

Ridge Regression

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Outline

1. Motivation: The Problem of Overfitting
2. Ridge Regression Formulation
3. Mathematical Derivation
4. Hyperparameter Selection
5. Examples and Applications
6. Implementation Details

Motivation: The Problem of Overfitting

The Problem: Overfitting in Linear Regression

Important: Overfitting Challenge

As model complexity increases (higher polynomial degree), we often observe:

- Training error decreases
- Test error increases
- Model coefficients become very large

The Problem: Overfitting in Linear Regression

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Key Points: Key Insight

Large coefficient magnitudes often indicate overfitting!

The Problem: Overfitting in Linear Regression

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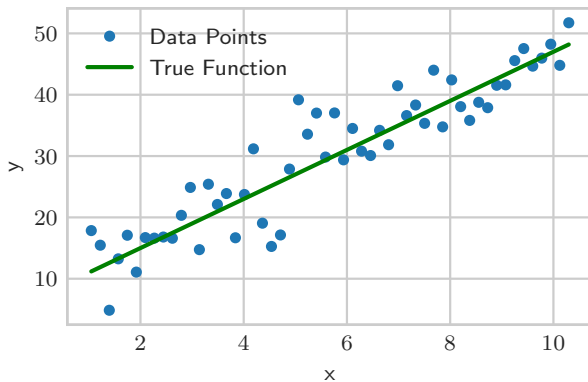
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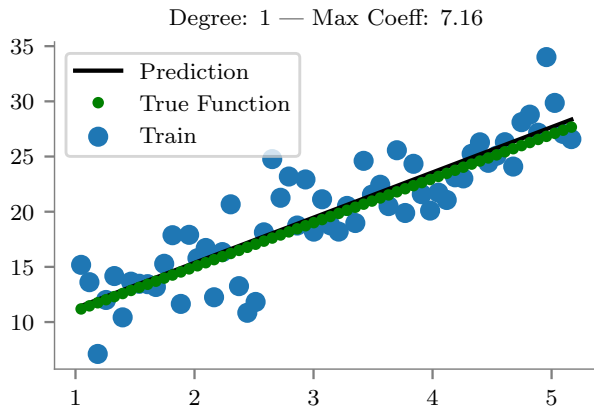
In polynomial $f(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots + c_dx^d$, watch $\max |c_i|$

Demonstration: Polynomial Degree vs Overfitting



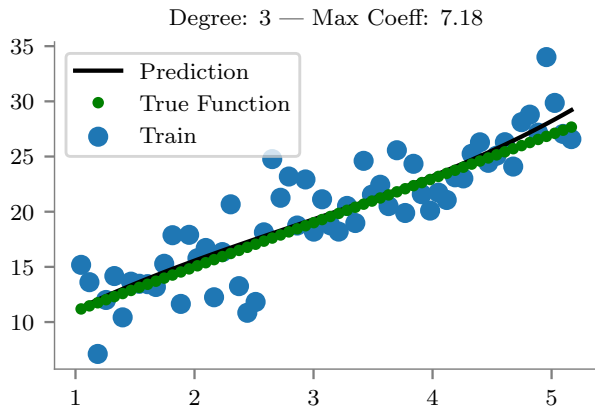
Base Data Set

Demonstration: Polynomial Degree vs Overfitting



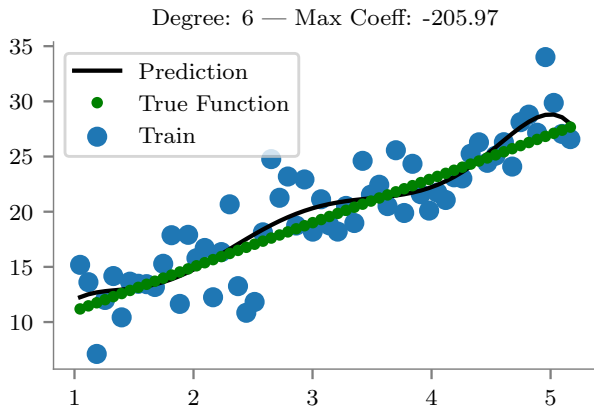
Fit with Degree 1 - Underfitting

Demonstration: Polynomial Degree vs Overfitting



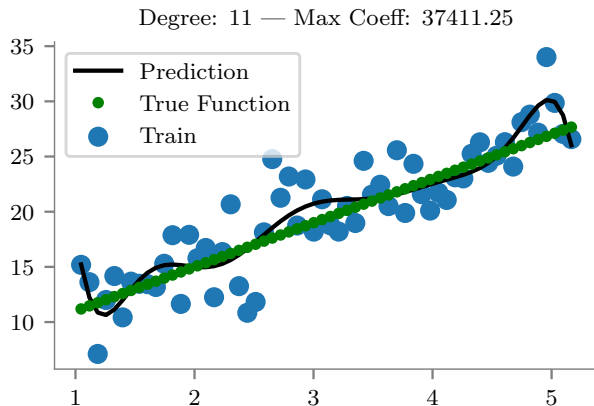
Fit with Degree 3 - Good Fit

Demonstration: Polynomial Degree vs Overfitting



Fit with Degree 6 - Starting to Overfit

Demonstration: Polynomial Degree vs Overfitting

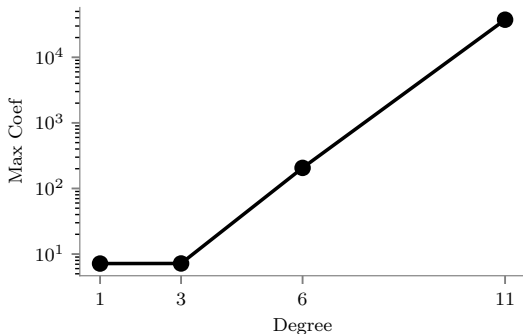


Fit with Degree 11 - Severe Overfitting

Coefficient Explosion with Overfitting

Key Points: Key Observation

As polynomial degree increases \rightarrow coefficients grow exponentially!



The Central Question

Important: Critical Question

How can we control coefficient magnitudes to prevent overfitting?

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How can we control coefficient magnitudes to prevent overfitting?

Key Points: Answer Preview

Ridge regression adds a penalty term to shrink coefficients!

Pop Quiz 1

Answer this!

Which statement about overfitting is TRUE?

- A) Higher polynomial degree always improves generalization
- B) Large coefficients indicate good model fit
- C) Overfitting occurs when training error \gg test error
- D) Overfitting occurs when training error \ll test error

Answer: Pop Quiz 1

Answer this!

D) Overfitting occurs when training error \ll test error

Explanation:

- Training error becomes very small (model memorizes training data)
- Test error remains large (model fails to generalize)
- Large gap indicates overfitting

Ridge Regression Formulation

Solution: Regularization

Theorem: Ridge Regression Approach

Add a penalty term to control coefficient magnitudes:

Solution: Regularization

Theorem: Ridge Regression Approach

Add a penalty term to control coefficient magnitudes:

Definition: Constrained Formulation

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \quad & (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} \leq S \end{aligned}$$

where $S > 0$ controls the size of the coefficient vector.

Lagrangian Formulation

Theorem: Equivalence Theorem

The constrained problem is equivalent to the unconstrained:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \quad (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ is the regularization parameter.

Lagrangian Formulation

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Key Points: Key Insight

This transforms a constrained optimization into an unconstrained one with a penalty term.

Understanding the Ridge Penalty

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \underbrace{(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\text{Fit to data (MSE)}} + \underbrace{\lambda \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{Penalty term}} \quad (1)$$

$$= \text{MSE}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2 \quad (2)$$

Understanding the Ridge Penalty

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Key Points: Key Components

- **Data fitting term:** Ensures good fit to training data
- **Regularization term:** L_2 penalty shrinks coefficients toward zero
- λ : Controls trade-off between fitting vs. regularization

Effect of Regularization Parameter λ

Key Points: Parameter Effects

- $\lambda = 0$: No regularization (standard linear regression)
- λ small: Light regularization (slight shrinkage)
- λ large: Heavy regularization (strong shrinkage)
- $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$: Extreme regularization (coefficients $\rightarrow 0$)

Effect of Regularization Parameter λ

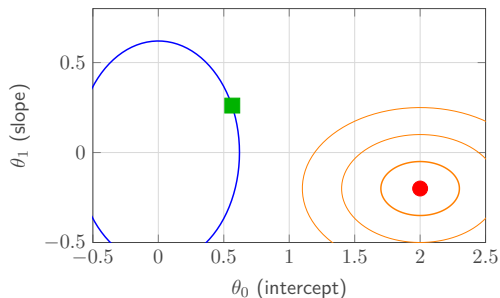
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Important: Key Trade-off

Higher λ = more regularization = more bias, less variance

Geometric Interpretation



??

Ridge solution where MSE contours touch constraint region

Key Points: Key Insight

Ridge finds the minimum MSE point within the constraint $\|\theta\|_2^2 \leq S$

Mathematical Derivation

Mathematical Derivation: Step 1

Step 1: Set up the Lagrangian

For the constrained optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \quad & (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} \leq S \end{aligned}$$

The Lagrangian is:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} - S)$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ is the Lagrange multiplier.

Mathematical Derivation: Step 2

Step 2: Apply KKT Conditions

For optimality, we need:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = 0 \quad (\text{stationarity}) \quad (3)$$

$$\lambda \geq 0 \quad (\text{dual feasibility}) \quad (4)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} - S \leq 0 \quad (\text{primal feasibility}) \quad (5)$$

$$\lambda(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} - S) = 0 \quad (\text{complementary slackness}) \quad (6)$$

Mathematical Derivation: Step 2

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Key Points: Two Cases

- **Case 1:** $\lambda = 0 \Rightarrow$ No constraint active (standard OLS)
- **Case 2:** $\lambda > 0 \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} = S$ (constraint is tight)

Mathematical Derivation: Step 3

Step 3: Compute the Gradient

Taking the derivative of the Lagrangian with respect to θ :

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left[(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\theta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\theta) + \lambda \theta^T \theta \right] \quad (7)$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left[\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - 2\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{X}\theta + \theta^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\theta + \lambda \theta^T \theta \right] \quad (8)$$

$$= -2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\theta + 2\lambda \theta \quad (9)$$

Mathematical Derivation: Step 4

Step 4: Set Gradient to Zero

Setting $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = 0$:

$$-2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \theta + 2\lambda \theta = 0 \quad (10)$$

$$-\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \theta = 0 \quad (11)$$

$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \theta = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \quad (12)$$

Mathematical Derivation: Step 4

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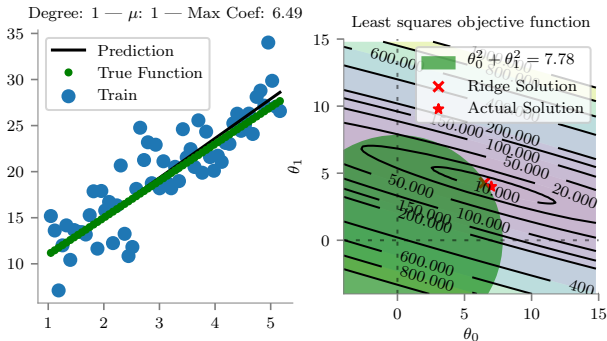
$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \theta = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \quad (12)$$

Theorem: Ridge Regression Solution

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

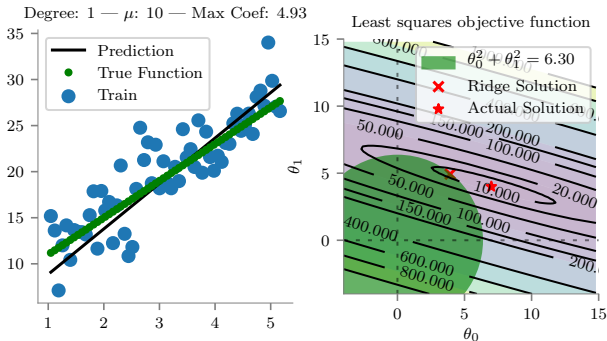
Compare with OLS: $\hat{\theta}_{\text{OLS}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$

Effect of Regularization Parameter λ



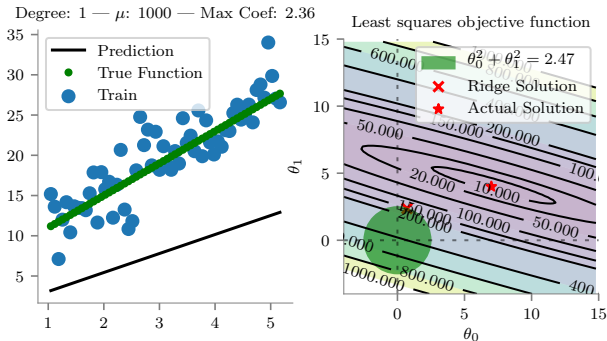
$\lambda = 1$ - Mild Regularization

Effect of Regularization Parameter λ



$\lambda = 10$ - Moderate Regularization

Effect of Regularization Parameter λ



$\lambda = 1000$ - Heavy Regularization

Pop Quiz 2

Answer this!

What happens to the Ridge regression solution as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$?

- A) Coefficients approach the OLS solution
- B) Coefficients approach zero
- C) Solution becomes undefined
- D) Training error becomes zero

Answer: Pop Quiz 2

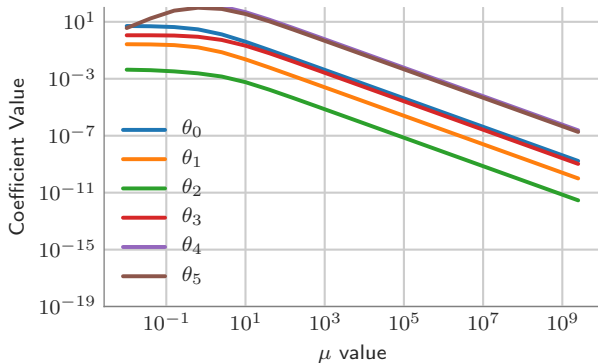
Answer this!

B) Coefficients approach zero

As $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, the penalty term dominates:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \approx \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$$

Coefficient Shrinkage: Visual Evidence

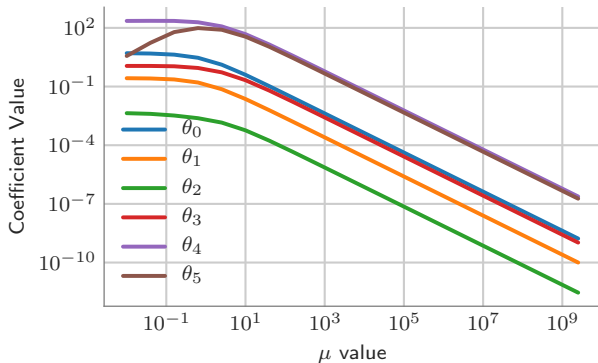


Coefficient Magnitudes vs λ (Real Estate Dataset)

Important: Important Question

Do coefficients ever become exactly zero?

Ridge Coefficient Behavior



Ridge Coefficients Shrink but Never Reach Zero

Ridge vs. Lasso: Key Difference

Key Points: Coefficient Behavior Comparison

- **Ridge (L_2):** Coefficients shrink toward zero but remain non-zero
- **Lasso (L_1):** Coefficients can become exactly zero (feature selection)

Ridge vs. Lasso: Key Difference

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Important: Important Insight

Ridge provides shrinkage, Lasso provides selection!

Ridge Regression Solution

Theorem: Ridge Solution Formula

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Key Property 1: Always Invertible

Theorem: Invertibility Guarantee

$(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I})$ is always positive definite for $\lambda > 0$

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Key Points: Why This Matters

- No singularity issues (unlike OLS)
- Always has unique solution
- Handles multi-collinearity gracefully

Key Property 2: Coefficient Shrinkage

Theorem: Shrinkage Effect

Ridge regression shrinks coefficients toward zero (but not exactly zero)

Key Property 2: Coefficient Shrinkage

Theorem: Shrinkage Effect

Ridge regression shrinks coefficients toward zero (but not exactly zero)

Key Points: Shrinkage Benefits

- Reduces overfitting
- Stabilizes coefficient estimates
- Improves generalization

Key Property 3: Bias-Variance Trade-off

Theorem: Trade-off Effect

Ridge regression increases bias but reduces variance

Key Property 3: Bias-Variance Trade-off

Theorem: Trade-off Effect

Ridge regression increases bias but reduces variance

Key Points: Net Effect

- Total error often decreases
- Better generalization to new data
- Controlled by λ parameter

Hyperparameter Selection

Choosing the Regularization Parameter λ

Important: Hyperparameter Selection

How do we choose the optimal value of λ ?

Choosing the Regularization Parameter λ

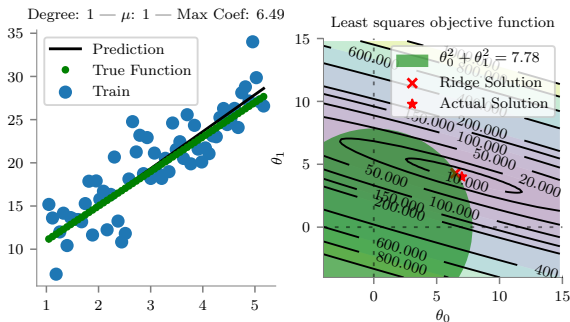
Important: Hyperparameter Selection

How do we choose the optimal value of λ ?

Theorem: Cross-Validation Approach

1. Split data into training and validation sets (k-fold CV)
2. For each candidate λ value:
 - Train ridge model on training data
 - Compute validation error
3. Select λ that minimizes validation error
4. Retrain on full dataset with chosen λ

Cross-Validation for Ridge Regression



Cross-validation curve showing optimal λ

Key Points: CV Pattern

- Small λ : Overfitting Large λ : Underfitting
- Optimal λ : Best trade-off

Bias-Variance Trade-off in Ridge Regression

Theorem: Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\text{Total Error} = \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance} + \text{Irreducible Error}$$

Bias-Variance Trade-off in Ridge Regression

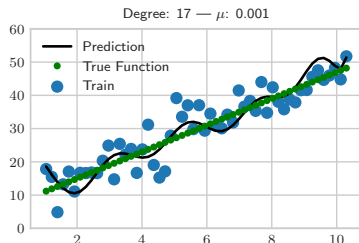
Theorem: Bias-Variance Decomposition

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Key Points: Ridge Effect

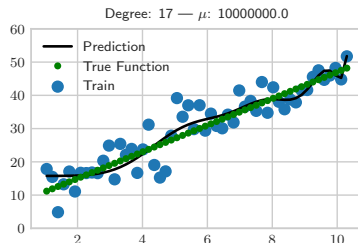
Regularization increases bias but reduces variance, often leading to lower total error.

Small vs Large Regularization



Small λ ($\lambda \rightarrow 0$):

- Low bias
- High variance
- Risk of overfitting



Large λ ($\lambda \rightarrow \infty$):

- High bias
- Low variance
- Risk of underfitting

Pop Quiz 3

Answer this!

In ridge regression, as we increase λ , what happens to model bias and variance?

- A) Both bias and variance increase
- B) Both bias and variance decrease
- C) Bias increases, variance decreases
- D) Bias decreases, variance increases

Answer: Pop Quiz 3

Answer this!

C) Bias increases, variance decreases

Explanation:

- Increasing λ constrains coefficients more severely
- Model becomes simpler (higher bias)
- Less sensitive to training data variations (lower variance)
- This is the fundamental bias-variance trade-off!

Examples and Applications

Worked Example: Setup

Example: Ridge Regression Example

Given the following simple dataset, compare OLS vs. Ridge regression with $\lambda = 2$:

Data: $(x_1, y_1) = (1, 1)$, $(x_2, y_2) = (2, 2)$, $(x_3, y_3) = (3, 3)$,
 $(x_4, y_4) = (4, 0)$

Model: $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$

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Model: $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$

Step 1: Set up matrices

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Worked Example: OLS Setup

Step 2: Ordinary Least Squares

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{OLS}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y})$$

Worked Example: OLS Setup

Step 2: Ordinary Least Squares

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{OLS}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y})$$

Step 3: Compute matrix products

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 10 \\ 10 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

Worked Example: Matrix Inverse

Step 4: Compute the inverse

For $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 10 \\ 10 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$:

$$\det(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}) = 4 \cdot 30 - 10 \cdot 10 = 20$$

$$(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 30 & -10 \\ -10 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Worked Example: OLS Calculation

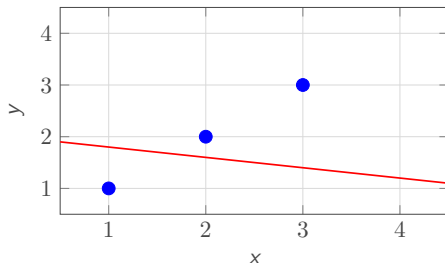
Step 5: Final matrix multiplication

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta}_{\text{OLS}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 30 & -10 \\ -10 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 180 - 140 \\ -60 + 56 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 40 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.0 \\ -0.2 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

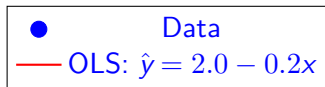
OLS Final Result

Theorem: OLS Result

$$\hat{y} = 2.0 - 0.2x \quad (\text{No regularization})$$



OLS fit to our example data



Worked Example: Ridge Setup

Step 5: Ridge regression with $\lambda = 2$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y})$$

Worked Example: Ridge Setup

Step 5: Ridge regression with $\lambda = 2$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y})$$

Step 6: Add regularization term

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I} &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 10 \\ 10 & 30 \end{bmatrix} + 2\mathbf{I} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 10 \\ 10 & 32 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Worked Example: Matrix Inverse

Step 7: Compute inverse

$$\det(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I}) = 6 \cdot 32 - 10 \cdot 10 = 92$$

$$(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda\mathbf{I})^{-1} = \frac{1}{92} \begin{bmatrix} 32 & -10 \\ -10 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Worked Example: Ridge Calculation

Step 8: Matrix multiplication

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{ridge}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{92} \begin{bmatrix} 32 & -10 \\ -10 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Worked Example: Ridge Calculation

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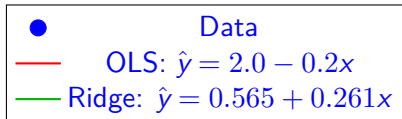
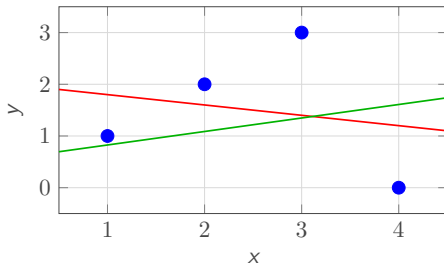
Step 9: Compute products

$$\begin{aligned}&= \frac{1}{92} \begin{bmatrix} 32 \cdot 6 + (-10) \cdot 14 \\ (-10) \cdot 6 + 6 \cdot 14 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{92} \begin{bmatrix} 192 - 140 \\ -60 + 84 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{92} \begin{bmatrix} 52 \\ 24 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.565 \\ 0.261 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Ridge vs OLS: Final Comparison

Theorem: Ridge Result

$$\hat{y} = 0.565 + 0.261x \quad (\text{With } \lambda = 2)$$



Ridge regression provides more stable coefficients

Coefficient Magnitude Comparison

Theorem: OLS vs Ridge: $\sum \theta_i^2$

- **OLS:** $\theta_{OLS} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.0 \\ -0.2 \end{bmatrix}$
- **Ridge:** $\theta_{Ridge} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.565 \\ 0.261 \end{bmatrix}$

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Coefficient Norm Comparison

$$\|\theta_{OLS}\|_2^2 = (2.0)^2 + (-0.2)^2 = 4.0 + 0.04 = 4.04 \quad (13)$$

$$\|\theta_{Ridge}\|_2^2 = (0.565)^2 + (0.261)^2 = 0.319 + 0.068 = 0.387 \quad (14)$$

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Multi-collinearity

$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$ is not computable when $|\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}| = 0$.
This was a drawback of using linear regression

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix \mathbf{X} is not full rank.

Ridge Solution to Multi-collinearity

Key Points: Ridge Advantage

With ridge regression, we invert $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \mu\mathbf{I}$ instead of $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$

$$\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \mu\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 + \mu & 6 & 12 \\ 6 & 14 + \mu & 28 \\ 12 & 28 & 56 + \mu \end{bmatrix}$$

Why Ridge Fixes Singularity

Theorem: Key Result

The matrix $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \mu\mathbf{I}$ is always full rank for $\mu > 0$

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Important: Another Interpretation

Ridge regression = regularization = fixing singularity issues!

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Important: Another Interpretation

Ridge regression = regularization = fixing singularity issues!

Key Points: Summary

Ridge regression elegantly handles multi-collinearity problems!

Extension of the analytical model

For ridge with no penalty on θ_0

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \mu \mathbf{I}^*)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

where,

$$\mathbf{I}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Implementation Details

Ridge Regression via Gradient Descent

Theorem: Gradient Descent Update Rule

Standard gradient descent step for ridge regression:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \alpha \nabla J(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$$

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Ridge Gradient Computation

$$\nabla J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \nabla \left[\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2 \right] \quad (15)$$

$$= -\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda\boldsymbol{\theta} \quad (16)$$

$$= -\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} + \lambda\boldsymbol{\theta} \quad (17)$$

Ridge vs OLS: Gradient Descent Updates

Theorem: Ridge Update (with shrinkage)

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} &= \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \alpha(-\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} + \lambda \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) \\ &= (1 - \alpha\lambda) \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \alpha(-\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})\end{aligned}$$

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Key Points: Key Insight

The $(1 - \alpha\lambda)$ factor **shrinks** coefficients at each step!

Summary: What We Learned

Key Points: Ridge Regression Key Points

- **Problem:** Overfitting in linear regression with large coefficients
- **Solution:** Add L_2 penalty $\lambda \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2$ to loss function
- **Effect:** Shrinks coefficients, improves generalization
- **Trade-off:** Higher bias, lower variance

Key Formula & Next Steps

Theorem: Ridge Regression Solution

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

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Important: Next Steps

- Compare with Lasso regression (L_1 penalty)
- Explore elastic net (combines L_1 and L_2)
- Apply to real-world datasets