

Regression 2

Industrial AI Lab.
Changyun Choi, Juhyeong Jeon



Linear Regression: Advanced

- Overfitting
- Regularization (Ridge and Lasso)



Overfitting: Start with Linear Regression

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline
# 10 data points
n = 10
x = np.linspace(-4.5, 4.5, 10).reshape(-1, 1)
y = np.array([0.9819, 0.7973, 1.9737, 0.1838, 1.3180, -0.8361, -0.6591, -2.4701, -2.8122, -6.2512]).reshape(-1, 1)
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))
plt.plot(x, y, 'o', label = 'Data')
                                                                          Linear Regression
plt.xlabel('X', fontsize = 15)
                                                                                                     Data
plt.ylabel('Y', fontsize = 15)
                                                                                                     Linear
plt.grid(alpha = 0.3)
plt.show()
A = np.hstack([x**0, x])
A = np.asmatrix(A)
                                                  ≻ -2
theta = (A.T*A).I*A.T*y
print(theta)
[[-0.7774
[-0.71070424]]
```



Recap: Nonlinear Regression

Polynomial (here, quad is used as an example)

$$y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \text{noise}$$

$$\phi(x_i) = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ x_i \ x_i^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Phi = egin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \ dots & \ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \hat{y} = egin{bmatrix} \hat{y}_1 \ \hat{y}_2 \ dots \ \hat{y}_m \end{bmatrix} = \Phi heta$$

$$\implies \theta^* = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T y$$

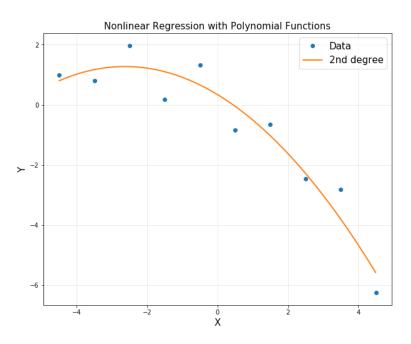


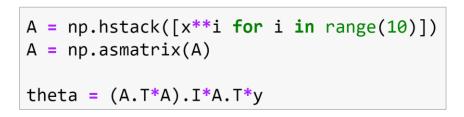
Nonlinear Regression

```
A = np.hstack([x**0, x, x**2])
A = np.asmatrix(A)

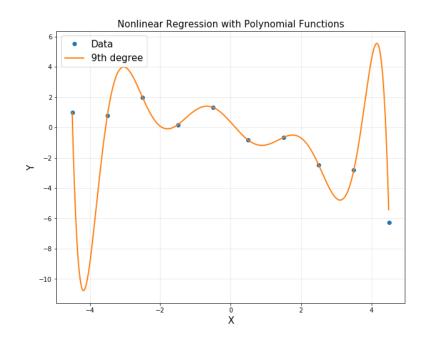
theta = (A.T*A).I*A.T*y
print(theta)
```

```
[[ 0.33669062]
[-0.71070424]
[-0.13504129]]
```





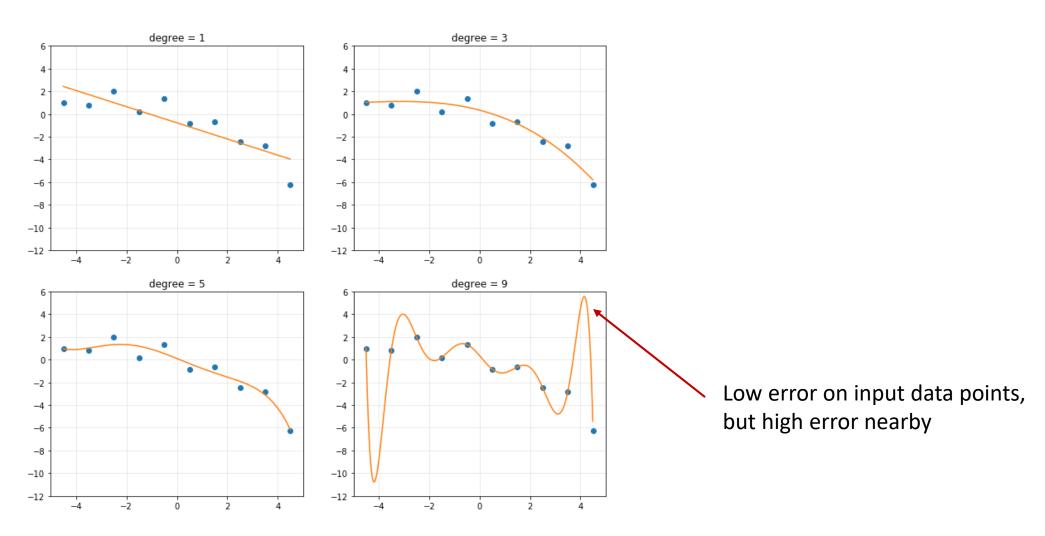
10 input points with degree 9 (or 10)





Polynomial Fitting with Different Degrees

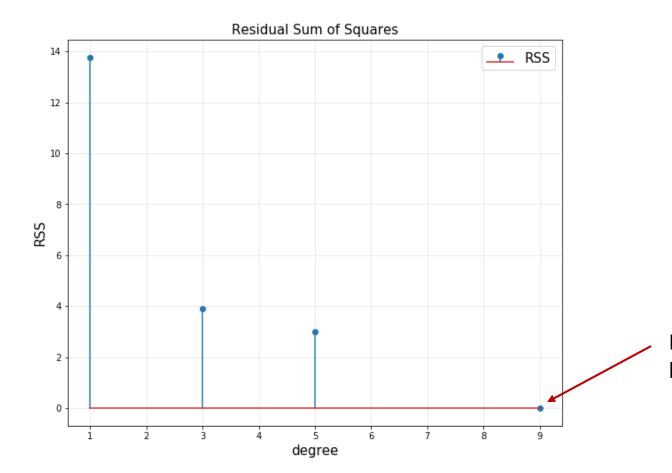






Loss

• Loss: Residual Sum of Squares (RSS)



$$\min_{ heta} \ \|\hat{y} - y\|_2^2$$

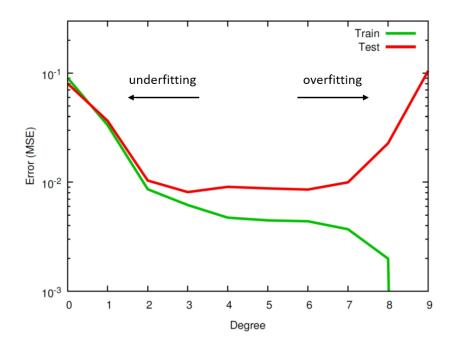
Minimizing loss in training data is often not the best

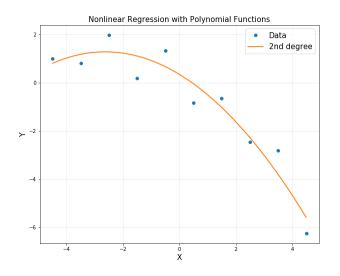


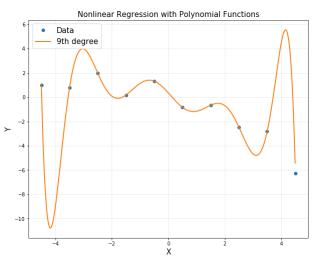
Low error on input data points, but high error nearby

Issue with Rich Representation

- Low error on input data points, but high error nearby
- Low error on training data, but high error on testing data



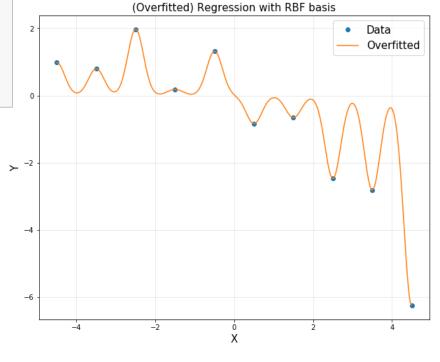






Linear Regression with RBF

- With many features, our prediction function becomes very expensive
- Can lead to overfitting

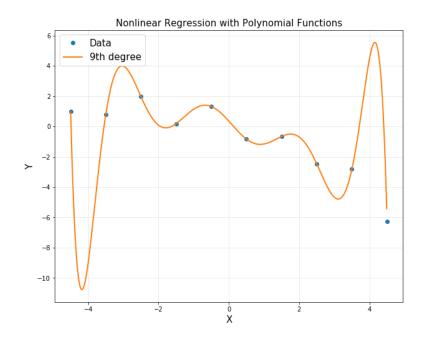


Regularization



Issue with Rich Representation

- Low error on input data points, but high error nearby
- Low error on training data, but high error on testing data



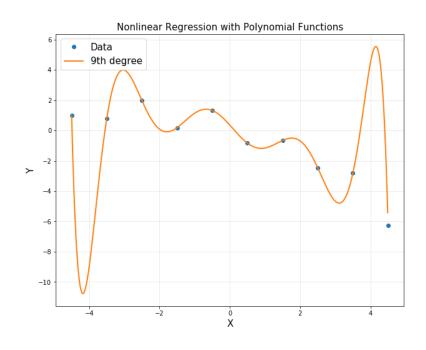


Generalization Error

• Fundamental problem: we are optimizing parameters to solve

$$\min_{ heta} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(y_i, \hat{y}_i) = \min_{ heta} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(y_i, \Phi heta)$$

- But what we really care about is loss of prediction on new data (x, y)
 - also called generalization error
- Divide data into training set, and validation (testing) set



Representational Difficulties

- With many features, prediction function becomes very expressive (model complexity)
 - Choose less expressive function (e.g., lower degree polynomial, fewer RBF centers, larger RBF bandwidth)
 - Keep the magnitude of the parameter small
 - Regularization: penalize large parameters heta

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$

 $-\lambda$: regularization parameter, trades off between low loss and small values of θ

With Less Basis Functions: Fewer RBF Centers

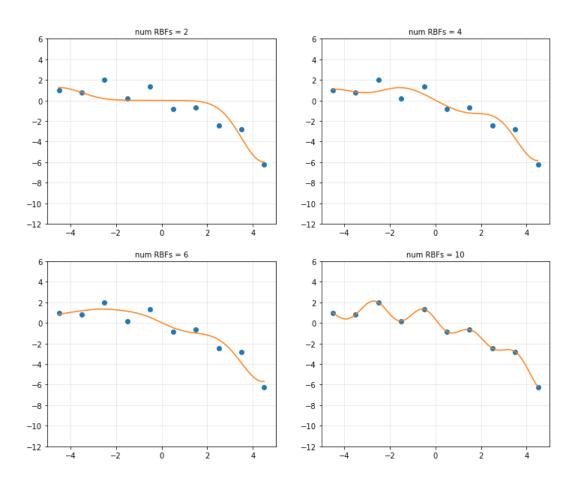
```
d = [2, 4, 6, 10]
sigma = 1
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 10))
for k in range(4):
    u = np.linspace(-4.5, 4.5, d[k])
    A = np.hstack([np.exp(-(x-u[i])**2/(2*sigma**2)) for i in range(d[k])])
    rbfbasis = np.hstack([np.exp(-(xp-u[i])**2/(2*sigma**2)) for i in range(d[k])])
    A = np.asmatrix(A)
    rbfbasis = np.asmatrix(rbfbasis)
   theta = (A.T*A).I*A.T*y
   vp = rbfbasis*theta
    plt.subplot(2, 2, k+1)
    plt.plot(x, y, 'o')
    plt.plot(xp, yp)
    plt.axis([-5, 5, -12, 6])
    plt.title('num RBFs = {}'.format(d[k]), fontsize = 10)
    plt.grid(alpha = 0.3)
```



With Less Basis Functions: Fewer RBF Centers

• Least-squares fits for different numbers of RBFs

Nonlinear Regression with RBF Functions





Representational Difficulties

- With many features, prediction function becomes very expressive (model complexity)
 - Choose less expensive function (e.g., lower degree polynomial, fewer RBF centers, larger RBF bandwidth)
 - Keep the magnitude of the parameter small
 - Regularization: penalize large parameters heta

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$

 $-\lambda$: regularization parameter, trades off between low loss and small values of θ

Regularization (Shrinkage Methods)

- Often, overfitting associated with very large estimated parameters
- We want to balance
 - how well function fits data
 - magnitude of coefficients

$$ext{Total cost} = \underbrace{ ext{measure of fit}}_{RSS(heta)} + \ \lambda \cdot \underbrace{ ext{measure of magnitude of coefficients}}_{\lambda \cdot \| heta\|_2^2}$$

$$\implies \min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$

- multi-objective optimization
- $-\lambda$ is a tuning parameter

Regularization (Shrinkage Methods)

- the second term, $\lambda \cdot ||\theta||_2^2$, called a shrinkage penalty, is small when $\theta_1, \cdots, \theta_d$ are close to zeros, and so it has the effect of shrinking the estimates of θ_j towards zero
- the tuning parameter λ serves to control the relative impact of these two terms on the regression coefficient estimates
- known as a ridge regression

RBF: Start from Rich Representation

```
d = 10
u = np.linspace(-4.5, 4.5, d)

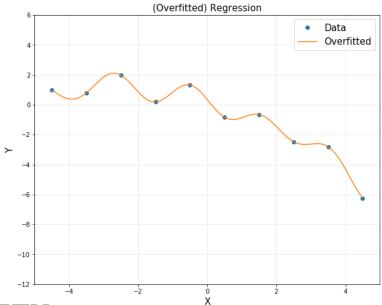
sigma = 1

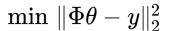
A = np.hstack([np.exp(-(x-u[i])**2/(2*sigma**2)) for i in range(d)])
rbfbasis = np.hstack([np.exp(-(xp-u[i])**2/(2*sigma**2)) for i in range(d)])

A = np.asmatrix(A)
rbfbasis = np.asmatrix(rbfbasis)

theta = cvx.Variable([d, 1])
obj = cvx.Minimize(cvx.sum_squares(A*theta-y))
prob = cvx.Problem(obj).solve()

yp = rbfbasis*theta.value
```





RBF with Regularization

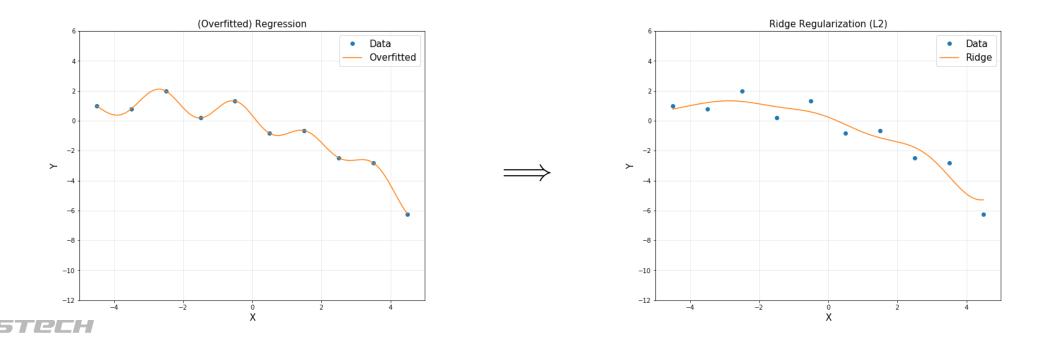
• Start from rich representation. Then, regularize coefficients θ

```
# ridge regression

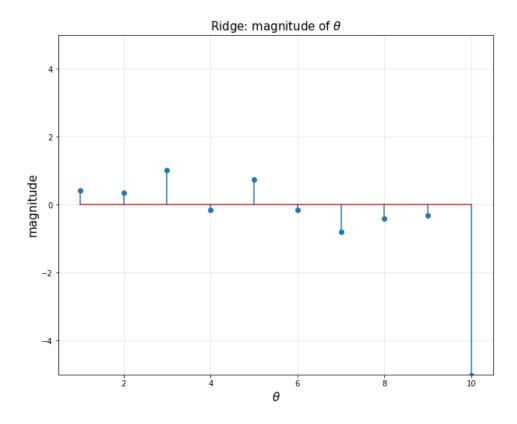
lamb = 0.1
theta = cvx.Variable([d, 1])
obj = cvx.Minimize(cvx.sum_squares(A*theta - y) + lamb*cvx.sum_squares(theta))
prob = cvx.Problem(obj).solve()

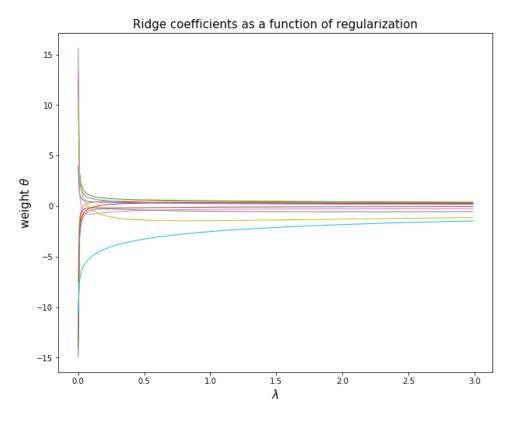
yp = rbfbasis*theta.value
```

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$



Coefficients θ







Let's Use L_1 Norm

Ridge regression

$$\implies \min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$

• Try this loss instead of ridge...

$$ext{Total cost} = \underbrace{ ext{measure of fit}}_{RSS(heta)} + \ \lambda \cdot \underbrace{ ext{measure of magnitude of coefficients}}_{\lambda \cdot \| heta\|_1}$$

$$\implies \min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_1$$

- λ is a tuning parameter = balance of fit and sparsity
- Known as LASSO
 - least absolute shrinkage and selection operator

RBF with LASSO

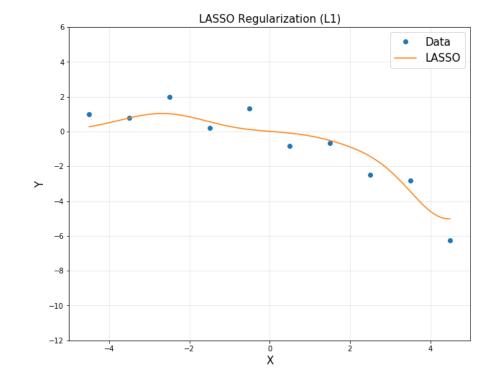
```
# LASSO regression

lamb = 2
theta = cvx.Variable([d, 1])
obj = cvx.Minimize(cvx.sum_squares(A*theta - y) + lamb*cvx.norm(theta, 1))
prob = cvx.Problem(obj).solve()

yp = rbfbasis*theta.value
```

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_1$$

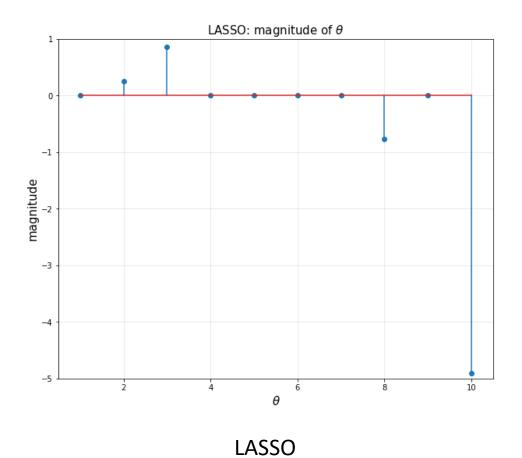
 Approximated function looks similar to that of ridge regression

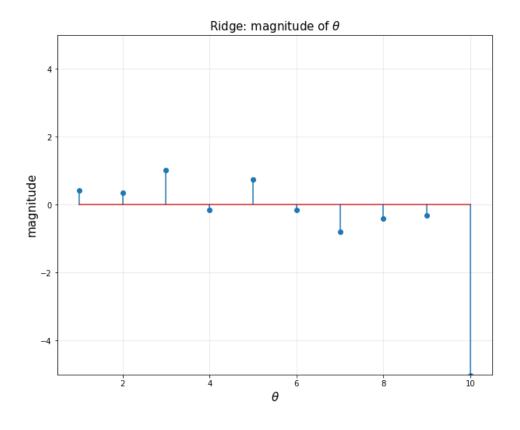




Coefficients θ with LASSO

• Non-zero coefficients indicate 'selected' features



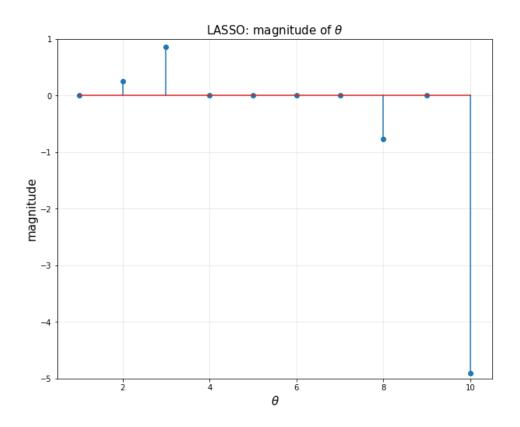


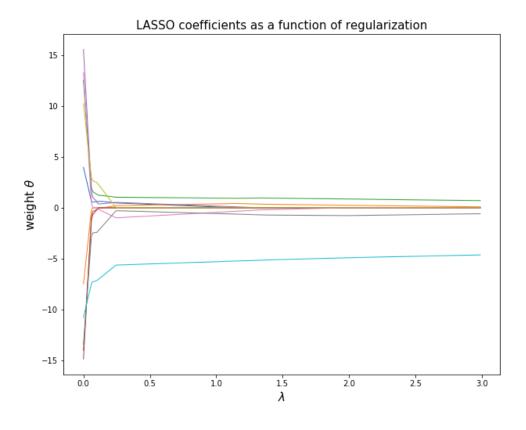
Ridge



Coefficients θ with LASSO

• Non-zero coefficients indicate 'selected' features







Sparsity for Feature Selection using Lasso

- Least squares with a penalty on the L_1 norm of the parameters
- Start with full model (all possible features)
- 'Shrink' some coefficients exactly to 0
 - *i.e.*, knock out certain features
 - The L_1 penalty has the effect of forcing some of the coefficient estimates to be exactly equal to zero
- Non-zero coefficients indicate 'selected' features

Regression with Selected Features

```
# reduced order model
# we will use only theta 2, 3, 8, 10

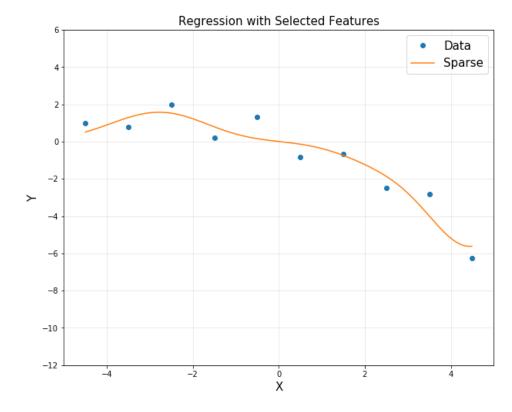
d = 4
u = np.array([-3.5, -2.5, 2.5, 4.5])
sigma = 1

rbfbasis = np.hstack([np.exp(-(xp-u[i])**2/(2*sigma**2)) for i in range(d)])
A = np.hstack([np.exp(-(x-u[i])**2/(2*sigma**2)) for i in range(d)])

rbfbasis = np.asmatrix(rbfbasis)
A = np.asmatrix(A)

theta = cvx.Variable([d, 1])
obj = cvx.Minimize(cvx.norm(A*theta-y, 2))
prob = cvx.Problem(obj).solve()

yp = rbfbasis*theta.value
```





LASSO vs. Ridge

Another equivalent forms of optimizations

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_1$$

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow$$

$$egin{array}{ll} \min_{ heta} & \|\Phi heta-y\|_2^2 \ & ext{subject to} & \| heta\|_1 \leq s_1 \end{array}$$

$$egin{array}{ll} \min_{ heta} & \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 \ & ext{subject to} & \| heta\|_2 \leq s_2 \end{array}$$

LASSO vs. Ridge

Another equivalent forms of optimizations

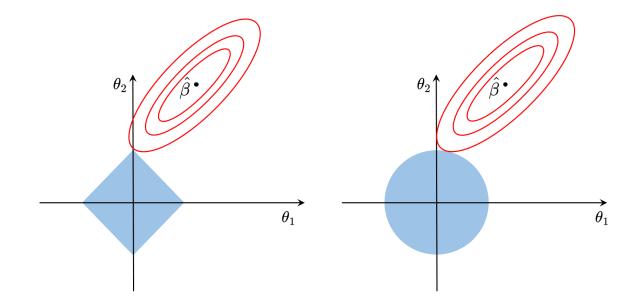
$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_1$$

$$\min \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \| heta\|_2^2$$

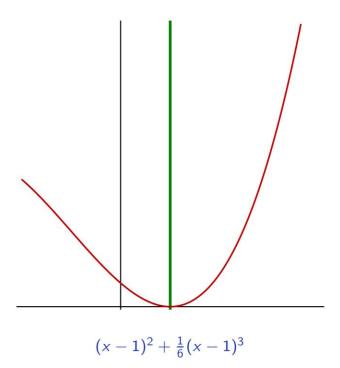


$$egin{array}{ll} \min_{ heta} & \|\Phi heta-y\|_2^2 \ & ext{subject to} & \| heta\|_1 \leq s_1 \end{array}$$

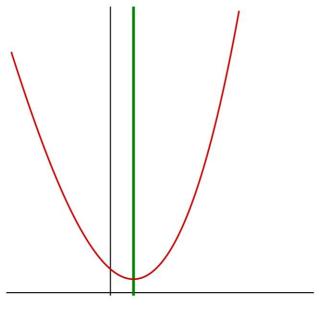
$$egin{array}{ll} \min_{ heta} & \|\Phi heta - y\|_2^2 \ & ext{subject to} & \| heta\|_2 \leq s_2 \end{array}$$



Increasing the λ parameter moves the optimal closer to 0, and away from the optimal for the loss alone.

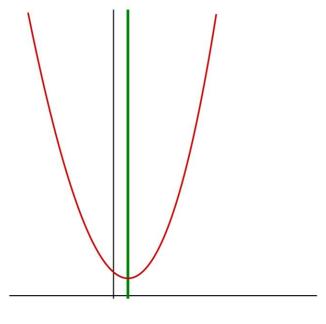


Increasing the λ parameter moves the optimal closer to 0, and away from the optimal for the loss alone.



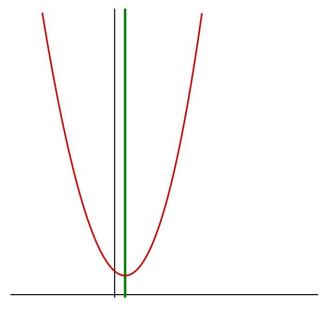
$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + x^2$$

Increasing the λ parameter moves the optimal closer to 0, and away from the optimal for the loss alone.



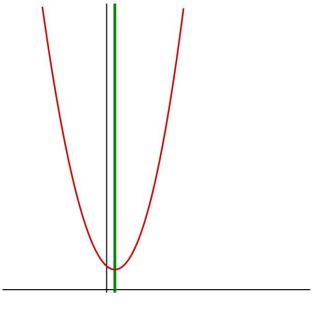
$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + 2x^2$$

Increasing the λ parameter moves the optimal closer to 0, and away from the optimal for the loss alone.

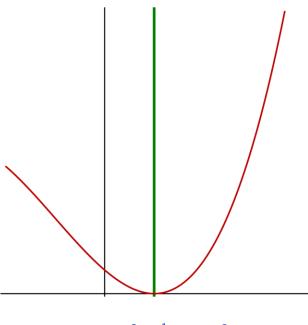


$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + 3x^2$$

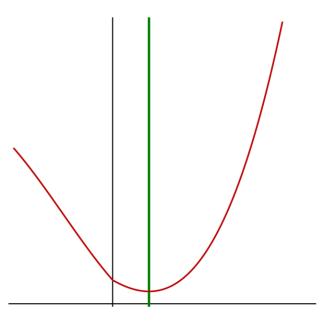
Increasing the λ parameter moves the optimal closer to 0, and away from the optimal for the loss alone.



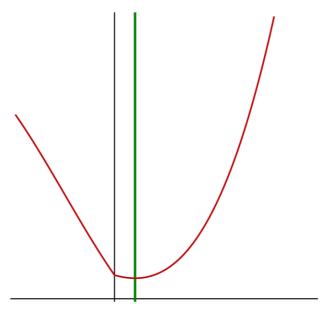
$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + 4x^2$$



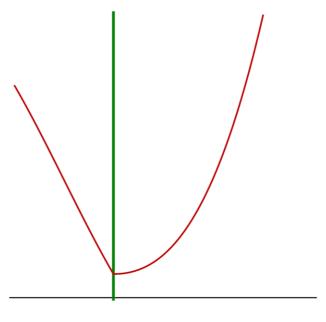
$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3$$



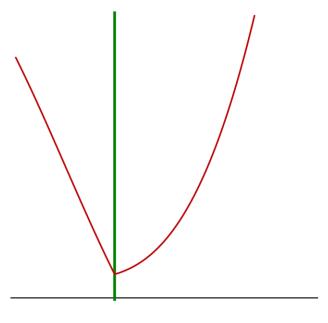
$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + \frac{1}{2}|x|$$



$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + |x|$$



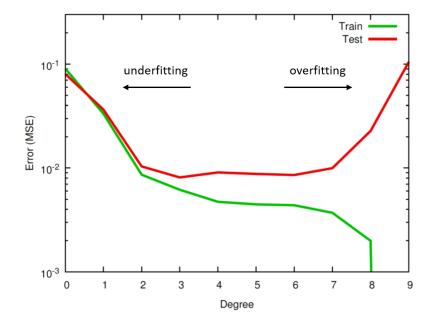
$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + \frac{3}{2}|x|$$



$$(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(x-1)^3 + 2|x|$$

Evaluation

- Adding more features will always decrease the loss
- How do we determine when an algorithm achieves "good" performance?
- A better criterion:
 - Training set (e.g., 70 %)
 - Testing set (e.g., 30 %)



• Performance on testing set called *generalization* performance