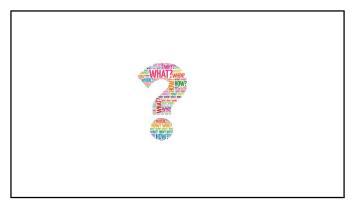
>>> from sklearn.linear_model import ElasticNet
>>> from sklearn.datasets import make_regression

>>> X, y = make_regression(n_features=2, random_state=0)
>>> regr = ElasticNet(random_state=0)
>>> regr.fit(X, y)
ElasticNet(random_state=0)
>>> print(regr.coef_)
[18.83816048 64.55968825]
>>> print(regr.intercept_)
1.451...
>>> print(regr.predict([[0, 0]]))
[1.451...]
```

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References

- Christopher Bishop, "Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning"; Springer.
- Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, Jerome Friedman; "The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction"; Springer.



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Go to the Coding Demo...

To be continued in the next session.....