# Explanatory Notes for 6.390

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# Regularization

So far, we've shown how to make the **best** model for our **training data**. But now, we want to move to our **real** goal: performing well on **test data**.

This means we want to make a model that is general: it can apply well to new data.

# Regularizers

Only focusing on training data is a **weakness** for our model - if by chance, we have a training data that doesn't **match** our overall distribution, we are likely to make a **bad model**.

**Example:** You flip **4 coins**, and get **3 heads**. You determine that this coin has a **75% chance** of landing heads. It turns out this **isn't true**: it's a fair coin, and you got **unlucky**.

We may need a **second** way to measure our performance: one that focuses **less** on **current** performance, and **more** on predicting how **generalizable** it is.

sample size (flip more times), but for complex problems this isn't always an option!

You can also increase

We call this type of function a **regularizer**.

#### **Definition 1**

A **regularizer** is an added term to our **loss function** that helps measure how **general** our hypothesis is.

By **optimizing** with this term, we hope to create a model that works better with **new** data.

This function takes in our vector of parameters  $\Theta$  as an input:  $R(\Theta)$ 

**Example:** You figure that the coin is **equally likely** to bias towards heads or tails: even if it's **weighted**, you don't know **which way**. So, you start with **50-50** odds, and **adjust** that based on evidence.

Instead of just focusing on the **specific** data for our coin, we consider how coins act in **general**.

#### **Regularizer for Regression: Prior Knowledge**

Now, the question is, **how** do we choose our regularizer? What will make our model more **general**?

We want to **resist** the effects of random **chance**, like in the **coin** example above. In that example, we improved our guess by starting with a **prior assumption**.

If you have some **previous** guess, or past experience, you might have some **model** you **expect** to work well: the data has to **convince** you otherwise.

So, we might consider a model **more different** from that past one,  $\Theta_{prior}$ , to be **suspicious**, and less likely to be good.

#### Concept 2

If we have a **prior** hypothesis  $\Theta_{\text{prior}}$  to work with, we might improve our **new** model by encouraging it to be **closer** to the old one.

$$R(\Theta) = \|\Theta - \Theta_{prior}\|^2$$

We measure how similar they are using square distance.

**Example:** You have a **pretty good** model for **predicting** company profits, but it isn't perfect. You decide to train a **better** one, but you expect it to be **similar** to your old one.

# Regularizer for Regression: No Prior Hypothesis

But, what if we **don't have** a prior hypothesis? What if we have **no clue** what a **good** solution looks like?

Well, just like in the **coin** example, we don't expect it to be **more likely** to be **weighted** towards heads or tails.

So, even if we **didn't know** most coins are fair coins, we still would've chosen **50-50** as our guess.

In this case, as far as we know, every  $\theta_k$  term is **equally likely** to be **positive or negative** - we have no clue.

So, **on average**, we could push for it to be **closer to zero**, so it doesn't drift in any direction too strongly.

#### **Key Equation 3**

In general, our regularizer for regression will be given by square magnitude of  $\theta$ :

$$R(\Theta) = \|\theta\|^2 = \theta \cdot \theta$$

This approach is called **Ridge Regression**.

# We'll discuss why it's called "ridge" regression once we find our solution.

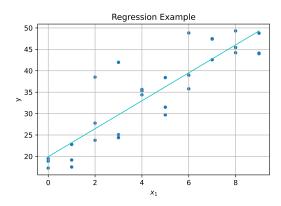
# Why not include $\theta_0$ ?

One thing you might immediately notice is that we used the magnitude of  $\theta$  instead of  $\Theta$ : this omits  $\theta_0$ . Why would we do that?

We'll show that we need to **allow** the **offset** to have whatever value works best, and we shouldn't **punish** it.

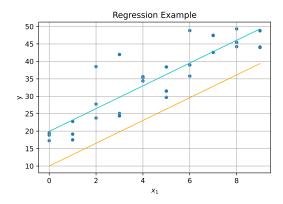
This is best shown with a **visual** example. Let's take an example with one input  $x_1$ . So, we have a **linear** function:  $h(x) = \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_0$ .

For simplicity, we won't do any regularization here: we can make our point without it.



Our regression example.

Let's suppose we **push** for a **much lower** (offset)  $\theta_0$  term, while keeping everything else the **same**:



Reducing our offset pulls our line further away from all of our data! That's not helpful.

This shows that we **need** our offset! We use it to **slide** our hyperplane around the space: if all of our data is **far** from (0,0), we need to be able to **move** our **entire line**.

And regularizing  $\theta_1$  wouldn't make this any better: it would just be flatter.

So, we'll keep  $\theta_0$  **separate** and **allow** it to take whatever value is **best**.

#### Concept 4

We do not regularize our offset term,  $\theta_0$ .

Instead, we allow  $\theta_0$  to shift our hyperplane wherever it needs to be.

The other terms  $\theta$  control the **orientation** of the hyperplane: the **direction** it is **facing**. We **regularize** this to push it towards less "complicated" orientations.

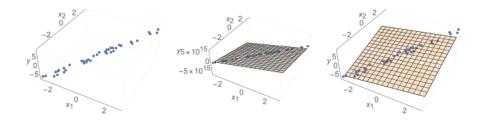
This will be discussed more in-depth in the Classification chapter!

# A second benefit of regularization

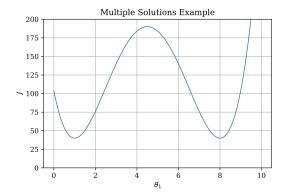
Another benefit of regularization is that it solves a second problem: having **multiple optimal solutions**.

If we have **multiple** best outcomes, we have to pick which one to **choose**. We can make this choice by **picking** the one with the **smallest** magnitude.

We can **visualize** the problem of "multiple best solutions" a couple different ways:



There are many planes that can go through this line: multiple equally good solutions!



This compares different hypotheses  $(\theta_1)$  and sees how well they perform (J): two are equally good!

Either way, we can pick a solution based on lowest  $\theta$  magnitude!

# A Math Perspective: Unique Solutions

We can also view this problem more **mathematically**.

Let's look at our analytical solution:

$$\theta = \left(XX^{\mathsf{T}}\right)^{-1}XY^{\mathsf{T}}\tag{1}$$

This solution only works if  $(XX^T)^{-1}$  is **valid**. But we have a problem: **not all matrices** have **inverses**.

If  $XX^T$  has a **determinant** of **zero**, then we cannot find an inverse.

Without an inverse, we have **no unique solution**! This is a problem.

This is one thing our **regularizer**  $R(\Theta)$  helps us solve: we'll see that our **new solution** will not have this problem!

This is an important idea in linear algebra! If you don't know what this means, here's a great video.

The reason will be clear in the **algebra**, but it's **equivalent** to the reason we discussed the above: we take the best **models** that are all **equally good**, and pick the one with **lowest magnitude**.

#### **Concept 5**

Ridge Regression helps improve our model by

- Making our model more general and resistant to overfitting
- Making sure solutions are unique
- Keeping our matrix XX<sup>T</sup> invertible, so we can find a solution.

## Lambda, a.k.a. λ

We now have a term that can help us choose a more **general** hypothesis. One important question is, **how general** do we want it to be?

The more general we make our model, the **less specific** to our current data it is. This may seem like a good thing, but too much can make our model **worse**!

If  $\lambda$  is **too large**, then your model will stay **very close** to  $\|\theta\| = 0$ . This probably isn't a good solution for most cases.

But if it's **too small**, then it **won't** have enough of an **effect**. So, we need to be able to adjust how **much** we're regularizing.

To do this, we will **scale** our regularizer by a **constant** factor,  $\lambda$ .

#### **Definition 6**

**Lambda**, or  $\lambda$ , is the constant we scale our regularizer by.

It represents how strongly we want to regularize: how much we prioritize general understanding over specific understanding.

# Our new objective function

Now that we have our regularizer,

$$R(\Theta) = \lambda \|\theta\|^2 \tag{2}$$

We can add it to our objective function:

MIT 6.036 Spring 2022 6

### **Key Equation 7**

The objective function for ridge regression is given as

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \underbrace{(\theta^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + \theta_{0})}_{\text{guess}} - \underbrace{\mathbf{y}^{(i)}}_{\text{answer}} \right)^{2} + \underbrace{\lambda \|\theta\|^{2}}_{\text{Regularizer}}$$

This is the form we will **solve**.

# **Matrix Form Ridge Regression**

Just like before, we'll switch from a **sum** to a **matrix** in order to solve this problem.

Creating an **equation** for both  $\theta$  and  $\theta_0$  is, frankly, **annoying** to **derive**. **Instead**, we'll cheat a little, and keep  $\theta_0$  in and create our **matrix-form** objective function:

$$J = \frac{1}{n} (\tilde{X}\theta - \tilde{Y})^{\mathsf{T}} (\tilde{X}\theta - \tilde{Y}) + \lambda (\theta^{\mathsf{T}}\theta)$$
(3)

Our work begins. Let's take the **gradient**: what we want to set to zero.

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{J} = \frac{2}{n} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathsf{T}} \left( \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \theta - \tilde{\mathbf{Y}} \right) + 2\lambda \theta = 0 \tag{4}$$

We do some algebra and **solve** as we do in the **official notes**:

#### **Key Equation 8**

The solution for ridge regression optimization is

$$\theta = \left(\tilde{X}^T \tilde{X} + n\lambda I\right)^{-1} \tilde{X}^T \tilde{Y}$$

Or, in our original notation,

$$\theta = \left(XX^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathfrak{n}\lambda I\right)^{-1}XY^{\mathsf{T}}$$

### Our new term, nλI

So, we already established that **regularization** helps us create more **general** hypotheses that are lower in magnitude.

But, how does this mathematically solve our invertibility problem?

$$\theta = (XX^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathfrak{n}\lambda I)^{-1}XY^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{5}$$

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This term,  $n\lambda I$ , is added to the matrix we want to invert. Let's see what this matrix looks like. We'll use a  $(3 \times 3)$  example:

I is the **identity matrix** in our notation.

$$n\lambda I = n\lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = n \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$
 (6)

This visual, having a "ridge" of  $\lambda$ s along the diagonal, is why we call it ridge regression.

# Invertibility

This term  $n\lambda I$  shifts the values of  $XX^T$  so that we avoid having a determinant of zero.

Since the **determinant is nonzero**, we don't have to worry about an **uninvertible matrix**: we now have a **unique** inverse, and thus a **unique** solution.

#### **Concept 9**

**Ridge Regression** solves the problem of **matrix invertibility** (non-unique solutions) by adding a term  $n\lambda I$ , our **ridge** of diagonals.

This turns the inverse  $(XX^T)^{-1}$  into

$$(XX^T + n\lambda I)^{-1}$$

Which can prevent a **determinant** of zero in our solution, given  $\lambda > 0$ .