

Regularization





- Regularization seeks to solve a few common model issues by:
 - Minimizing model complexity
 - Penalizing the loss function
 - Reducing model overfitting (add more bias to reduce model variance)





- In general, we can think of regularization as a way to reduce model overfitting and variance.
 - Requires some additional bias
 - Requires a search for optimal penalty hyperparameter.





- Three main types of Regularization:
 - L1 Regularization
 - LASSO Regression
 - L2 Regularization
 - Ridge Regression
 - Combining L1 and L2
 - Elastic Net





- L1 regularization adds a penalty equal to the absolute value of the magnitude of coefficients.
 - Limits the size of the coefficients.
 - Can yield sparse models where some coefficients can become zero.





 L1 regularization adds a penalty equal to the absolute value of the magnitude of coefficients.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| = RSS + \left| \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \right|$$



- L2 regularization adds a penalty equal to the square of the magnitude of coefficients.
 - All coefficients are shrunk by the same factor.
 - Does not necessarily eliminate coefficients.





 L2 regularization adds a penalty equal to the square of the magnitude of coefficients.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 = RSS + \left[\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 \right]$$



 Elastic net combines L1 and L2 with the addition of an alpha parameter deciding the ratio between them:

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^J \hat{\beta})^2}{2n} + \lambda \left(\frac{1 - \alpha}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \hat{\beta}_j^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\hat{\beta}_j| \right)$$



- These regularization methods do have a cost:
 - Introduce an additional hyperparameter that needs to be tuned.
 - A multiplier to the penalty to decide the "strength" of the penalty.





Later on, we will actually cover L2
regularization (Ridge Regression) first, due
to the intuition behind the squared term
being easier to understand.



- Before we dive straight into coding regularization with Scikit-Learn, we need to discuss a few more relevant topics:
 - Feature Scaling
 - Cross Validation





Feature Scaling





- Feature scaling provides many benefits to our machine learning process!
- Some machine learning models that rely on distance metrics (e.g. KNN) require scaling to perform well.
- Let's discuss the main ideas behind feature scaling...





- Feature scaling improves the convergence of steepest descent algorithms, which do not possess the property of scale invariance.
- If features are on different scales, certain weights may update faster than others since the feature values x_j play a role in the weight updates.





- Critical benefit of feature scaling related to gradient descent.
- There are some ML Algos where scaling won't have an effect (e.g. CART based methods).





- Scaling the features so that their respective ranges are uniform is important in comparing measurements that have different units.
- Allows us directly compare model coefficients to each other.





- Feature scaling caveats:
 - Must always scale new unseen data before feeding to model.
 - Effects direct interpretability of feature coefficients
 - Easier to compare coefficients to one another, harder to relate back to original unscaled feature.





- Feature scaling benefits:
 - Can lead to great increases in performance.
 - Absolutely necessary for some models.
 - Virtually no "real" downside to scaling features.



- Two main ways to scale features:
 - Standardization
 - Rescales data to have a mean (μ) of 0 and standard deviation (σ) of 1.
 - Normalization
 - Rescales all data values to be between 0-1.



- Standardization:
 - Rescales data to have a mean (μ) of 0 and standard deviation (σ) of 1 (unit variance).

$$X_{changed} = \frac{A - \mu}{\sigma}$$



- Standardization:
 - Namesake can be confusing since this is also referred to as "Z-score normalization".

$$X_{changed} = rac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$



- Normalization:
 - Scales all data values to be between 0 and 1.

$$X_{changed} = rac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}}$$



- Normalization:
 - Simple and easy to understand.

$$X_{changed} = rac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}}$$



- There are many more methods of scaling features and Scikit-Learn provides easy to use classes that "fit" and "transform" feature data for scaling.
- Let's quickly discuss the fit and transform calls in more detail when it comes to scaling.





- A .fit() method call simply calculates the necessary statistics (Xmin,Xmax,mean, standard deviation).
- A .transform() call actually scales data and returns the new scaled version of data.
- Previously saw a similar process for polynomial feature conversion.





- Very important consideration for fit and transform:
 - We only fit to training data.
 - Calculating statistical information should only come from training data.
 - Don't want to assume prior knowledge of the test set!





- Using the full data set would cause data leakage:
 - Calculating statistics from full data leads to some information of the test set leaking into the training process upon transform() conversion.



- Feature scaling process:
 - Perform train test split
 - Fit to training feature data
 - Transform training feature data
 - Transform test feature data





- Do we need to scale the label?
 - In general it is not necessary nor advised.
 - Normalising the output distribution is altering the definition of the target.
 - Predicting a distribution that doesn't mirror your real-world target.





- Do we need to scale the label?
 - Can negatively impact stochastic gradient descent.
- stats.stackexchange.com/questions/111467





 Now that we understand the benefits of feature scaling, let's move on to understanding the benefits of cross-validation!



Cross Validation





- Cross validation is a more advanced set of methods for splitting data into training and testing sets.
- Cross Validation Relevant Reading:
 - Section 5.1 of ISLR





- We understand the intuition behind performing a train test split, we want to fairly evaluate our model's performance on unseen data.
- Unfortunately this means we are not able to tune hyperparameters to the entire dataset.





- Is there a way we can achieve the following:
 - o Train on all the data
 - Evaluate on all the data
 - While it sounds impossible, we can achieve this with cross validation!
 - Let's have an overview of the concept...





• Imagine our data set:

X

Area m²	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price
200	3	2	\$500,000
190	2	1	\$450,000
230	3	3	\$650,000
180	1	1	\$400,000
210	2	2	\$550,000





 Let's convert this data into colored blocks for cross-validation

> Area m² **Bathrooms Price Bedrooms** 200 3 \$500,000 190 \$450,000 \$650,000 230 3 180 \$400,000 210 \$550,000

У





Convert to generalized form

	X		У
x ₁	X ₂	X ₃	у
x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	y ₁
x ² ₁	x ² ₁	x ² ₁	y ₂
x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	y ₃
x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	У ₄
x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	y ₅





Color based off train vs. test set.

	X		У
x ₁	X ₂	X ₃	у
x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	y ₁
x ² ₁	x ² ₁	x ² ₁	y ₂
x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	y ₃
x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	y ₄
x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	y ₅





Color based off train vs. test set.

	X							
x ₁	X ₂	X ₃	у					
x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	y ₁					
x ² ₁	x ² ₁	x ² ₁	y ₂					
$\frac{x_1^2}{x_1^3}$	x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	y ₃					
x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	У ₄					
x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	y ₅					

TRAIN

TEST





Color based off train vs. test set.

	X						
x ₁	X ₂	X ₃	у				
x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	y ₁				
x ² ₁	x ² ₁	x ² ₁	y ₂				
x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	y ₃				
x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	y ₄				
x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	y ₅				



TRAIN

TEST



For now just consider training vs testing:

	X							
X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	у					
x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	x ¹ ₁	y ₁					
x ² ₁	x ² ₁	x ² ₁	y ₂					
x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	x ³ ₁	y ₃					
x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	x ⁴ ₁	У ₄					
x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	x ⁵ ₁	y ₅					



TRAIN

TEST



For now just consider training vs testing:

 x_1^1

x⁵₁

TRAIN

 x_1^1

 X_1^5

y₁

y₅

TEST

 x_1^5



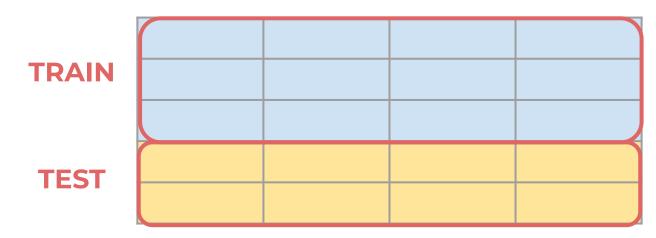


 Now we have all data, colored by training set versus test set.

TRAIN		
TEST		
ILSI		

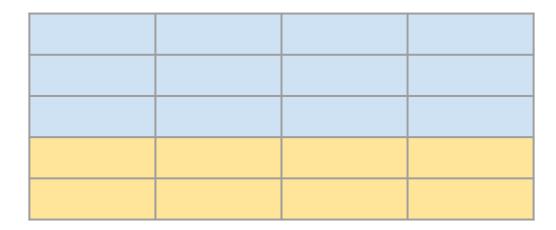






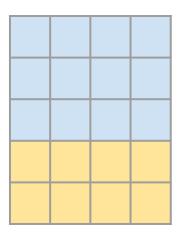




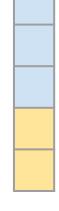
















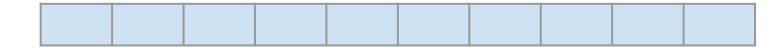
Now we can represent full data and splits:

	TDA			

PIERIAN 🍪 DATA



Let's start with the entire original data:



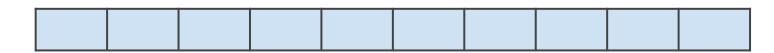


How does cross validation work?





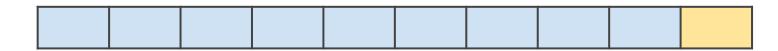
Split data into K equal parts:







• 1/K left as test set





• Train model and get error metric for split:

							ERROR 1
		TRA	IN			TFST	



Repeat for another 1/K split

					ERROR 1
					ERROR 2





Keep repeating for all possible splits

ERROR 1					
ERROR 2					
ERROR 3					





Keep repeating for all possible splits

									ERROR 1	
									ERROR 2	
									ERROR 3	
•••										
									ERROR K	





Get average error

ERROR 1
ERROR 2
ERROR 3
•••
ERROR K

PIERIAN 🍪 DATA

MEAN ERROR



Average error is the expected performance

										ERROR 1
										ERROR 2
										ERROR 3
•••									•••	
										ERROR K

MEAN

ERROR





- We were able to train on all data and evaluate on all data!
- We get a better sense of true performance across multiple potential splits.
- What is the cost of this?
 - We have to repeat computations K number of times!





- This is known as K-fold cross-validation.
- Common choice for K is 10 so each test set is 10% of your total data.
- Largest K possible would be K equal to the number of number of rows.
 - This is known as leave one out cross validation.
 - Computationally expensive!





- One consideration to note with K-fold cross validation and a standard train test split is fairly tuning hyperparameters.
- If we tune hyperparameters to test data performance, are we ever fairly getting performance metrics?



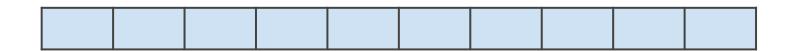


- How can we understand how the model behaves for data that is has not seen and not been influenced by for hyperparameter tuning?
- For this we can use a hold out test set.
- Let's explore what this looks like...





• Start with entire data set:





Remove a hold out test set







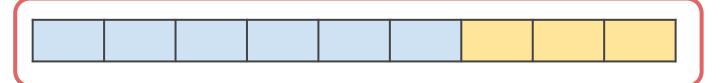
Perform "classic" train test split:







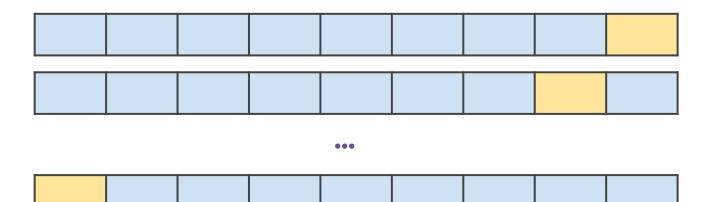
• Train and tune on this data:







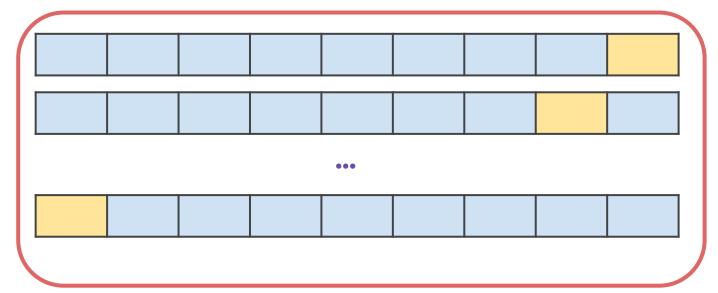
Or K-Fold cross validation







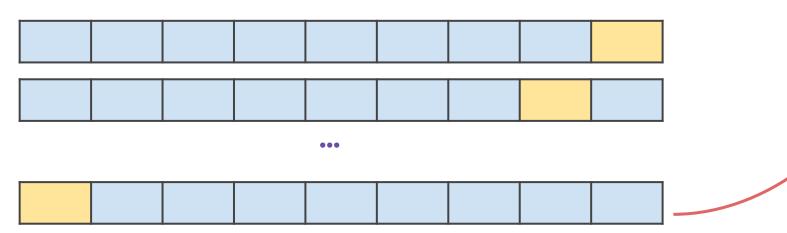
• Train and tune on this data:





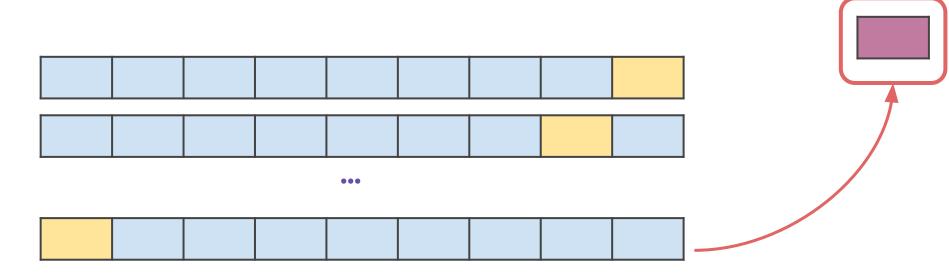


 After training and tuning perform final evaluation hold out test set.



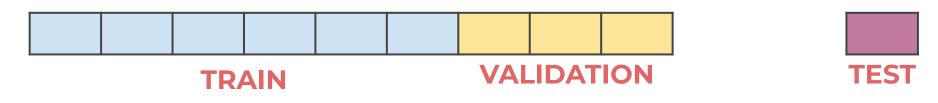


Can **not** tune after this **final** test evaluation!





Train | Validation | Test Split



- Allows us to get a true final performance metric to report.
- No editing model after this!





- All these approaches are valid, each situation is unique!
- Keep in mind:
 - Previous modeling work
 - Reporting requirements
 - Fairness of evaluation
 - Context of data and model





- Many regularization methods have tunable parameters we can adjust based on cross-validation techniques.
- For simplicity, there are times in the course we will opt for a simple two part train test split.





Regularization for Linear Regression

Data Set Up





Ridge Regression

Theory and Intuition





- Ridge Regression is a regularization technique that works by helping reduce the potential for overfitting to the training data.
- It does this by adding in a penalty term to the error that is based on the squared value of the coefficients.





- Ridge Regression is a regularization method for Linear Regression.
- Relevant Reading in ISLR:
 - Section 6.2.1
- Let's explore the main concepts behind how Ridge Regression works...





Recall the general formula for the regression line:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$



 These Beta coefficients were solved by minimizing the residual sum of squares (RSS).

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$



 These Beta coefficients were solved by minimizing the residual sum of squares (RSS).

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$



 We could substitute our regression equation for ŷ:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$



 We could substitute our regression equation for ŷ:

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \hat{\beta}_2 x_{i2} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_p x_{ip})^2$

• We can then summarize RSS as:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2$$



 The goal of Ridge Regression is to help prevent overfitting by adding an additional penalty term.

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2$$



 Ridge Regression adds a shrinkage penalty:

Error
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



 Ridge Regression seeks to minimize this entire error term RSS + Penalty.

Error
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



 Shrinkage penalty based off the squared coefficient:

Error
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



 Shrinkage penalty has a tunable lambda parameter!

Error
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



 Lambda determines how severe the penalty is.

Error
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



• In theory it can be any value from 0 to positive infinity.

Error
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



• If it is zero, then it is simply back to RSS.

Error =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$

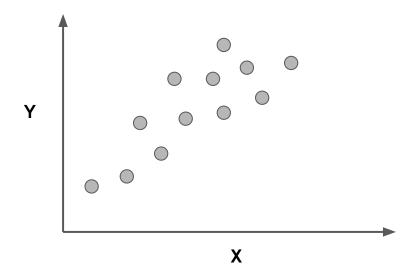


 Let's explore a simple thought experiment to get an intuition behind Ridge Regression...

Error
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



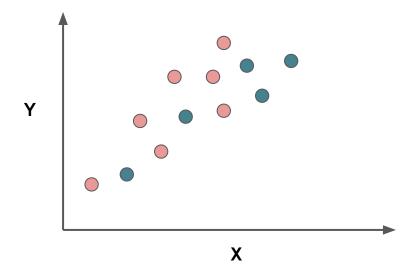
Imagine the following data set.







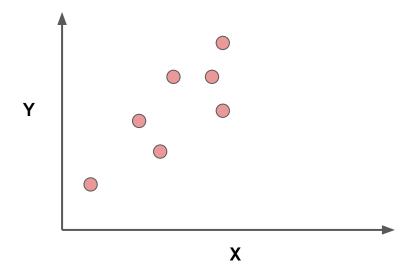
 We can split it into a training set and test set:





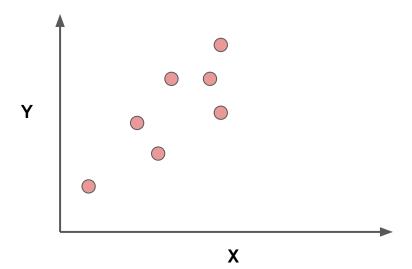


• Now we can fit on the training data to produce the line: $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$



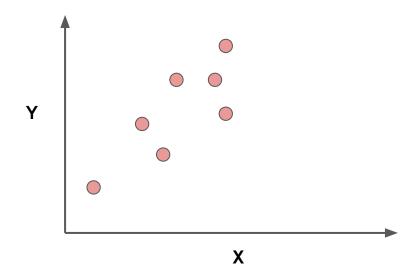


• Regardless of RSS or Ridge error, we're still trying to create a line: $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$





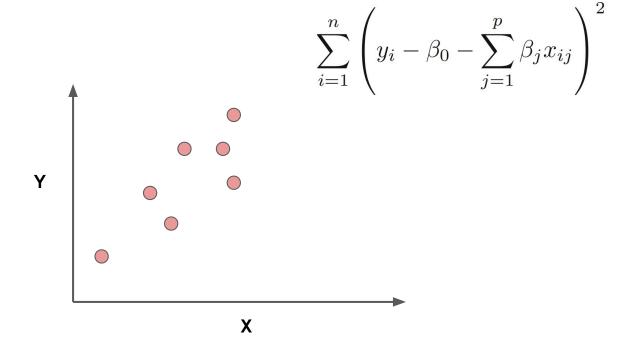
• The only difference would be the coefficients found.







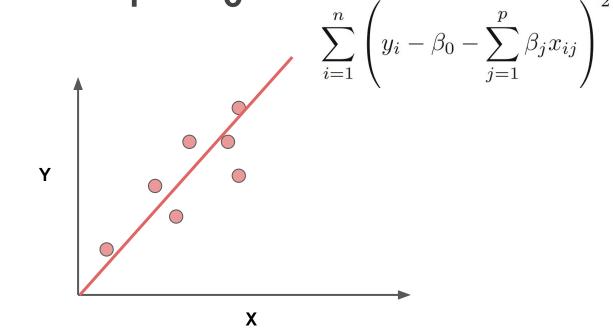
First let's fit using only RSS...





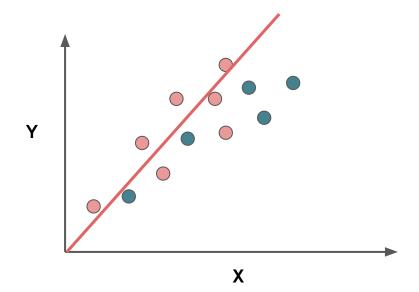


• Our fitted $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$





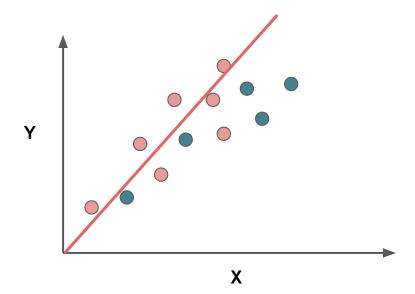
Appears to have over fit to training data.







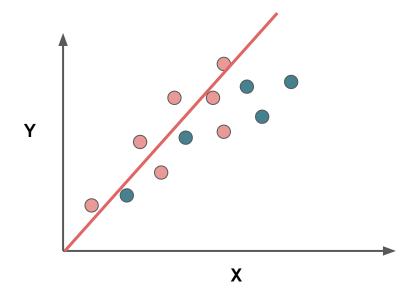
This means we have high variance.





Ridge Regression

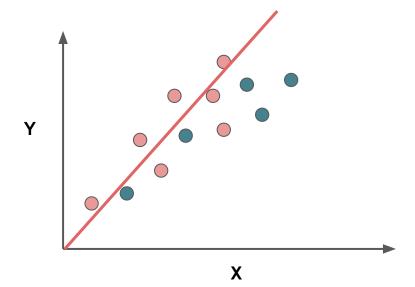
• We know there is a bias-variance trade-off.







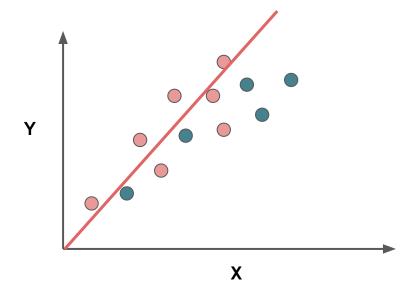
 But could we introduce a little more bias to significantly reduce variance?







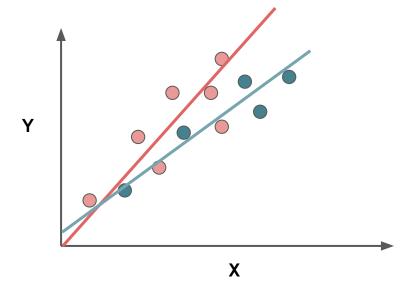
 Would adding the penalty term help generalize with more bias?







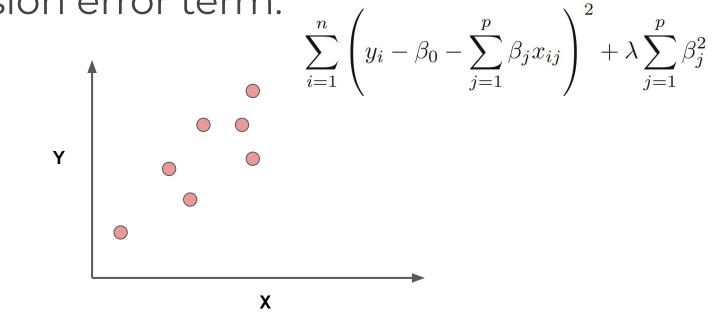
• Adding bias can help generalize $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$





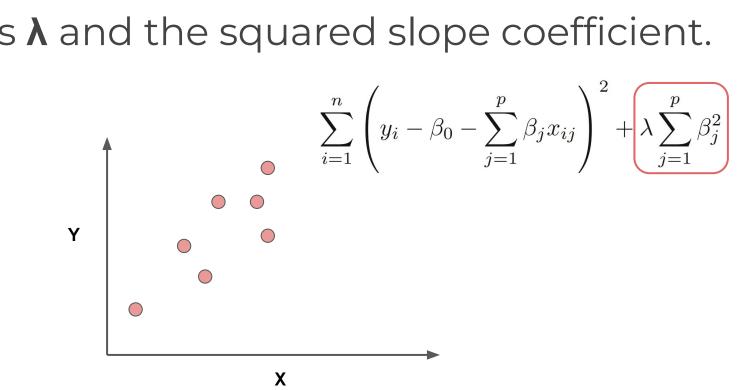


 Let's imagine trying to reduce the Ridge Regression error term:



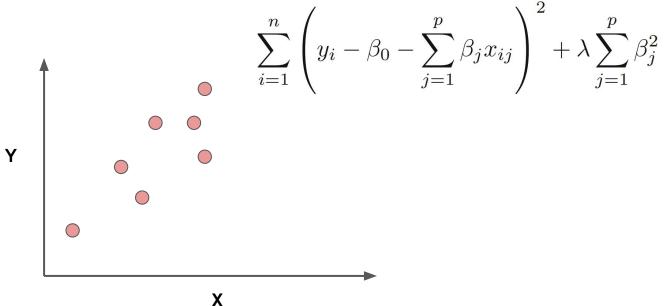


• There is λ and the squared slope coefficient.



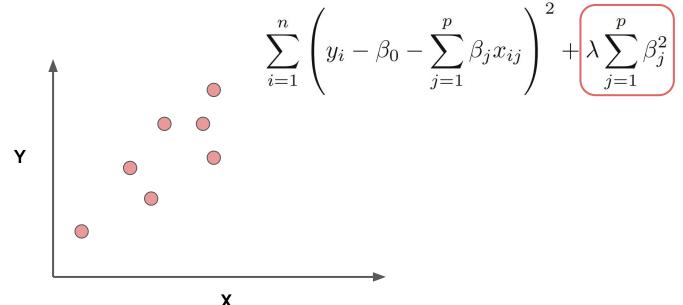


• In the case of $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$



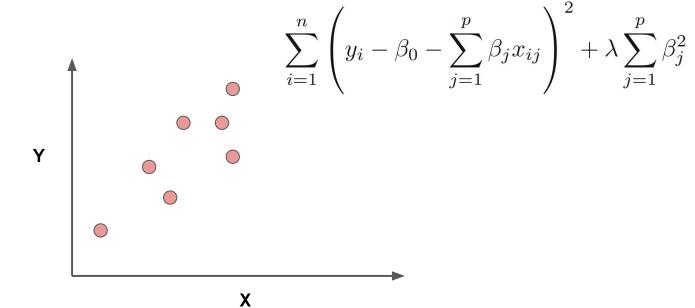


• In the case of $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$



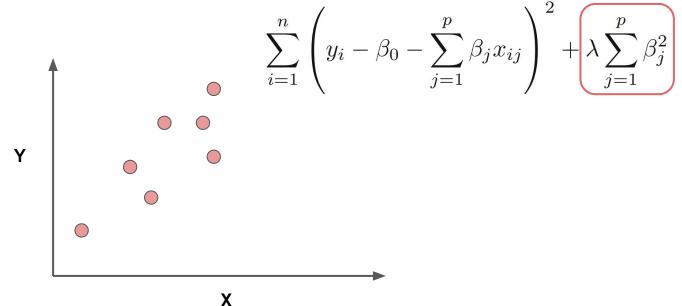


• Let's assume $\lambda = 1$





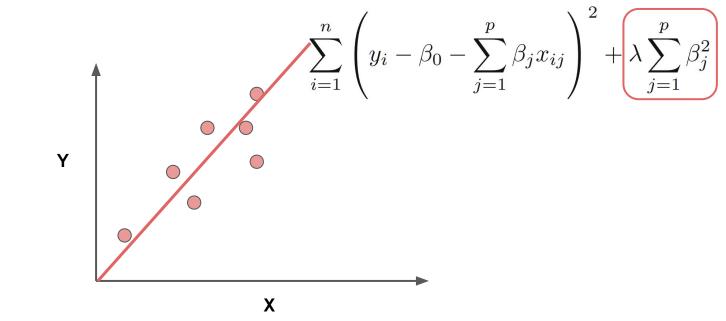
• This punishes a large slope for $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$





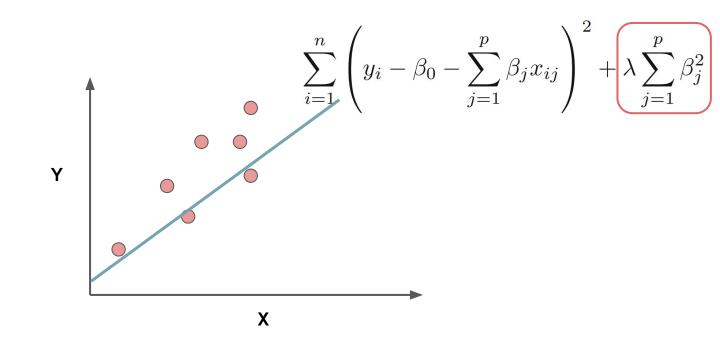


• For single feature this lowers slope





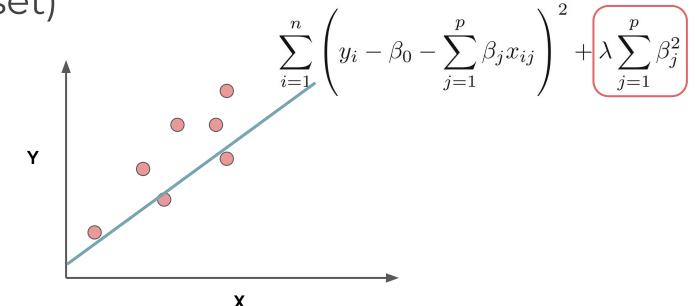
For single feature this lowers slope





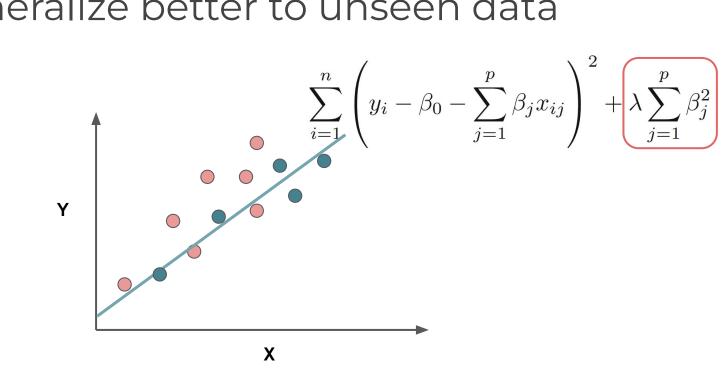


At the cost of some additional bias (error in training set)



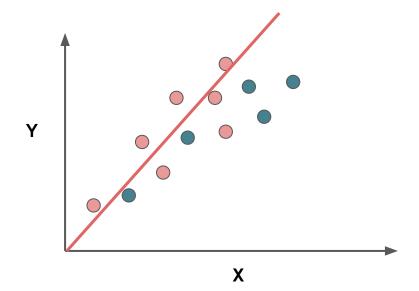


We generalize better to unseen data



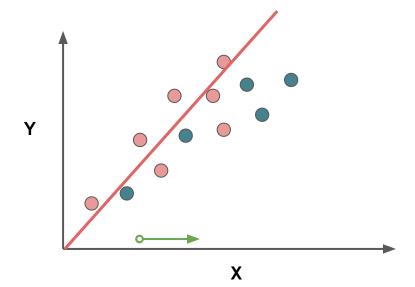


Consider overfitting to training set:



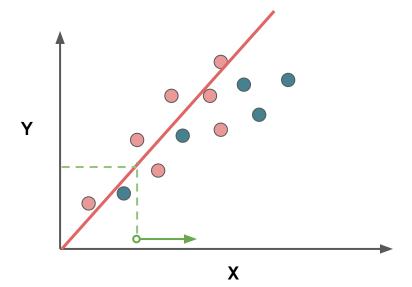






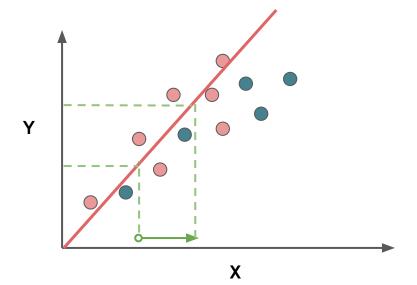






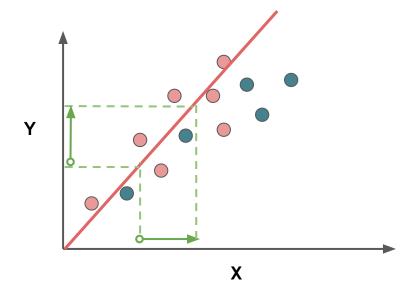








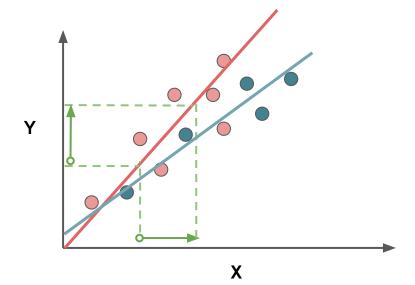








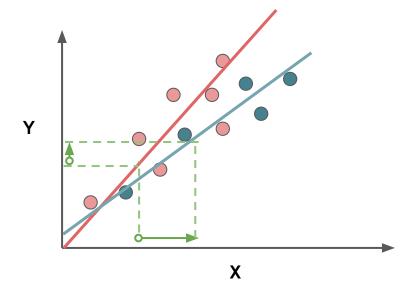
 Compare to a more generalized model that used Ridge Regression:





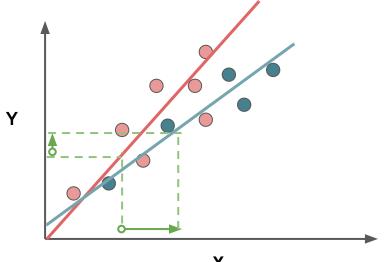


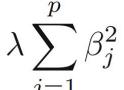
 Same feature change does not produce as much y response:



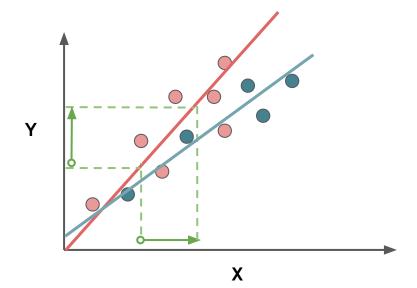


 Trying to minimize a squared Beta term leads us to punish larger coefficients.



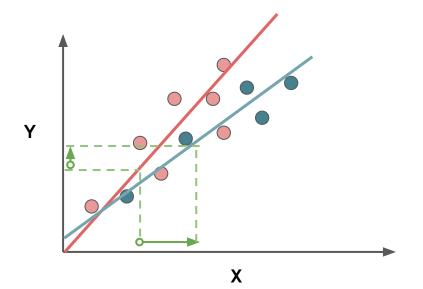


 In the case of a single feature, a larger Beta means a steeper sloped line.



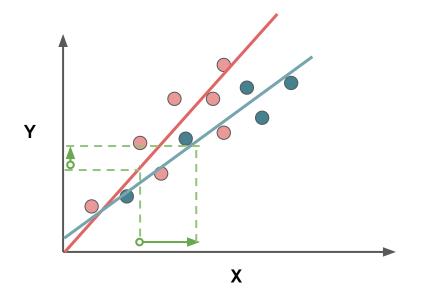


 A steeper sloped line would mean more response per increase in X value.





 What about the lambda term? How much should we punish these larger coefficients?



$$\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$

 We simply use cross-validation to explore multiple lambda options and then choose the best one!

Error
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



L2 Regularization





- Important Note!
 - Sklearn refers to lambda as alpha within the class call!

Error
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2$$



- Important Note!
 - For cross validation metrics, sklearn uses a "scorer object".
 - All scorer objects follow the convention that **higher** return values are **better** than lower return values.



- Important Note!
 - For example, obviously higher accuracy is better.
 - But higher RMSE is actually worse!
 - So Scikit-Learn fixes this by using a negative RMSE as its scorer metric.





- Important Note!
 - This allows for uniformity across all scorer metrics, even across different tasks types.
 - The same idea of uniformity across model classes applies to referring to the penalty strength parameter as alpha.





Lasso Regression

L1 Regularization





 L1 regularization adds a penalty equal to the absolute value of the magnitude of coefficients.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| = RSS + \left| \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \right|$$



- L1 regularization adds a penalty equal to the absolute value of the magnitude of coefficients.
 - Limits the size of the coefficients.
 - Can yield sparse models where some coefficients can become zero.





- LASSO can force some of the coefficient estimates to be exactly equal to zero when the tuning parameter λ is sufficiently large.
- Similar to subset selection, the LASSO performs variable selection.
- Models generated from the LASSO are generally much easier to interpret.





- LassoCV with sklearn operates on checking a number of alphas within a range, instead of providing the alphas directly.
- Let's explore the results of LASSO in Python and Scikit-Learn!





Elastic Net

L1 and L2 Regularization





- We've been able to perform Ridge and Lasso regression.
- We know Lasso is able to shrink coefficients to zero, but we haven't taken a deeper dive into how or why that is.
- This ability becomes more clear when learning about elastic net which combines Lasso and Ridge together!





- Let's dive a little deeper into Lasso.
- Lasso was originally introduced in geophysics literature in 1986 by Symes and Santosa.
- It was later independently rediscovered and popularized in 1996 by Robert Tibshirani who coined the term "Lasso".

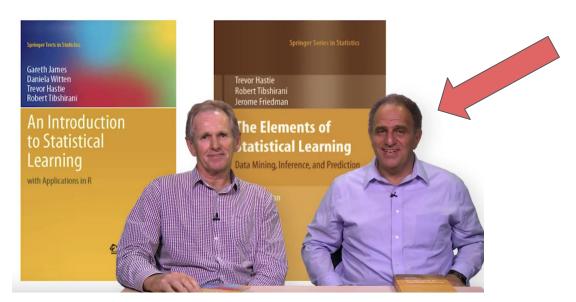




Does the name Robert Tibshirani sound familiar?



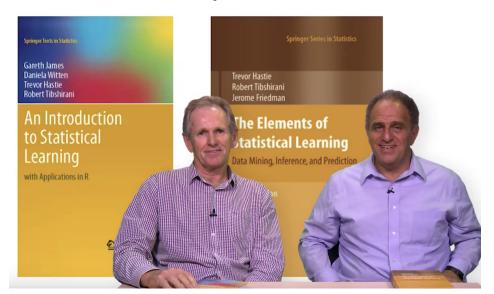
 Robert Tibshirani is one of the authors of ISLR!







 All the authors have a history of very impressive accomplishments!





• We can rewrite Lasso and Ridge:

minimize
$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \le s$$

and

$$\underset{\beta}{\text{minimize}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 \le s,$$





 There is some sum s which allows to rewrite the penalty as a requirement:

$$\min_{\beta} \operatorname{subject to} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \le s$$

and

$$\underset{\beta}{\text{minimize}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 \le s,$$



 There is some sum s which allows to rewrite the penalty as a requirement:

$$\min_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \le s$$
and
$$\min_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 \le s,$$



- Start with a simple thought experiment:
 - A simple equation:
 - $\circ \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{x}_2$
 - We know that regularization can be expressed as an additional requirement that RSS is subject to.

- Start with a simple thought experiment:
 - A simple equation:
 - $\circ \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{x}_2$
 - L1 constrains the sum of absolute values.
 - $\circ \sum |\beta|$
 - L2 constrains the sum of squared values.
 - $\circ \sum \beta^2$

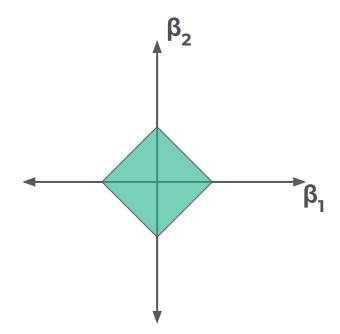


- Start with a simple thought experiment:
 - A simple equation:
 - $\hat{y} = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2$ There is some sum **s** that the penalty is less than.

- For the case of only two features:
 - $\circ \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \beta_2 \mathbf{x}_2$
- Lasso Regression Penalty:
 - $\circ |\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le s$
- Ridge Regression Penalty:
 - $\circ \beta_1^2 + \beta_2 \le s$



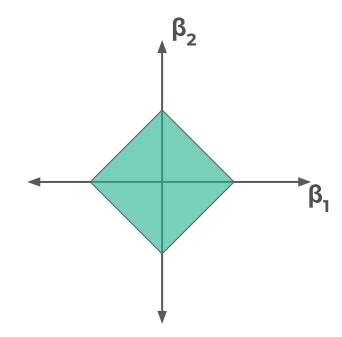
• Let's plot Lasso: $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le s$





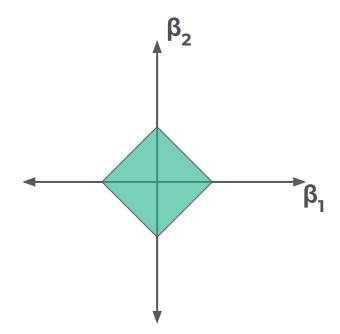


• Let's plot Lasso: $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le s$





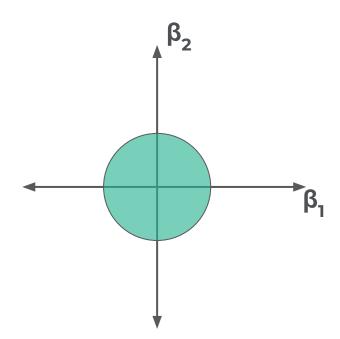
• Let's plot Lasso: $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le s$







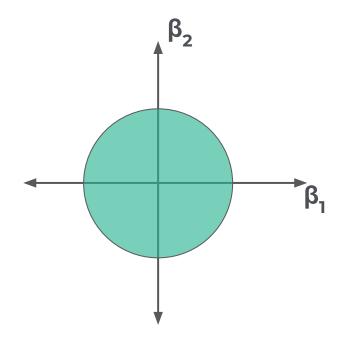
• Let's plot Ridge: $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \le s$





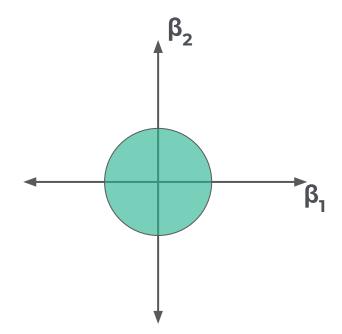


• Let's plot Ridge: $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \le s$





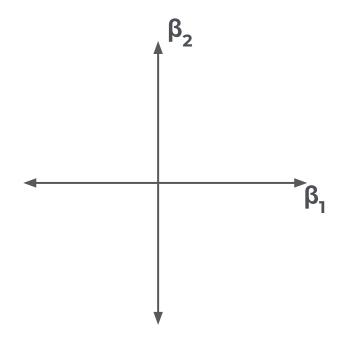
• Let's plot Ridge: $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \le s$





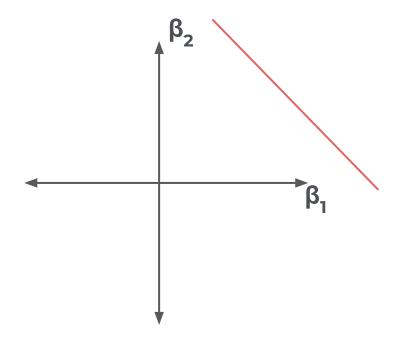


What would RSS look like?



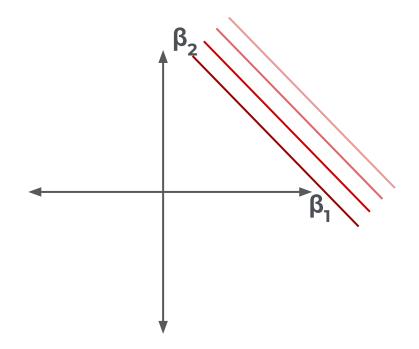


What would RSS look like?





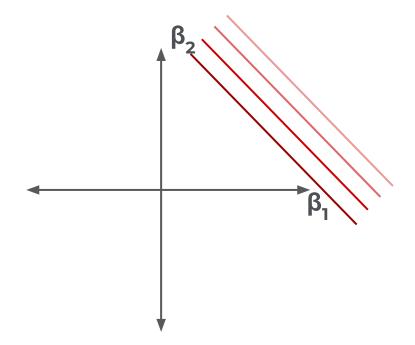
What would RSS look like?







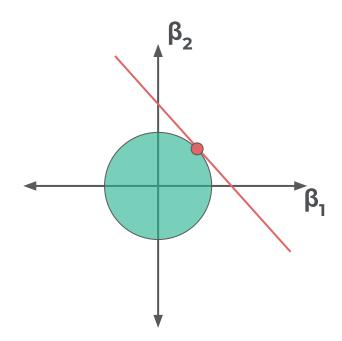
But were subject to the penalty!







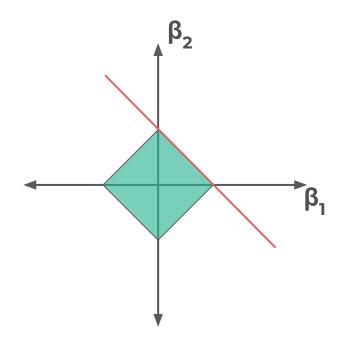
• Penalty for Ridge: $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2 \le s$







• Penalty for Lasso: $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le s$





- Lasso:
 - A convex object that lies tangent to the boundary, is likely to encounter a corner of a hypercube, for which some components of β are identically zero.



Ridge: In the case of an n-sphere, the points on the boundary for which some of the components of β are zero are not distinguished from the others and the convex object is no more likely to contact a point at which some components of β are zero than one for which none of them are.



 This is why Lasso is more likely to lead to coefficients as zero.

• This diagram is also commonly shown with

contour RSS:





 Elastic Net seeks to improve on both L1 and L2 Regularization by combining them:

Error =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$





 Here we seek to minimize RSS and both the squared and absolute value terms:

Error =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$





 Notice there are **two** distinct lambda values for each penalty:

Error =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$





 We can alternatively express this as a ratio between L1 and L2:

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^J \hat{\beta})^2}{2n} + \lambda \left(\frac{1 - \alpha}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \hat{\beta}_j^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\hat{\beta}_j| \right)$$

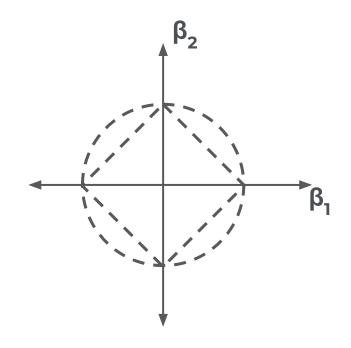


• We can also use simplified notation:

$$\hat{eta} \equiv rgmin(\|y-Xeta\|^2 + \lambda_2\|eta\|^2 + \lambda_1\|eta\|_1)$$



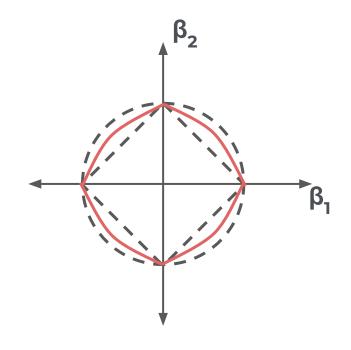
• Elastic Net Penalty Region:







• Elastic Net Penalty Region:







 Let's explore how to perform Elastic Net with Python and Scikit-learn!

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^J \hat{\beta})^2}{2n} + \lambda \left(\frac{1 - \alpha}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \hat{\beta}_j^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\hat{\beta}_j| \right)$$



Linear Regression Project Dataset

Overview

