

Regularization

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Sensitivity: how to detect overfitting in order to prevent it

- consider a linear predictor

$$f(x) = w_0 + w_1x[1] + w_2x[2] + \cdots + w_dx[d]$$

- if $|w_i|$ is large then the predictor is very **sensitive** to small changes in x_i lead to large changes in the prediction
- large sensitivity can lead to overfitting and poor generalization or models that overfit tend to have large sensitivity
- for $x[0] = 1$ there is no sensitivity, as it is a constant
- This suggests that we would like w or ($w_{1:d}$ if $x[0] = 1$) not to be large

Regularizer

- we measure the size of w using a **regularizer** function $r : \mathbf{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$
- $r(w)$ is the measure of the size of w (or $w_{1:d}$)
- **quadratic regularizer** (a.k.a L2 or sum-of-squares)

$$r(w) = \|w\|^2 = w_1^2 + w_2^2 + \cdots + w_d^2$$

- **absolute value regularizer** (a.k.a. L1)

$$r(w) = \|w\|_1 = |w_1| + |w_2| + \cdots + |w_d|$$

- What is wrong with

$$r(w) = w_1 + w_2 + \cdots + w_d$$

Adding a regularizer to the loss

- we want small empirical risk (without normalization by $\frac{1}{n}$)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

- we want small sensitivity

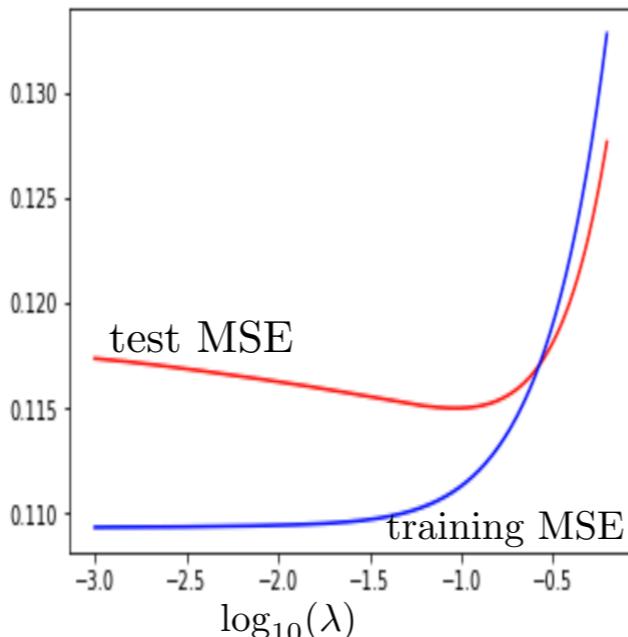
$$r(w)$$

- these two objectives are traded off via regularized loss

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 + \lambda r(w)$$

- $\lambda \geq 0$ is the **regularization parameter** (or **hyper parameter**) and is one of the most relevant hyper parameter to tune in training
- solve the optimization problem for a choice of $r(w)$ to choose w that minimizes the regularized loss

- minimize_w $\sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 + \lambda r(w)$
- when $\lambda = 0$ this reduces to the standard quadratic loss
- this defines a **family** of predictors, each (hyper)-parametrized by λ
- in practice, we try out tens of values of λ in a wide range
- we use validation to choose the right λ
- we choose the largest λ that gives near minimum test error, that is least sensitive predictor that generalizes well



to be precise, this process is flawed and we should use a more principled way using cross-validation (which is at the end of this chapter)

Ridge regression

- **ridge regression**: quadratic loss and quadratic regularizer
- also called **Tykhonov regularized least squares**

$$\mathcal{L}(w) + \lambda r(w) = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2}_{\|\mathbf{X}w - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2} + \underbrace{\lambda \sum_{j=1}^d w_j^2}_{\|w\|_2^2}$$

$$\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}} = \arg \min_w \mathcal{L}(w) + \lambda r(w)$$

- the optimal solution is also analytical (or closed-form)

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

where $\mathbf{I}_{d \times d}$ is the d-dimensional identity matrix

- this follows from the fact that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(w) + \lambda r(w) &= \|\mathbf{X}w - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|w\|_2^2 \\ &= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \lambda^{1/2} \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} w - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{0}_d \end{bmatrix} \right\|_2^2\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{I}_{d \times d}$ is the $d \times d$ -dimensional identity matrix, and $\mathbf{0}_d$ is the d -dimensional zero vector

- the gradient with respect to w is

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}^T & \lambda^{1/2} \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \lambda^{1/2} \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} w - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{0}_d \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

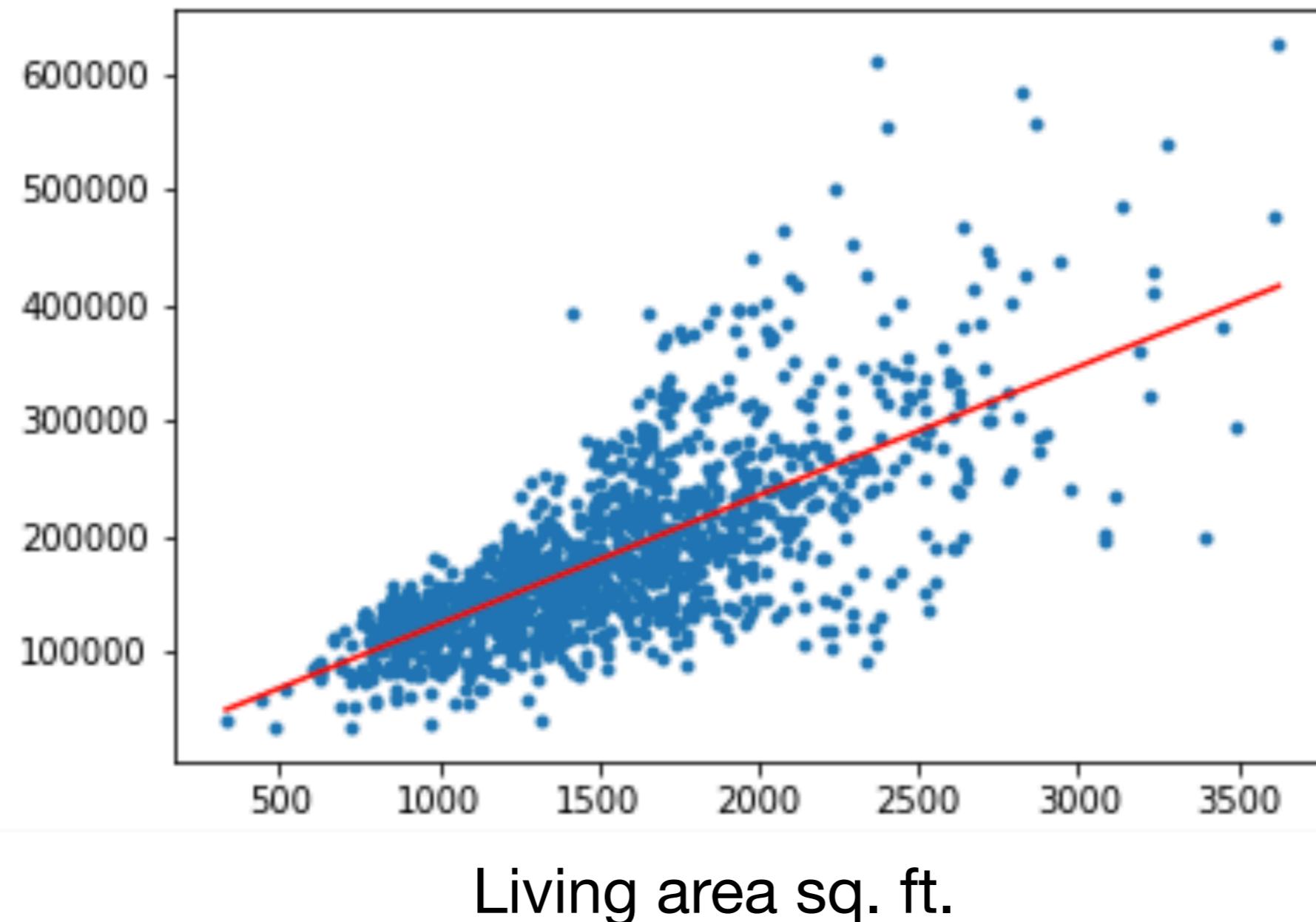
$$\begin{aligned}&= 2 \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} \right) w - 2 \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}^T & \lambda^{1/2} \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{0}_d \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 2 \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} \right) w - 2 \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}\end{aligned}$$

- Setting this gradient to zero, we get

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

Example: housing price (data from kaggle)

Sale price



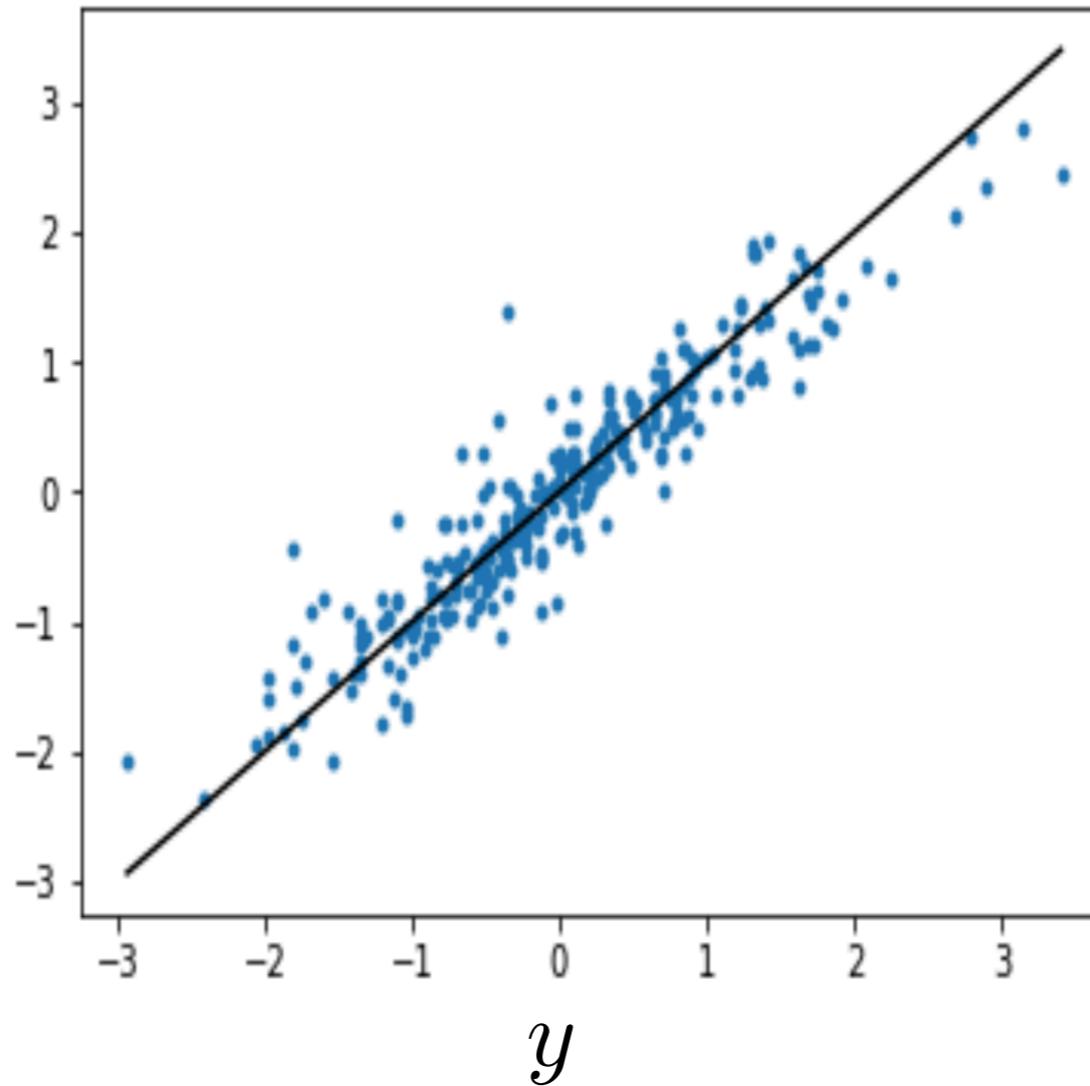
- sale prices of 1459 homes in Ames, Iowa from 2006 to 2010
- out of 80 features, we use 16
- we manually remove 4 outliers with $\text{area} > 4000 \text{ sq.ft.}$
we will learn outlier detection later

Input features

- house price input data:
 - area of living space
 - garage (no:0, yes:1)
 - year built
 - area of lot
 - year of last remodel
 - area of basement
 - area of first floor
 - area of second floor
 - number of bedrooms (above ground)
 - number of kitchens (above ground)
 - number of fireplaces
 - area of garage
 - area of wooden deck
 - number of half bathrooms
 - overall condition (1-10)
 - overall quality of materials and finish (1-10)
 - number of rooms (above ground)

Example: regression (with no regularization)

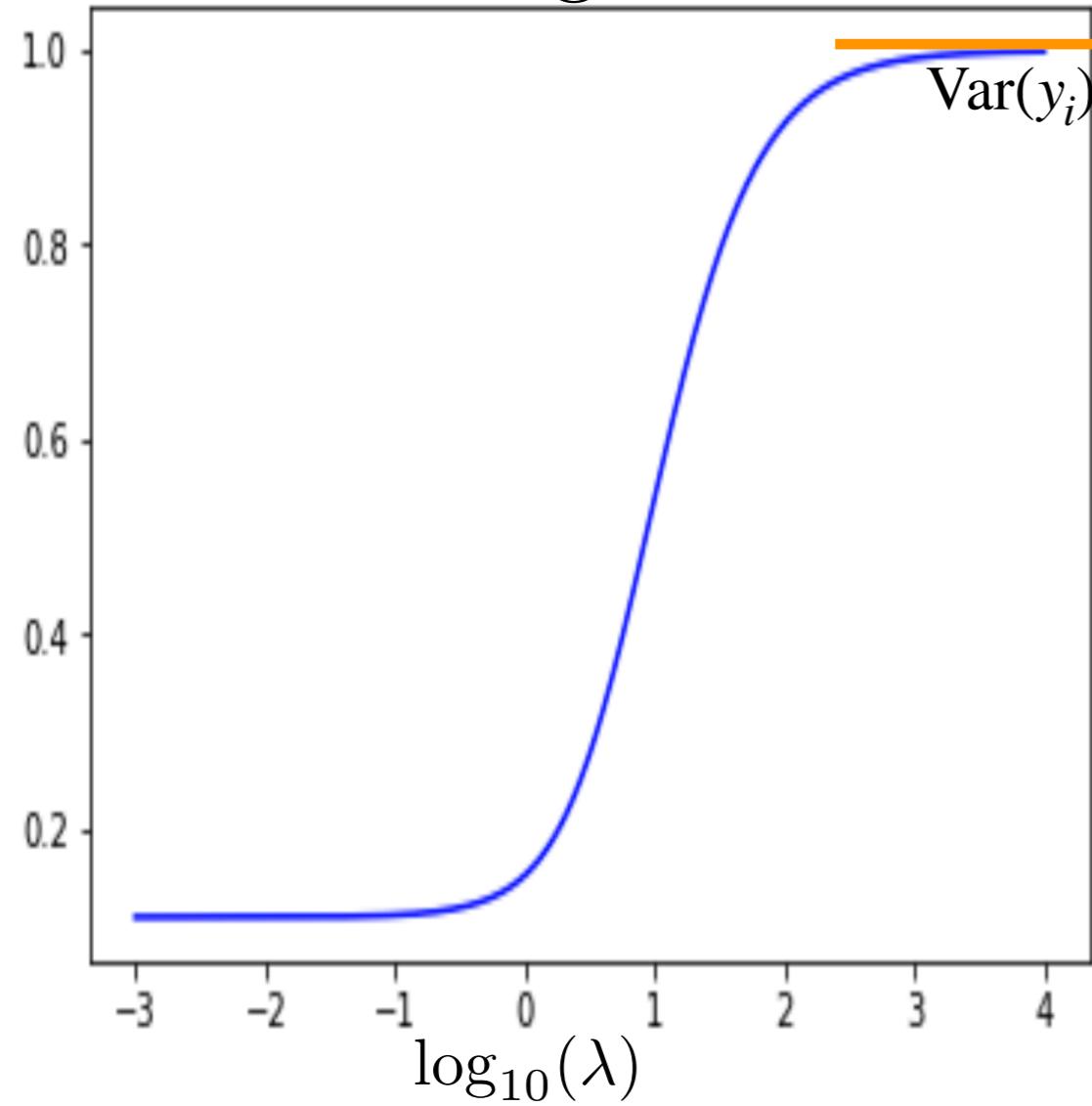
prediction \hat{y}



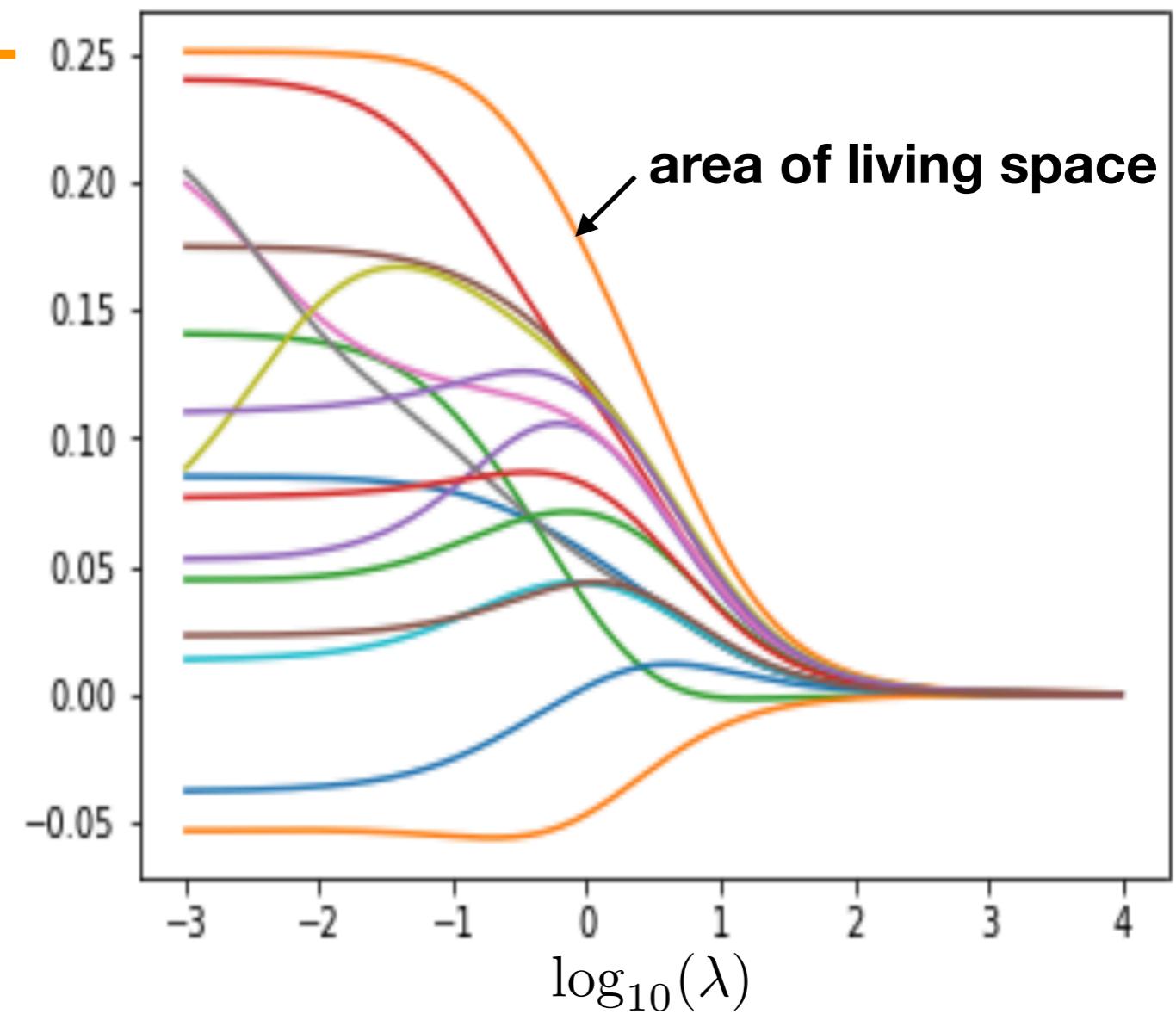
- split data randomly into 1164 training and 291 test
- target is $\log(\text{price})$
- **standardize** all features (and $\log(\text{price})$): shift and scale each feature (and the outcome $\log(\text{price})$) such that they are zero mean and variance one
- training error = 0.1093
- test error = 0.1175
- plot shows all 291 test points

Example: Ridge regression minimize $\sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 + \lambda \|w\|_2^2$

training MSE

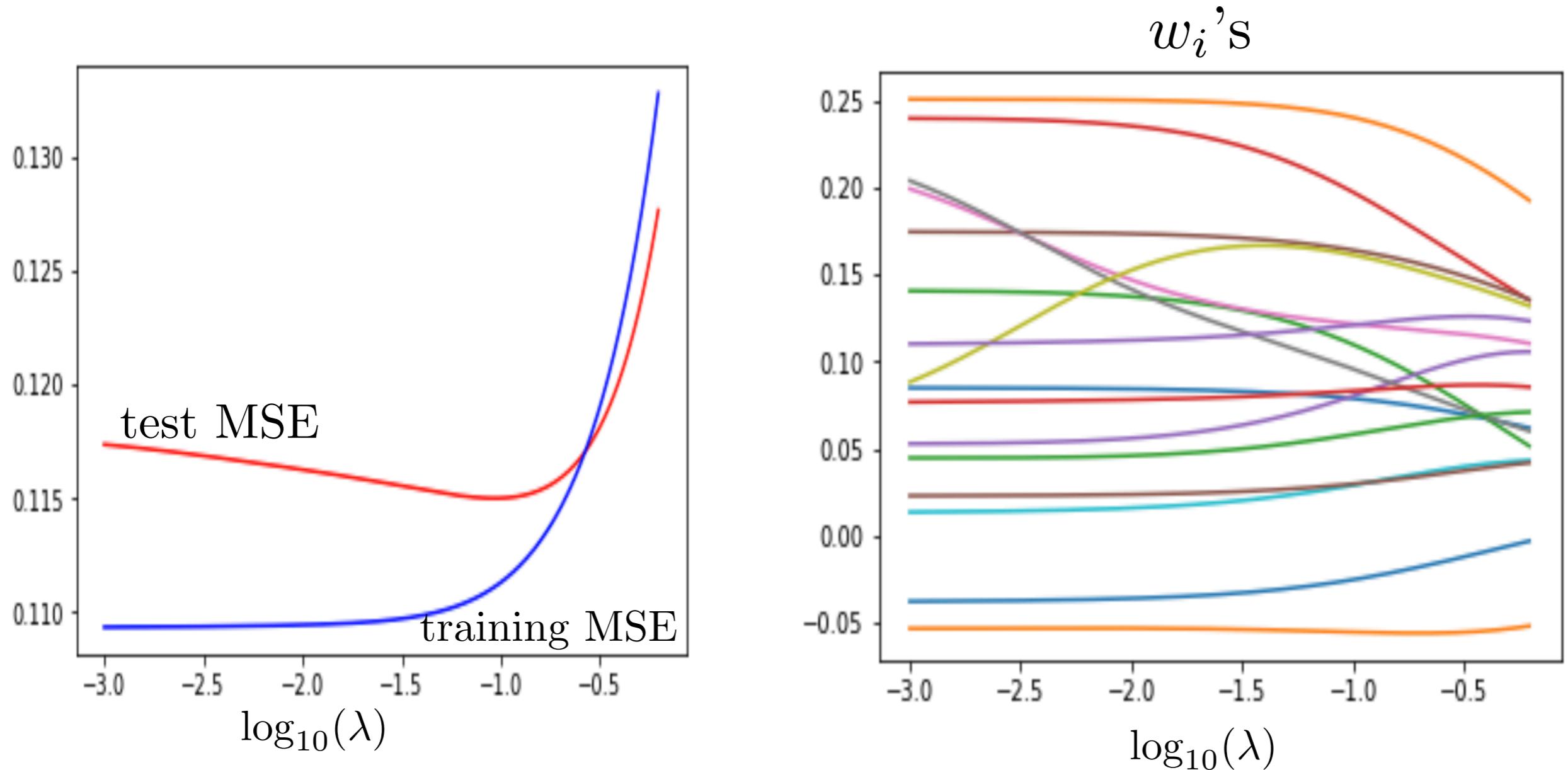


w_i 's



- leftmost training error is with no regularization: 0.1093
- rightmost training error is variance of the training data: 0.9991
- the right plot is called **regularization path**

Example: Ridge regression



- optimal regularizer lambda= 0.1412
- slightly improves the test performance
- from test MSE = 0.1175 to test MSE = 0.1147
- this gain comes from shrinking w's to get a less sensitive predictor

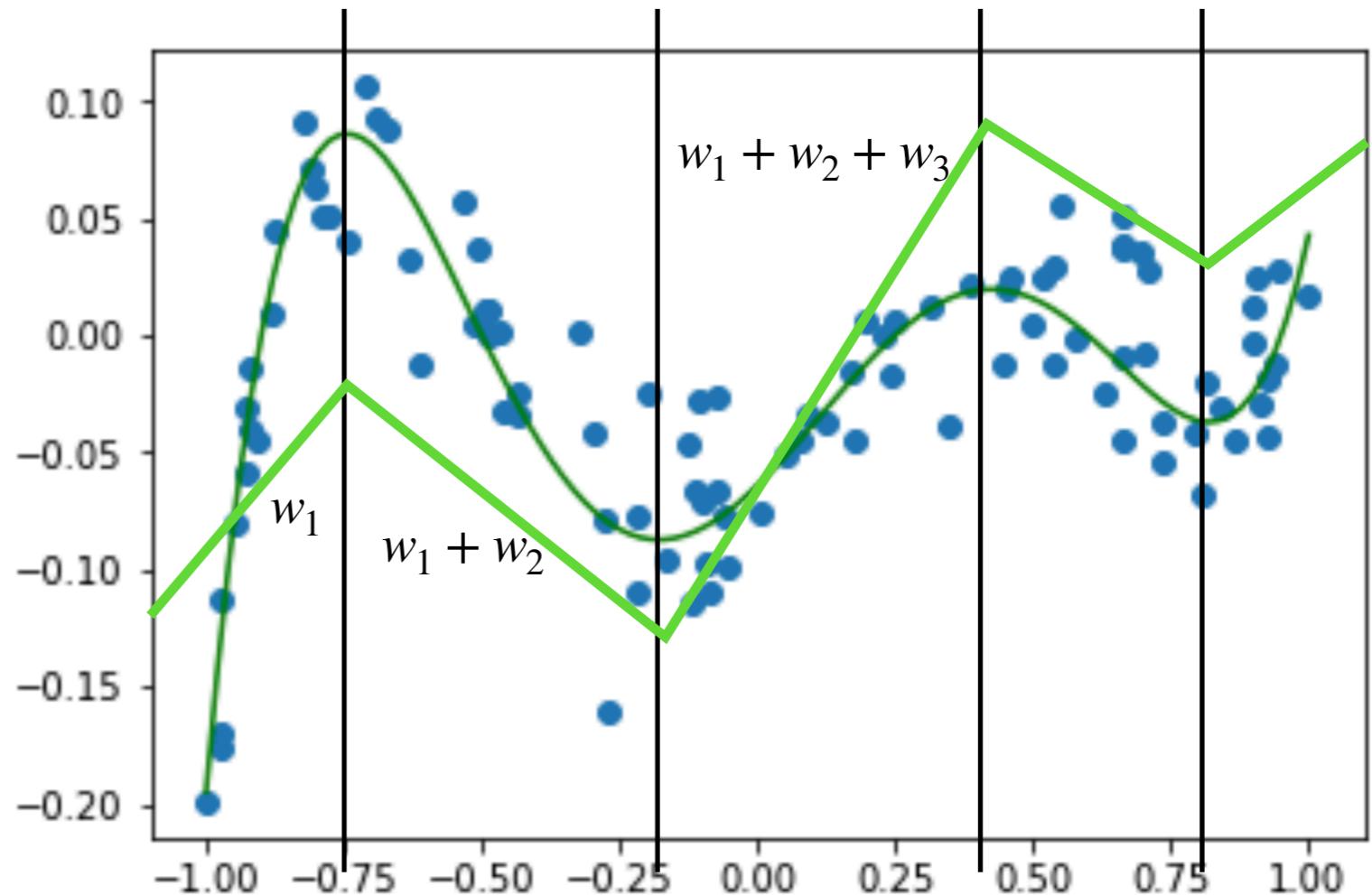
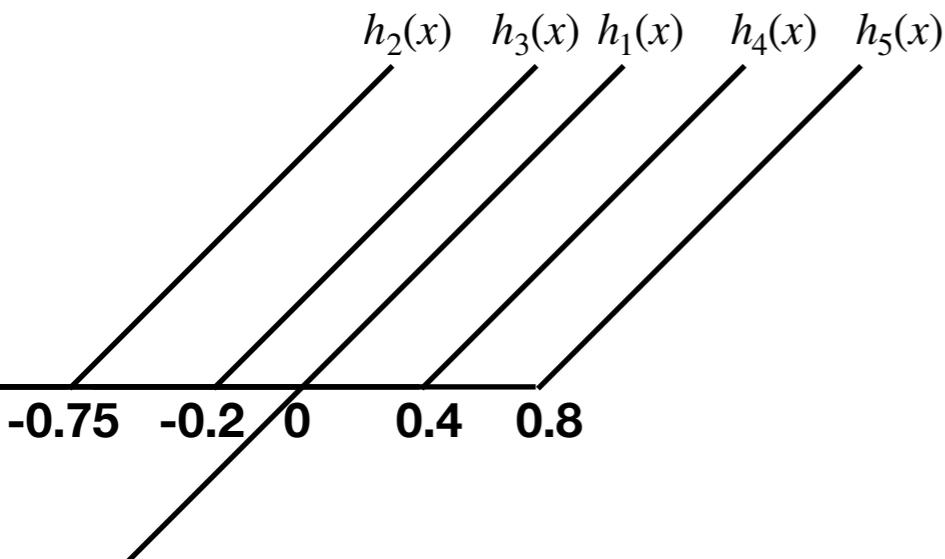
Example: piecewise linear fit

we fit a linear model: $f(x) = w_0 + w_1 h_1(x) + w_2 h_2(x) + w_3 h_3(x) + w_4 h_4(x) + w_5 h_5(x)$

- with a specific choice of features using piecewise linear functions

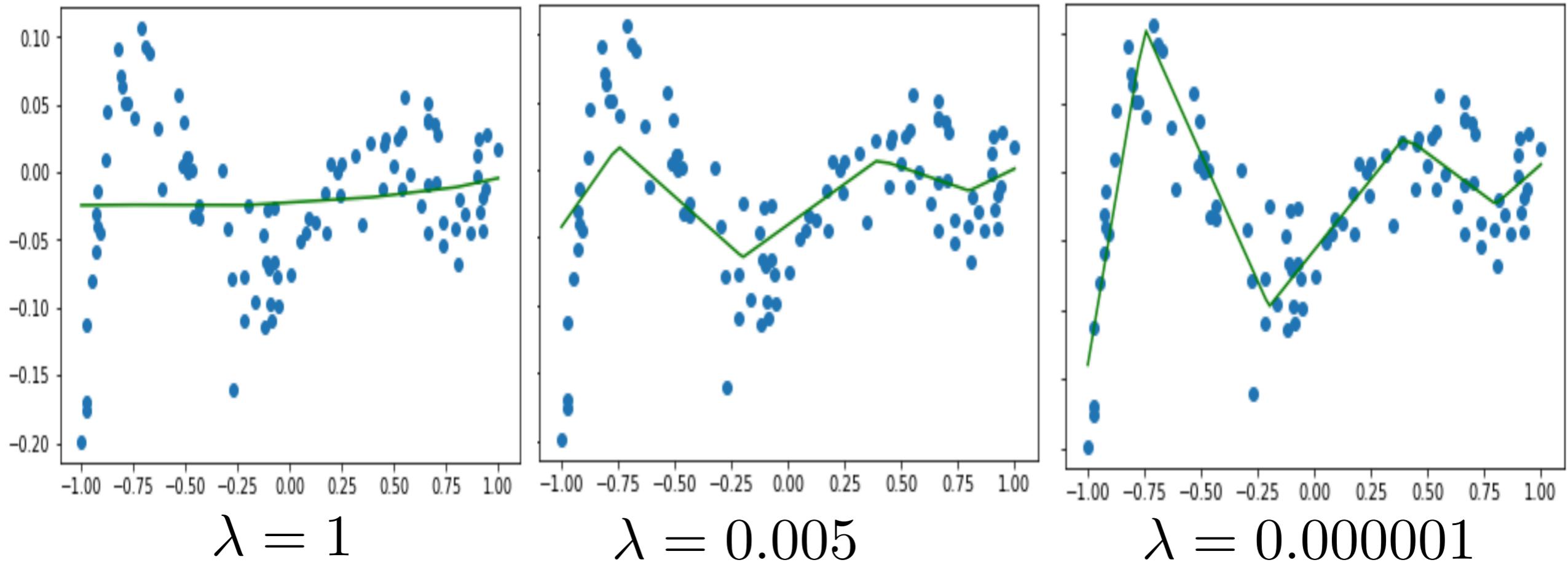
$$h(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ [x + 0.75]^+ \\ [x + 0.2]^+ \\ [x - 0.4]^+ \\ [x - 0.8]^+ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[a]^+ \triangleq \max\{a, 0\}$$



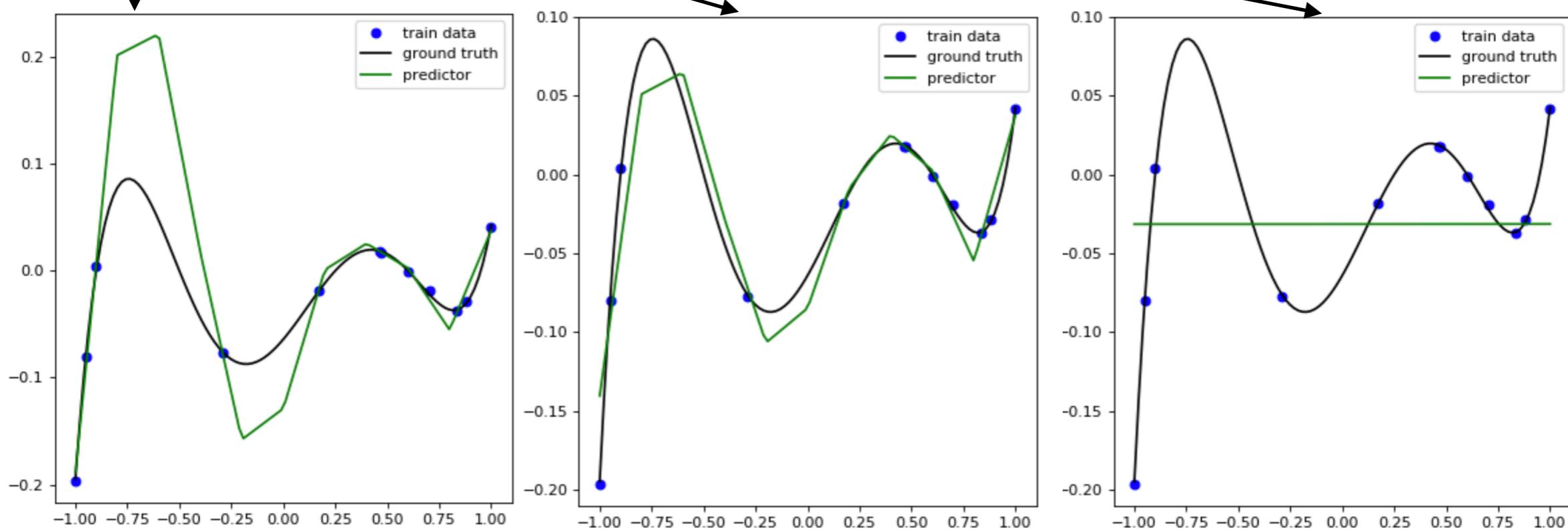
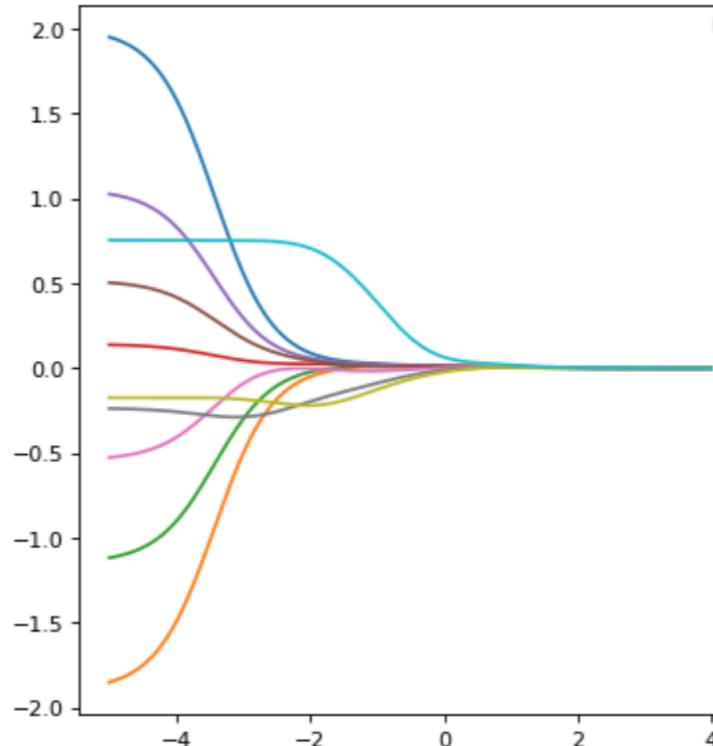
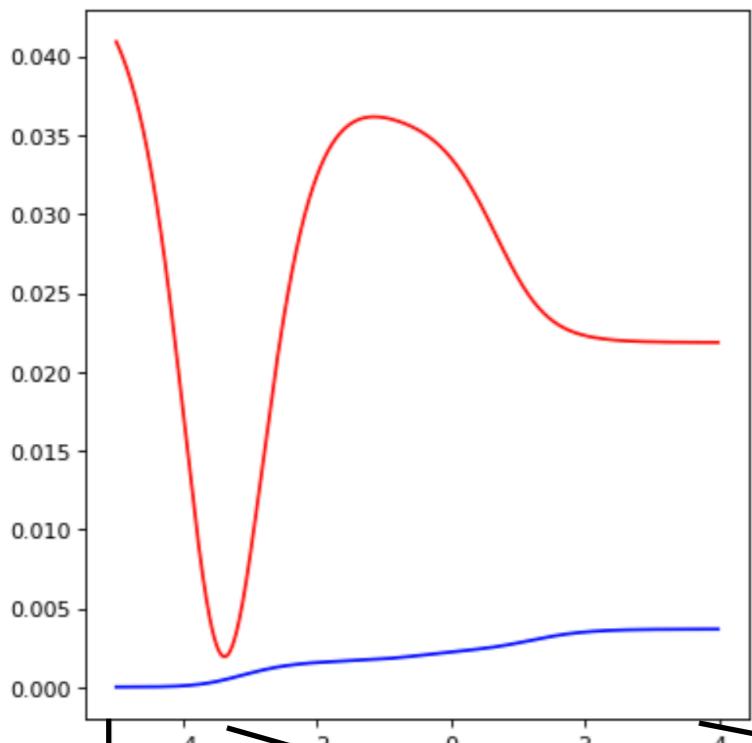
the weights capture the change in the slopes

Example: piecewise linear fit

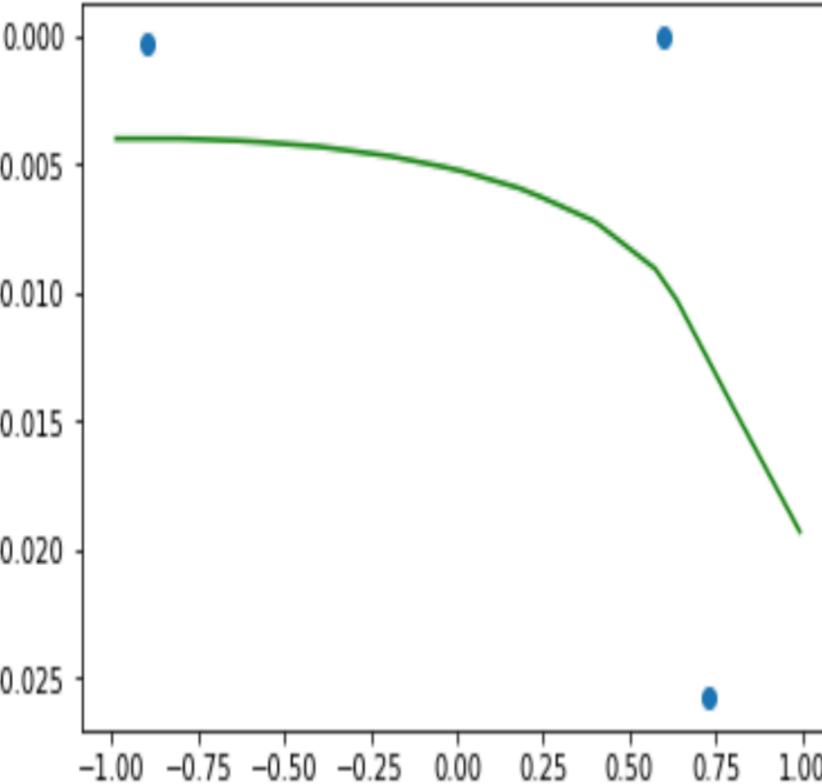


- features: $h(x) = (1, x, [x + 0.75]^+, [x + 0.2]^+, [x - 0.4]^+, [x - 0.8]^+)$
- lambda=1 gives
 $w = [-0.0377, 0.00140, -0.00177, 0.01014, 0.00875, 0.01482]$
- lambda=1e-6 gives
 $w = [-0.1382, 0.97846, -1.3467, 0.57375, -0.32763, 0.2658]$

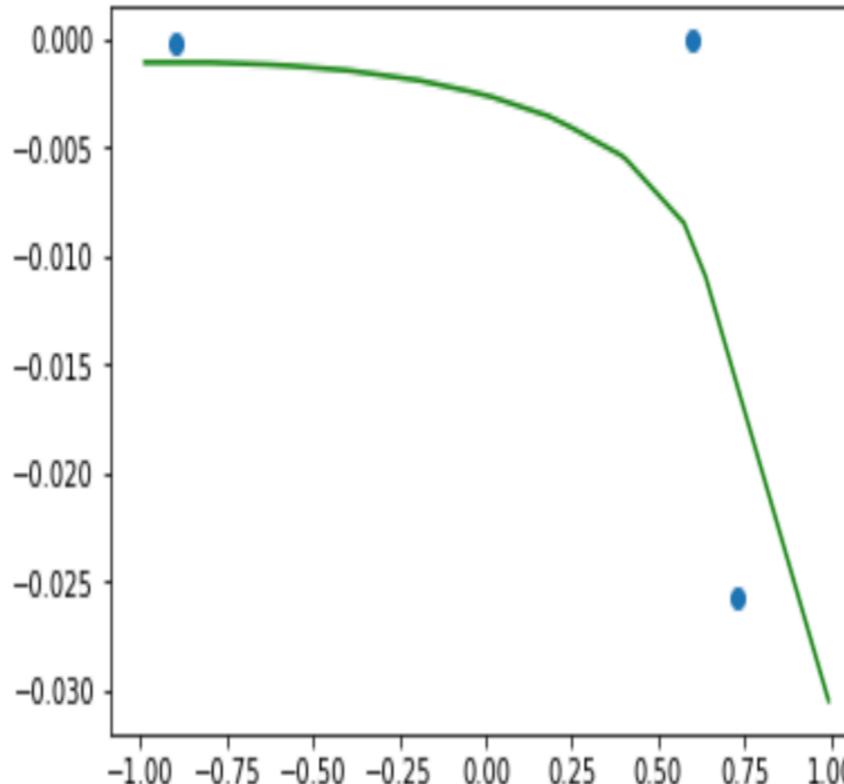
Piecewise linear with 10 parameters



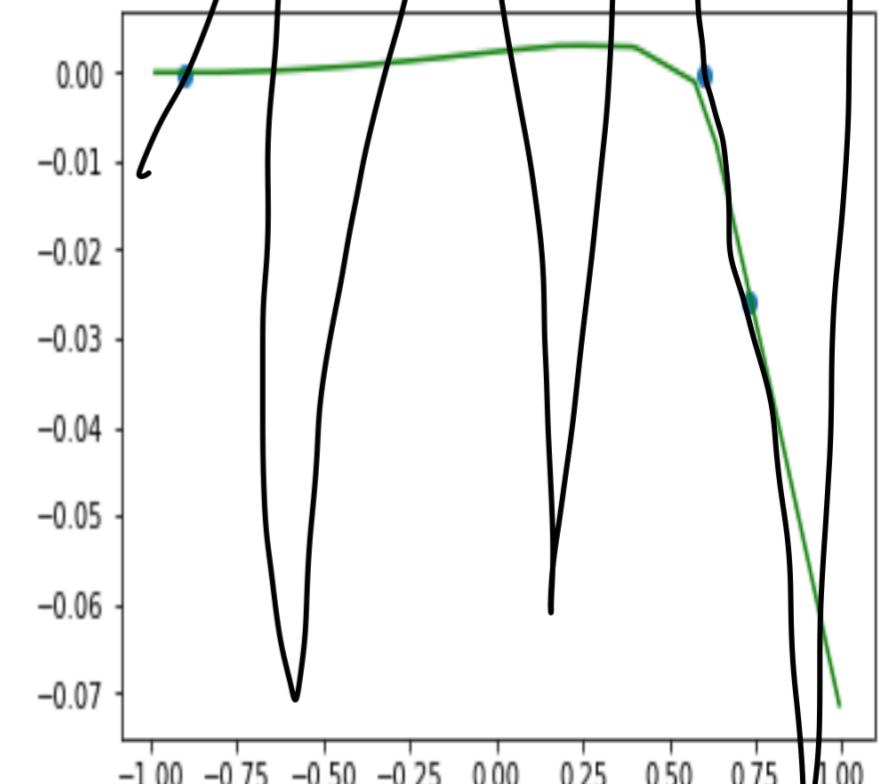
Fitting predictors with more parameters than data points



$\lambda=10$



$\lambda=3$



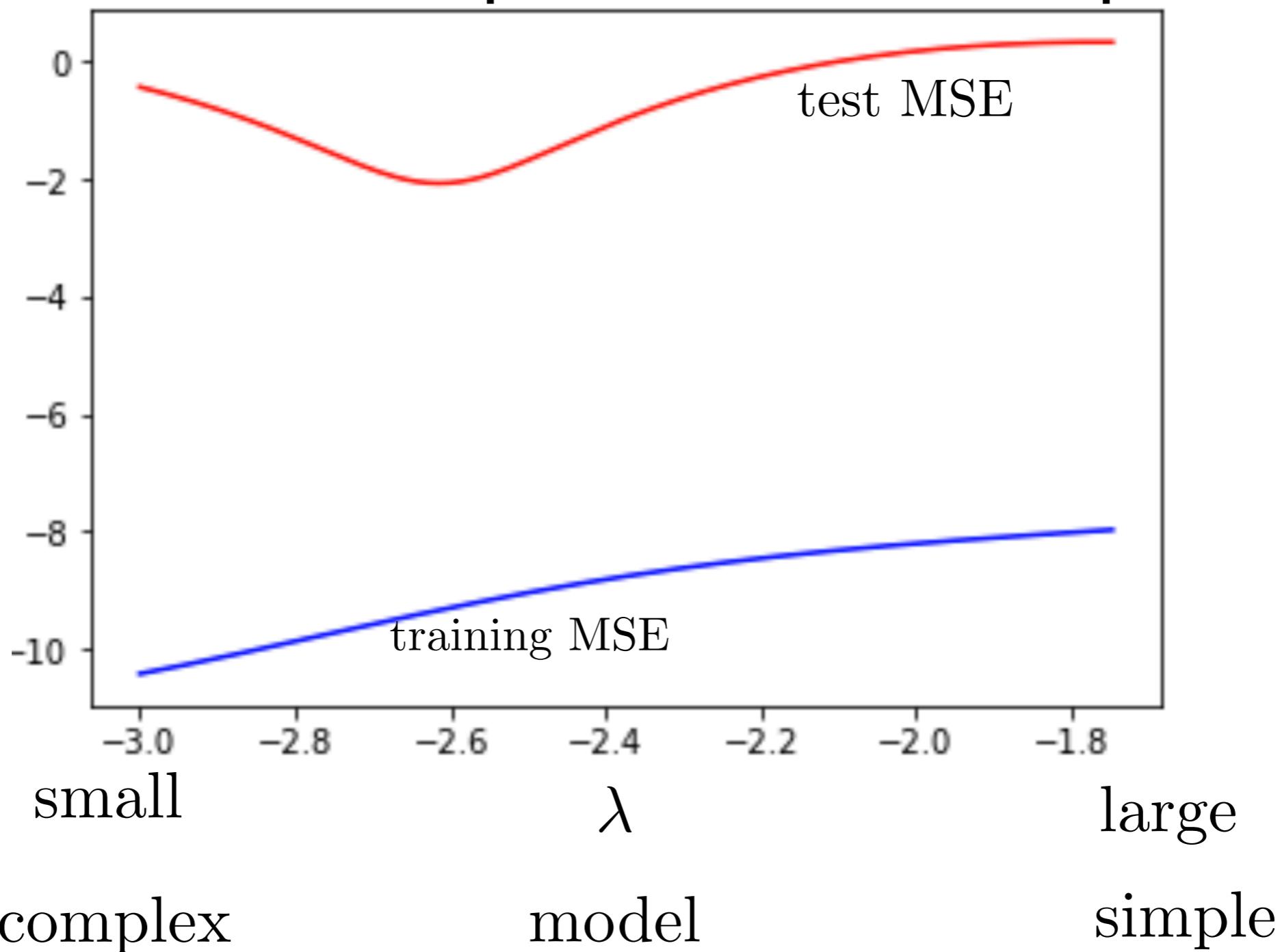
$\lambda=1$

$\lambda=0$

- in general, fitting a model with more parameters than data points does not make sense
- but one can fit such **over-parametrized** models with regularization
- 10 piece linear model with 10 parameters

Model complexity and lambda

Fitting predictors with more parameters than data points



- Having large regularization limits what type of models we can choose from, hence enforces simpler models

Theoretical analysis

- note that theoretical analysis is for the purpose of understanding the performance of a proposed approach (in this case Ridge Regression)
- for this purpose, we assume a specific model and analyze the performance
- in particular, such theoretical analysis cannot be done in real problems, as you do not know the underlying model
- however, it tells you how performance depends on the problem parameters (like dimension, noise variance, true model parameters, number of samples, and regularization parameter)

Exercise: simple example

- we analyze the resulting true error for a simple model, to illustrate how error depends on the parameters of the problem (training sample size n , number of features d , noise variance σ^2 , ground truth model parameter w) and the choice of regularization parameter λ
- model: $y_i = w^T x_i + \varepsilon_i$
where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $y_i, \varepsilon_i \in \mathbb{R}$
 - we further assume that $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ is zero mean Gaussian with variance σ^2
 - each feature is also independently a zero mean Gaussian with unit variance, i.e. $x_i[j] \sim N(0, 1)$ for all $j \in [d]$
 - $[d] = \{1, \dots, d\}$ denotes the set of first d positive integers
 - $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the ground truth model parameter, which is a fixed deterministic vector

Exercise: simple example

- the **linear least squares predictor** is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} w + \varepsilon)\end{aligned}$$

where we used the fact that $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} w + \varepsilon$

- again using the fact that for any $j \in [d]$,

$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})_{jj} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i[j]^2 \underset{\text{1}}{\simeq} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[x_i[j]^2] = n$$

which follows from strong law of large numbers, and the fact that $x_i[j] \sim N(0,1)$ has a variance one, and for any $j \neq \ell \in [d]$

$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})_{j\ell} = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{x_i[j] x_i[\ell]}_{\text{0}} \simeq \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[x_i[j] x_i[\ell]]}_{\text{0}} = 0$$

we will substitute (for simplicity of the analysis)

$$(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \underline{\underline{(n + \lambda) \mathbf{I}}}$$

- the resulting **predictor** is $\underline{\underline{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}}$

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\underline{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}} &= \frac{1}{n + \lambda} (\underline{\underline{\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} w}} + \underline{\underline{\mathbf{X}^T \varepsilon}}) \\ &= \frac{n}{n + \lambda} w + \frac{1}{n + \lambda} \mathbf{X}^T \varepsilon\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} &= n \cdot \mathbb{I}_{d \times d} \\ &= n \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{1} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise: simple example

- and the **expected predictor** is

$$\mathbb{E}[f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) | x] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}]^T x = \frac{n}{n + \lambda} w^T x$$

- we are ready to compute **the (conditional) bias**:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbb{E}[f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) | x] - f_0(x))^2 &= \left(\left(\frac{n}{n + \lambda} w^T - w^T \right) x \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{\lambda^2}{(n + \lambda)^2} (w^T x)^2 \end{aligned}$$

- the **expected bias** is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_x} [(\mathbb{E}[f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) | x] - f_0(x))^2] &= \frac{\lambda^2}{(n + \lambda)^2} \mathbb{E}[w^T x x^T w] \\ &= \frac{\lambda^2}{(n + \lambda)^2} w^T \mathbb{E}[x x^T] w \\ &= \frac{\lambda^2}{(n + \lambda)^2} w^T \mathbf{I}_{d \times d} w \\ &= \frac{\lambda^2 \|w\|_2^2}{(n + \lambda)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{w} = \frac{n}{n + \lambda} w + \frac{n}{n + \lambda} x^T \epsilon$$

where $\mathbb{E}[x x^T] = \mathbf{I}_{d \times d}$ follows from the fact that $x \sim N(0, \mathbf{I}_{d \times d})$

Exercise: simple example

- in a similar way, we can compute the **(conditional) variance**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[(f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) - \mathbb{E}[f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) | x])^2 | x] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left((\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}^T - \frac{n}{n+\lambda} w^T)x\right)^2 | x\right] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{n+\lambda} \varepsilon^T \mathbf{X} x\right)^2 | x\right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{(n+\lambda)^2} x^T \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^T \varepsilon \varepsilon^T \mathbf{X} | x] x \\
 &= \frac{\sigma^2}{(n+\lambda)^2} x^T (n\mathbf{I}) x \\
 &= \frac{\sigma^2 n}{(n+\lambda)^2} \|x\|_2^2
 \end{aligned}$$

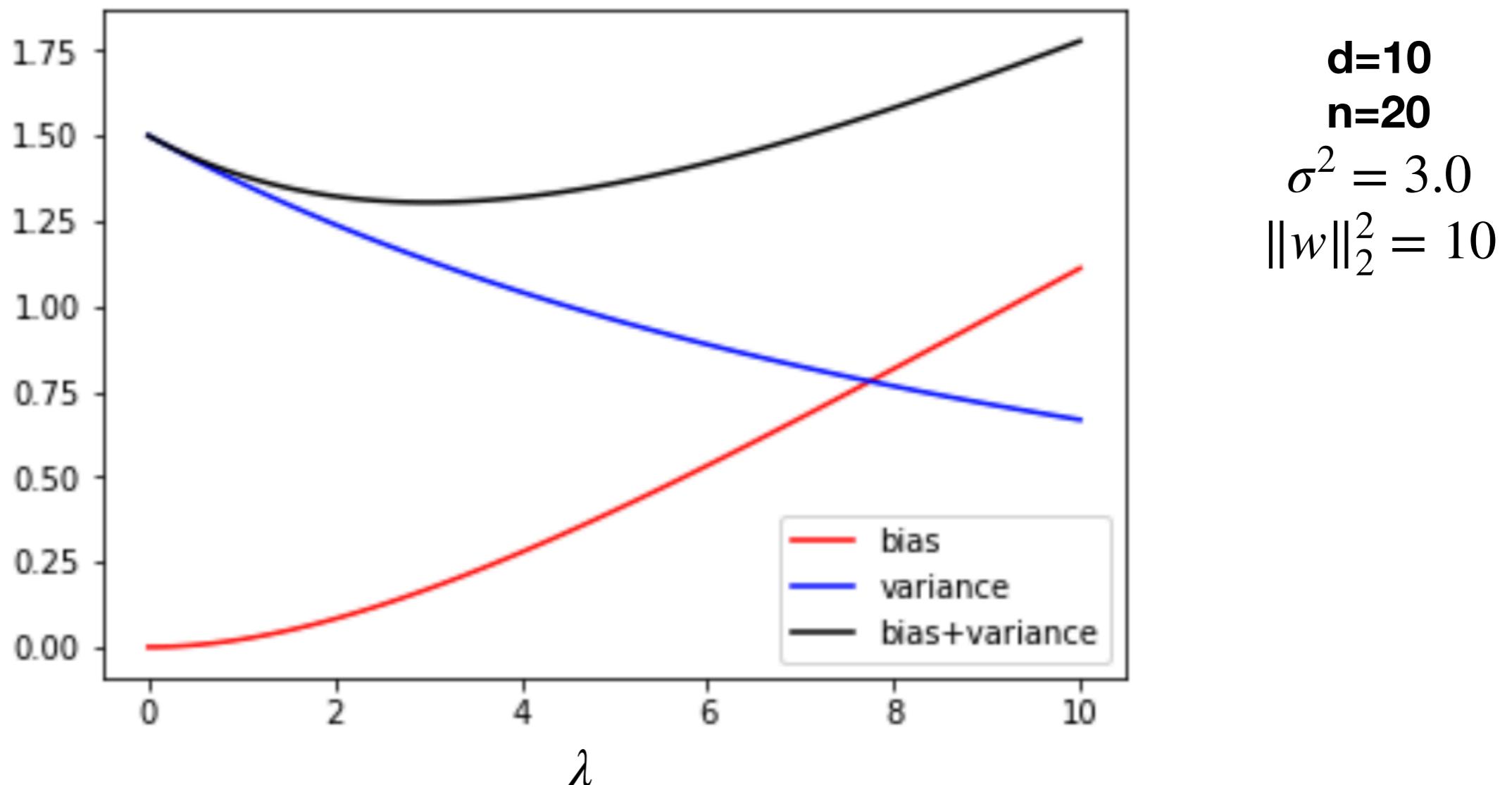
where we used the fact that $\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}} = \frac{n}{n+\lambda} w + \frac{1}{n+\lambda} \mathbf{X}^T \varepsilon$,
and $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, \varepsilon}[\mathbf{X}^T \varepsilon \varepsilon^T \mathbf{X}] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbb{E}_{\varepsilon}[\varepsilon \varepsilon^T] \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{I} \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 n \mathbf{I}$
and $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}] = n\mathbf{I}$ was computed 2 slides ago.

- taking expectation w.r.t. (with respect to) $x \sim N(0, \mathbf{I}_{d \times d})$, we get

$$\mathbb{E}\left[(f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) - \mathbb{E}[f_{\hat{w}_{\text{ridge}}}(x) | x])^2\right] = \frac{\sigma^2 n d}{(n+\lambda)^2}$$

Bias-variance tradeoff w.r.t λ

- $\text{bias}^2 = \frac{\lambda^2 \|w\|_2^2}{(n + \lambda)^2}$
- $\text{variance} = \frac{\sigma^2 n d}{(n + \lambda)^2}$



Cross-validation:
how to choose regularization parameter λ ,
or the degree of polynomial features to use

Rule #1: Never use test set in training!

- but, does choosing λ based on test error count as using test data in training?
- first wrong approach:
 - train 10 predictors with 10 values of λ , each using all train data S_{train}
 - compute test error on test data S_{test} for all 10 models
 - pick λ^* that reported the smallest test error
 - deploy predictor f_{λ^*}
- why is it wrong?
 - because we used S_{test} in picking λ , we chose a model that works well on S_{test}
 - precisely, $\mathbb{E}_{\text{new data } (x,y)}[(f_{\lambda^*}(x) - y)^2] \neq \mathbb{E}_{S_{\text{test}}} \left[\frac{1}{|S_{\text{test}}|} \sum_{i \in S_{\text{test}}} \{(f_{\lambda^*}(x_i) - y_i)^2\} \right]$
 - we sometimes use $\mathbb{E}_{S_{\text{test}}}[\cdot]$ interchangeably with $\mathbb{E}_{\text{test}}[\cdot]$ (e.g. in Assignment 1)
 - this commonly happens in machine learning competitions, and the competition organizers enforce several rules to prevent it
 - for example, each team can evaluate their test data performance only once per week

S_{train}

S_{test}

k -fold cross validation

- input

- S_{train} and S_{test}



- procedure

1. randomly divide the S_{train} into k equal sized partitions:
 $\{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$

2. define

$$S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_j \triangleq \{i : i \in S_{\text{train}} \text{ and } i \notin S_j\}$$

this operation \setminus is called “set minus”, as it is taking a set away from another set

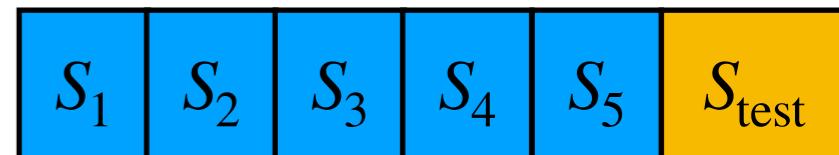
3. train k predictors, such that the first predictor is trained on $S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1$ and validated on S_1

- $f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1}(x)$ minimizes $\sum_{i \in S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1} (f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1}(x_i) - y_i)^2$

- we keep track of **error on the validation set**:

$$\text{error}_1 = \frac{1}{|S_1|} \sum_{i \in S_1} (f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1}(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

- repeat for each partition $S_j, j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$

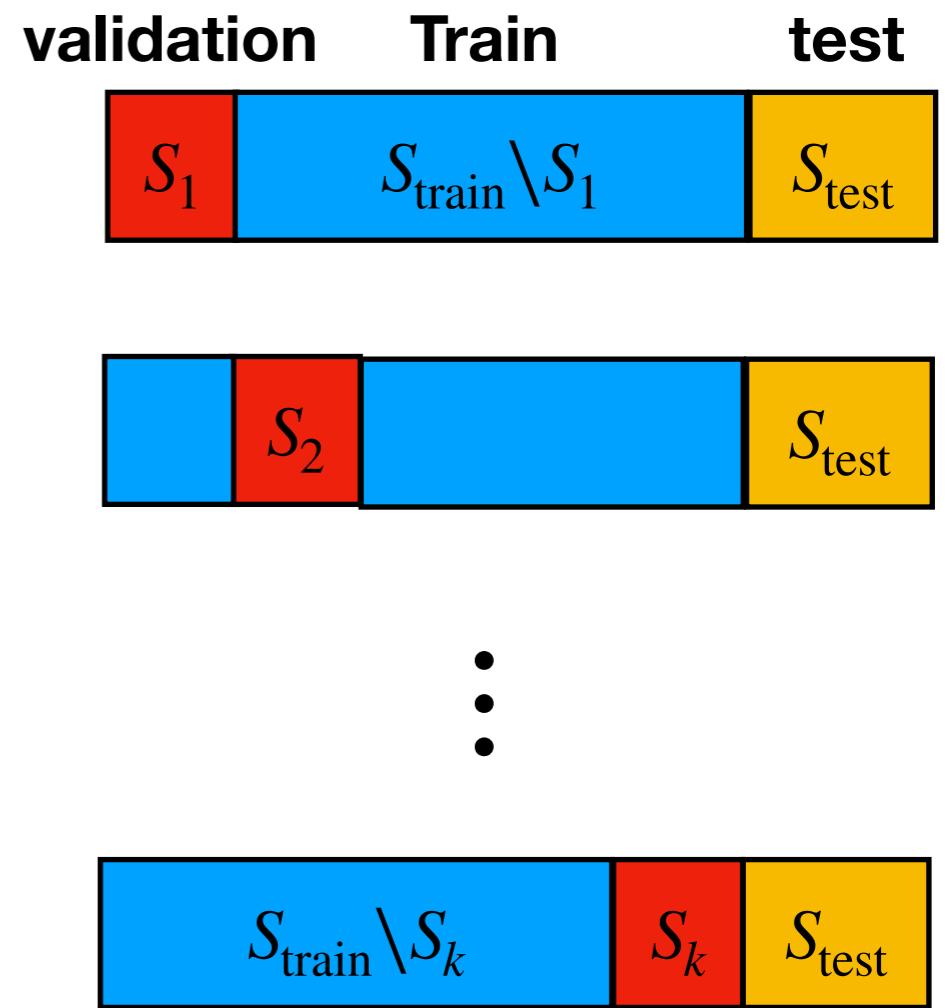


validation **Train** **test**

k -fold cross validation

- First predictor $f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1}(\cdot)$ is trained on $S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1$ and error₁ is evaluated on S_1
- j -th predictor $f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_j}(\cdot)$ is trained on $S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_j$ and error _{j} is evaluated on S_j for all $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$
- finally, **k -fold cross validation error** is computed

$$\text{error}_{k-\text{fold}} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k \text{error}_j$$



- $k = 5$ to 10 seems to work well in practice
- small k like two leads to **overestimating** the true error
 - because we are training on much smaller data size
- large k leads to many computations
- if $k=N$ it is called Leave-one-out (LOO) cross validation

(LOO) leave-one-out cross validation

- slower but more accurate estimation of the error
- LOO cross validation is an extreme case of k-fold cross validation with $k=n$ the total number of training samples

$$\text{error}_{\text{LOO}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus \{i\}}(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

- we leave one data out and train a model, hence the name leave-one-out
- as each model is using $n - 1$ training samples, this LOO validation error provides a close approximation of the true error of a model trained on all n training samples
- however, if $n=100,000$ (which is common size of modern dataset), it takes 100,000 times longer run-time to finish LOO cross-validation

example:

- Given 10,000-dimensional training data with n samples,
 - First, we pick 50 features that have highest correlation with the y_i 's such that have largest

pick 50 j's that have largest $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i[j]y_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i[j]^2}}$

- We then use **k-fold cross validation** to train a ridge regressor on those 50 features, and choose λ using the cross validation error
- What is wrong with this?
For example, did we use any of the validation data S_1 in training, for example, a model $f_{S_{\text{train}} \setminus S_1}(x)$?

