#### **Overfitting demo**

# Create a dataset based on a true sinusoidal relationship

Let's look at a synthetic dataset consisting of 30 points drawn from the sinusoid  $y = \sin(4x)$ :

```
In [49]: import graphlab
   import math
   import random
   import numpy
   from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline
```

Create random values for x in interval [0,1)

```
In [50]: random.seed(98103)
    n = 30
    x = graphlab.SArray([random.random() for i in range(n)]).sort()
```

Compute y

```
In [51]: y = x.apply(lambda x: math.sin(4*x))
```

Add random Gaussian noise to y

```
In [52]: random.seed(1)
    e = graphlab.SArray([random.gauss(0,1.0/3.0) for i in range(n)])
    y = y + e
```

#### Put data into an SFrame to manipulate later

```
In [53]: data = graphlab.SFrame({'X1':x,'Y':y})
    data
```

Out[53]:

| X1              | Y              |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 0.0395789449501 | 0.587050191026 |
| 0.0415680996791 | 0.648655851372 |
| 0.0724319480801 | 0.307803309485 |
| 0.150289044622  | 0.310748447417 |
| 0.161334144502  | 0.237409625496 |
| 0.191956312795  | 0.705017157224 |
| 0.232833917145  | 0.461716676992 |
| 0.259900980166  | 0.383260507851 |
| 0.380145814869  | 1.06517691429  |
| 0.432444723508  | 1.03184706949  |

[30 rows x 2 columns]

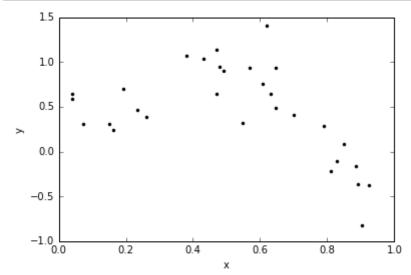
Note: Only the head of the SFrame is printed.

You can use print\_rows(num\_rows=m, num\_columns=n) to print more rows and columns.

#### Create a function to plot the data, since we'll do it many times

```
In [54]: def plot_data(data):
    plt.plot(data['X1'],data['Y'],'k.')
    plt.xlabel('x')
    plt.ylabel('y')

plot_data(data)
```



#### Define some useful polynomial regression functions

Define a function to create our features for a polynomial regression model of any degree:

Define a function to fit a polynomial linear regression model of degree "deg" to the data in "data":

Define function to plot data and predictions made, since we are going to use it many times.

```
In [57]: def plot_poly_predictions(data, model):
    plot_data(data)

# Get the degree of the polynomial
    deg = len(model.coefficients['value'])-1

# Create 200 points in the x axis and compute the predicted value for eax_pred = graphlab.SFrame({'X1':[i/200.0 for i in range(200)]})
    y_pred = model.predict(polynomial_features(x_pred,deg))

# plot predictions
    plt.plot(x_pred['X1'], y_pred, 'g-', label='degree ' + str(deg) + ' fit'
    plt.legend(loc='upper left')
    plt.axis([0,1,-1.5,2])
```

Create a function that prints the polynomial coefficients in a pretty way :)

```
In [58]: def print_coefficients(model):
    # Get the degree of the polynomial
    deg = len(model.coefficients['value'])-1

# Get learned parameters as a list
    w = list(model.coefficients['value'])

# Numpy has a nifty function to print out polynomials in a pretty way
    # (We'll use it, but it needs the parameters in the reverse order)
    print 'Learned polynomial for degree ' + str(deg) + ':'
    w.reverse()
    print numpy.polyld(w)
```

#### Fit a degree-2 polynomial

Fit our degree-2 polynomial to the data generated above:

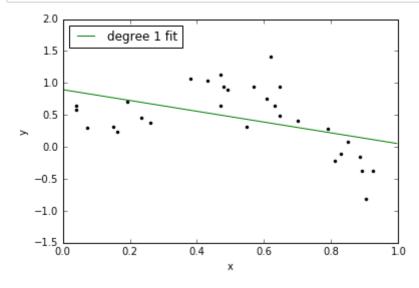
```
In [62]: model = polynomial_regression(data, deg=0)
```

Inspect learned parameters

```
In [63]: print_coefficients(model)
Learned polynomial for degree 1:
```

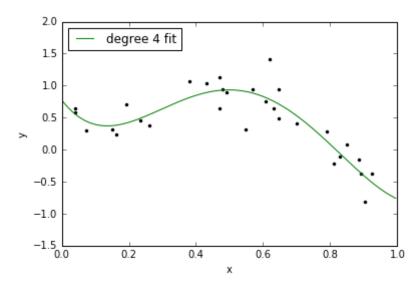
-0.846 x + 0.8961

Form and plot our predictions along a grid of x values:



### Fit a degree-4 polynomial

```
In [43]: model = polynomial_regression(data, deg=4)
    print_coefficients(model)
    plot_poly_predictions(data, model)
```

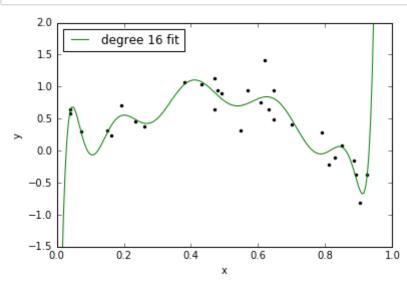


#### Fit a degree-16 polynomial

```
In [47]: model = polynomial_regression(data, deg=16)
    print_coefficients(model)
```

###Woah!!!! Those coefficients are crazy! On the order of 10^6.

In [48]: plot\_poly\_predictions(data,model)



Above: Fit looks pretty wild, too. Here's a clear example of how overfitting is associated with very large magnitude estimated coefficients.

#

#

#

#

## **Ridge Regression**

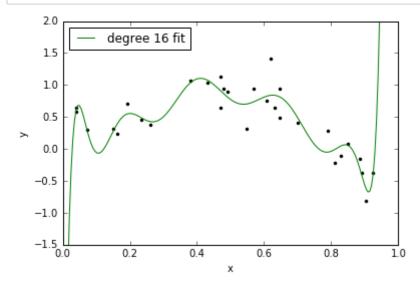
Ridge regression aims to avoid overfitting by adding a cost to the RSS term of standard least squares that depends on the 2-norm of the coefficients ||w||. The result is penalizing fits with large coefficients. The strength of this penalty, and thus the fit vs. model complexity balance, is controlled by a parameter lambda (here called "L2\_penalty").

Define our function to solve the ridge objective for a polynomial regression model of any degree:

## Perform a ridge fit of a degree-16 polynomial using a *very* small penalty strength

In [25]: model = polynomial\_ridge\_regression(data, deg=16, l2\_penalty=1e-25)
 print\_coefficients(model)

In [26]: plot\_poly\_predictions(data,model)

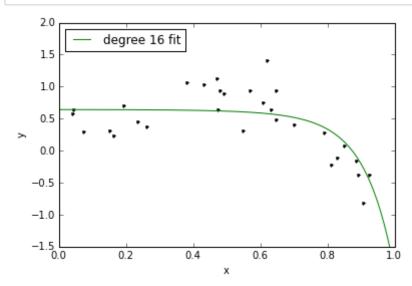


## Perform a ridge fit of a degree-16 polynomial using a very large penalty strength

In [20]: model = polynomial\_ridge\_regression(data, deg=16, 12\_penalty=100)
 print\_coefficients(model)

Learned polynomial for degree 16:  $16 \qquad 15 \qquad 14 \qquad 13 \qquad 12 \qquad 11$   $-0.301 \times -0.2802 \times -0.2604 \times -0.2413 \times -0.2229 \times -0.205 \times 10 \qquad 9 \qquad 8 \qquad 7 \qquad 6 \qquad 5$   $-0.1874 \times -0.1699 \times -0.1524 \times -0.1344 \times -0.1156 \times -0.09534 \times 4 \qquad 3 \qquad 2$   $-0.07304 \times -0.04842 \times -0.02284 \times -0.002257 \times +0.6416$ 

In [21]: plot\_poly\_predictions(data,model)

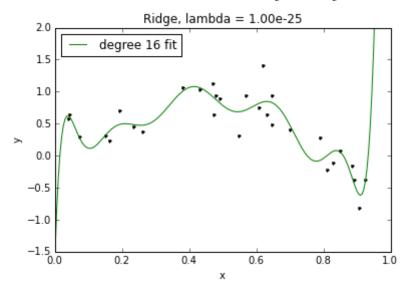


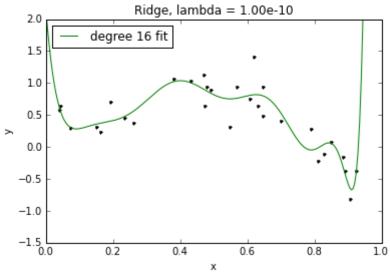
# Let's look at fits for a sequence of increasing lambda values

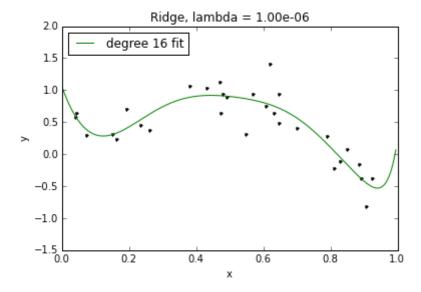
```
In [22]: for 12_penalty in [1e-25, 1e-10, 1e-6, 1e-3, 1e2]:
    model = polynomial_ridge_regression(data, deg=16, 12_penalty=12_penalty)
    print 'lambda = %.2e' % 12_penalty
    print_coefficients(model)
    print '\n'
    plt.figure()
    plot_poly_predictions(data,model)
    plt.title('Ridge, lambda = %.2e' % 12_penalty)
```

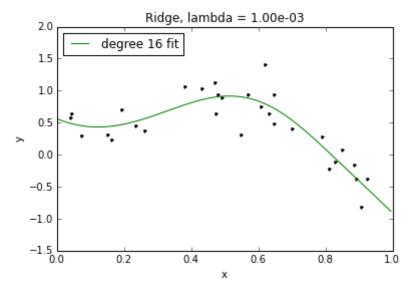
```
Overfitting_Demo_Ridge_Lasso
lambda = 1.00e-25
Learned polynomial for degree 16:
-4.537e+05 x + 1.129e+06 x + 4.821e+05 x - 3.81e+06 x
                                                                                      11
                                                                                                                                     10
                                         12
   + 3.536e+06 x + 5.753e+04 x - 1.796e+06 x + 2.178e+06 x
                                                  7
                                                                                                     6
   -3.662e+06 \times +4.442e+06 \times -3.13e+06 \times +1.317e+06 \times -3.356e+05 \times -3.462e+06 \times -3.4
   + 5.06e+04 x - 4183 x + 160.8 x - 1.621
lambda = 1.00e-10
Learned polynomial for degree 16:
4.975e+04 \times - 7.821e+04 \times - 2.265e+04 \times + 3.949e+04 \times
                                                                                              10
                                           12 11
   + 4.366e+04 x + 3074 x - 3.332e+04 x - 2.786e+04 x + 1.032e+04 x
                                                                                      5
                                                                                                                                                           4 3
   + 2.962e+04 \times - 1440 \times - 2.597e+04 \times + 1.839e+04 \times - 5596 \times + 866.1 \times -
   65.19 \times + 2.159
lambda = 1.00e-06
Learned polynomial for degree 16:
                                 15
                                                                                                     13 12
329.1 \times -356.4 \times -264.2 \times +33.8 \times +224.7 \times +210.8 \times
                            10 9
                                                                                       8
                                                                                                                        7
                                                                                                                                                      6
  + 49.62 \times - 122.4 \times - 178 \times - 79.13 \times + 84.89 \times + 144.9 \times + 5.123 \times
   -156.9 x + 88.21 x - 14.82 x + 1.059
lambda = 1.00e-03
Learned polynomial for degree 16:
                     16 15 14 13 12
                                                                                                                                                                                                     11
6.364 \times -1.596 \times -4.807 \times -4.778 \times -2.776 \times +0.1238 \times
                                                               9
                                                                                                                             7
   + 2.977 x + 4.926 x + 5.203 x + 3.248 x - 0.9291 x - 6.011 x
   -8.395 x - 2.655 x + 9.861 x - 2.225 x + 0.5636
lambda = 1.00e+02
Learned polynomial for degree 16:
```

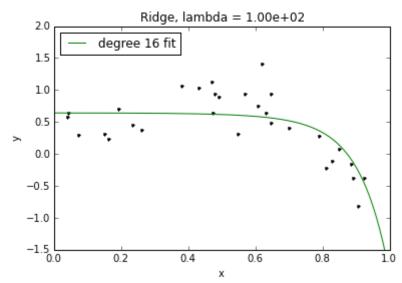
15 14 13 12 -0.301 x - 0.2802 x - 0.2604 x - 0.2413 x - 0.2229 x - 0.205 x8 9  $-0.1874 \times -0.1699 \times -0.1524 \times -0.1344 \times -0.1156 \times -0.09534 \times$  $-0.07304 \times -0.04842 \times -0.02284 \times -0.002257 \times +0.6416$ 











In [23]:

data

Out[23]:

| X1              | Y              |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 0.0395789449501 | 0.587050191026 |
| 0.0415680996791 | 0.648655851372 |
| 0.0724319480801 | 0.307803309485 |
| 0.150289044622  | 0.310748447417 |
| 0.161334144502  | 0.237409625496 |
| 0.191956312795  | 0.705017157224 |
| 0.232833917145  | 0.461716676992 |
| 0.259900980166  | 0.383260507851 |
| 0.380145814869  | 1.06517691429  |
| 0.432444723508  | 1.03184706949  |

[30 rows x 2 columns]

Note: Only the head of the SFrame is printed.

You can use print\_rows(num\_rows=m, num\_columns=n) to print more rows and columns.

# Perform a ridge fit of a degree-16 polynomial using a "good" penalty strength

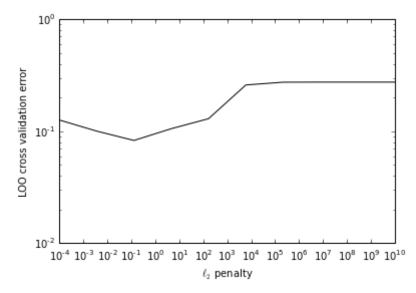
We will learn about cross validation later in this course as a way to select a good value of the tuning parameter (penalty strength) lambda. Here, we consider "leave one out" (LOO) cross validation, which one can show approximates average mean square error (MSE). As a result, choosing lambda to minimize the LOO error is equivalent to choosing lambda to minimize an approximation to average MSE.

```
In [30]:
         # LOO cross validation -- return the average MSE
         def loo(data, deg, 12 penalty values):
             # Create polynomial features
             data = polynomial_features(data, deg)
             # Create as many folds for cross validatation as number of data points
             num folds = len(data)
             folds = graphlab.cross validation.KFold(data, num folds)
             # for each value of 12 penalty, fit a model for each fold and compute as
             12 penalty mse = []
             min mse = None
             best 12 penalty = None
             for 12 penalty in 12 penalty values:
                 next mse = 0.0
                 for train_set, validation_set in folds:
                      # train model
                     model = graphlab.linear regression.create(train set,target='Y',
                                                                12 penalty=12 penalty,
                                                                validation set=None, ve
                      # predict on validation set
                     y_test_predicted = model.predict(validation_set)
                      # compute squared error
                      next_mse += ((y_test_predicted-validation_set['Y'])**2).sum()
                 # save squared error in list of MSE for each 12_penalty
                 next mse = next mse/num folds
                 12 penalty mse.append(next mse)
                 if min mse is None or next mse < min mse:
                     min mse = next mse
                     best 12 penalty = 12 penalty
             return 12 penalty mse, best 12 penalty
```

Run LOO cross validation for "num" values of lambda, on a log scale

Plot results of estimating LOO for each value of lambda

```
In [38]: plt.plot(l2_penalty_values,l2_penalty_mse,'k-')
    plt.xlabel('$\ell_2$ penalty')
    plt.ylabel('LOO cross validation error')
    plt.xscale('log')
    plt.yscale('log')
```



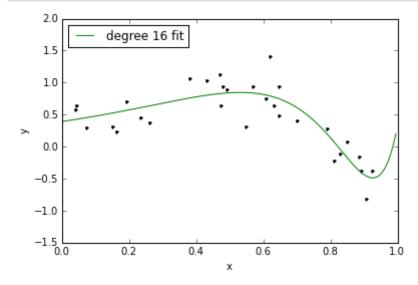
Find the value of lambda,  $\lambda_{CV}$ , that minimizes the LOO cross validation error, and plot resulting fit

```
In [39]: best_12_penalty
```

Out[39]: 0.12915496650148839

```
Learned polynomial for degree 16:  
    16     15     14     13     12     11  
1.345 x + 1.141 x + 0.9069 x + 0.6447 x + 0.3569 x + 0.04947 x  
    10     9     8     7     6     5  
- 0.2683 x - 0.5821 x - 0.8701 x - 1.099 x - 1.216 x - 1.145 x  
    4     3     2  
- 0.7837 x - 0.07406 x + 0.7614 x + 0.7703 x + 0.3918
```

In [35]: plot\_poly\_predictions(data,model)



#

#

#

#

### **Lasso Regression**

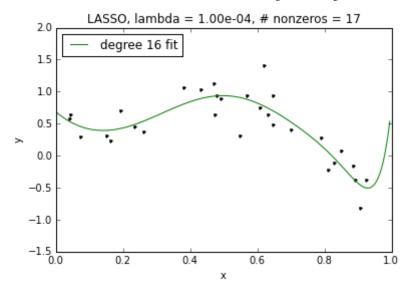
Lasso regression jointly shrinks coefficients to avoid overfitting, and implicitly performs feature selection by setting some coefficients exactly to 0 for sufficiently large penalty strength lambda (here called "L1\_penalty"). In particular, lasso takes the RSS term of standard least squares and adds a 1-norm cost of the coefficients ||w||.

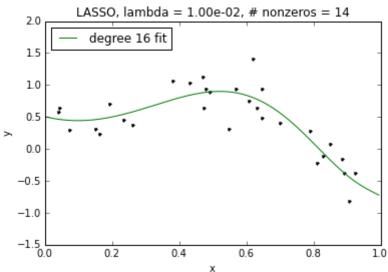
Define our function to solve the lasso objective for a polynomial regression model of any degree:

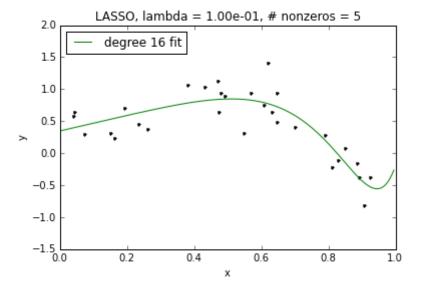
## Explore the lasso solution as a function of a few different penalty strengths

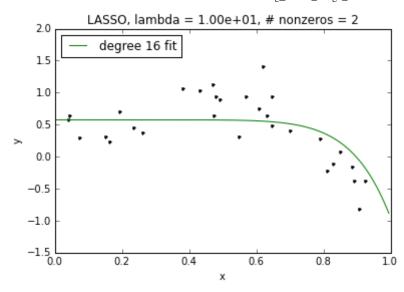
We refer to lambda in the lasso case below as "I1\_penalty"

```
In [37]: for 11 penalty in [0.0001, 0.01, 0.1, 10]:
             model = polynomial lasso regression(data, deg=16, 11 penalty=11 penalty)
             print 'l1 penalty = %e' % l1 penalty
             print 'number of nonzeros = %d' % (model.coefficients['value']).nnz()
             print coefficients(model)
             print '\n'
             plt.figure()
             plot poly predictions(data, model)
             plt.title('LASSO, lambda = %.2e, # nonzeros = %d' % (11 penalty, (model
         11 \text{ penalty} = 1.000000e-04
         number of nonzeros = 17
         Learned polynomial for degree 16:
                                             13 12
                16
                          15 14
                                                                        11
         29.02 \times + 1.35 \times - 12.72 \times - 16.93 \times - 13.82 \times - 6.698 \times
                             9
                                       8 7
          + 1.407 x + 8.939 x + 12.88 x + 11.44 x + 3.759 x - 8.062 x
                   4 3
          -16.28 \times -7.682 \times +17.86 \times -4.384 \times +0.685
         11 \text{ penalty} = 1.000000e-02
         number of nonzeros = 14
         Learned polynomial for degree 16:
                                                  10
                             15
                                           11
         -1.18 \times -0.001318 \times +0.08745 \times +0.7389 \times +3.828 \times +0.4761 \times
                           6 5 4
                                                                    3
          + 0.1282 \times + 0.001952 \times - 0.6151 \times - 10.11 \times - 0.0003954 \times + 6.686 \times -
          1.28 x + 0.5056
         11 \text{ penalty} = 1.000000e-01
         number of nonzeros = 5
         Learned polynomial for degree 16:
                       6
         2.21 x - 1.002 x - 2.962 x + 1.216 x + 0.3473
         11 \text{ penalty} = 1.000000e+01
         number of nonzeros = 2
         Learned polynomial for degree 16:
         -1.526 x + 0.5755
```









Above: We see that as lambda increases, we get sparser and sparser solutions. However, even for our non-sparse case for lambda=0.0001, the fit of our high-order polynomial is not too wild. This is because, like in ridge, coefficients included in the lasso solution are shrunk relative to those of the least squares (unregularized) solution. This leads to better behavior even without sparsity. Of course, as lambda goes to 0, the amount of this shrinkage decreases and the lasso solution approaches the (wild) least squares solution.

| In [ ]: |  |
|---------|--|
|         |  |
| In [ ]: |  |