Introduction to Statistical Machine Learning CSC/DSCC 265/465

Lecture 9: Regularization

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Notes and updates



Notes and updates

- We will be posting the grades for PS2 soon.
 - Average is **91.75**.
- PS4 posted, deadline is Sunday, Feburary 20, 11:59 PM
- Rings of Power Trailer has been released!
- Quick advice:
 - Please start on the homework before we help you!





Plan for today

- Multinomial Logistic Regression
- Regularization



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Multinomial Logistic Regression



Multinomial Logistic Regression

 <u>Definition</u>: A classification method that generalizes logistic regression to multiclass problems.

$$y_i \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$$

- Note: One of the labels becomes the reference category!
- Different names exist in the literature:
 - Multiclass logistic regression
 - Softmax regression
 - Multinomial logit
 - Multinomial logistic regression
- Question: What can be the puzzles we are trying to solve?
- Question: What do we need to modify to expand the two-class logistic regression model?

Multinomial Logistic Regression

- Dependent variable: Nominal (=categorical).
 - Cannot be ordinal or nested or
 - Assumption: Categorical choices need to be independent
- Puzzles we may be interested in solving:
 - Which <u>major</u> will a student choose at college?
 - Which <u>language</u> is being typed in at the moment?
 - Which <u>speaker</u> is currently speaking?
 - Which party will the electorate choose in elections?
 - Which <u>country</u> is the best to invest in?
- Note: Assumption of Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)



Independence or Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)

- Idea: If the preference ratio between outcome A and outcome B is x
 - The preference ratio should still stay **x** when a new **outcome C** is added to the dataset
- Example: Travelling to work 10 times
 - Prefer bus 6 out of 10 times
 - Prefer walking 4 out of 10 times
 - Ratio: 1.5
 - Let's add car as an option
 - Bus: 4 out of 10 times, walking: 2 out of 10 times, car: 4 out of 10 times
 - IIA does not hold here!



Multinomial Distribution

- Multinomial distribution:
 - A generalization of the binomial distribution
 - Let's say we have a response variable y_i that may take k many class labels such that $y_i \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$
 - When k = 2 and n > 1, multinomial distribution becomes binomial distribution
 - If k is finite, and we have k many <u>mutually exclusive</u> outcomes with corresponding probabilities $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ and n independent trials:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{J} p_i = 1$$

Question: What is a random variable?

• If the random variables X_i indicate the number of times outcome i is observed over n trials, $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_k)$ follows a multinomial distribution.

Multinomial Logit

- <u>Idea</u>: Run 'several' models to determine the outcome for *c* categories
 - Question: How many models do we need to run?
 - Answer: Run K-1 many models
- Setup:
 - One outcome is chosen as the 'reference'
 - Other *K-1* outcomes are separately regressed against the reference
- Example: If the last class label is chosen as the reference, we get the following log-

odds:

$$\ln rac{\Pr(Y_i = 1)}{\Pr(Y_i = K)} = oldsymbol{eta}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i$$

$$\ln rac{\Pr(Y_i = 2)}{\Pr(Y_i = K)} = oldsymbol{eta}_2 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i$$

Question: How are these values useful?

.

$$\ln rac{\Pr(Y_i = K - 1)}{\Pr(Y_i = K)} = oldsymbol{eta}_{K-1} \cdot \mathbf{X}_i$$



Calculating Probabilities

We need to convert them to probabilities...

Idea: Multiply and exponentiate

$$egin{aligned} & \frac{\Pr(Y_i = 1)}{\Pr(Y_i = K)} = oldsymbol{eta}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i \ & \ln rac{\Pr(Y_i = 2)}{\Pr(Y_i = K)} = oldsymbol{eta}_2 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\ln rac{\Pr(Y_i = K - 1)}{\Pr(Y_i = K)} = oldsymbol{eta}_{K-1} \cdot \mathbf{X}_i$$

First, we get the logodds ratios

$$egin{aligned} \Pr(Y_i = 1) &= \Pr(Y_i = K) e^{oldsymbol{eta}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i} \ \Pr(Y_i = 2) &= \Pr(Y_i = K) e^{oldsymbol{eta}_2 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i} \ & \cdots \end{aligned}$$

$$\Pr(Y_i = K-1) = \Pr(Y_i = K)e^{oldsymbol{eta}_{K-1}\cdot \mathbf{X}_i}$$

$$\Pr(Y_i = 1) = rac{e^{oldsymbol{eta}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_i}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{oldsymbol{eta}_k \cdot \mathbf{X}_i}}$$

$$\Pr(Y_i=2)=rac{e^{oldsymbol{eta}_2\cdot \mathbf{X}_i}}{1+\sum_{k=1}^{K-1}e^{oldsymbol{eta}_k\cdot \mathbf{X}_i}}$$
 And, we get

$$\Pr(Y_i = K-1) = rac{e^{oldsymbol{eta}_{K-1} \cdot \mathbf{X}_i}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} e^{oldsymbol{eta}_k \cdot \mathbf{X}_i}}$$



them at the end.



Softmax Function

- Reminder: We would like to label each feature vector with a class k from a set of K classes
- Softmax: A generalization of the Sigmoid function
- <u>Idea</u>: Take a vector $\mathbf{z} = [z_1, z_2, ..., z_K]$ of K arbitrary values and map them to a probability distribution
 - Note: Each value in the vector z is between 0 and 1 and sum of all values in the vector is 1.

$$softmax(z_j) = \frac{e^{z_j}}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} e^{z_k}} for j = 1, ..., K$$

<u>Question</u>: What is the difference between *softmax* and *sigmoid*?

Also used in CNN, Discriminant Analysis, Naïve Bayes, Reinforcement Learning etc.

Plan for today

- Multinomial Logistic Regression
- Regularization



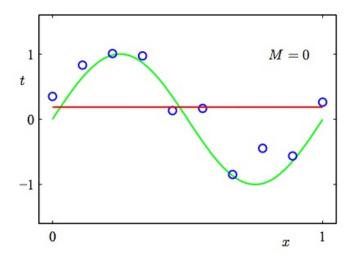
Regularization

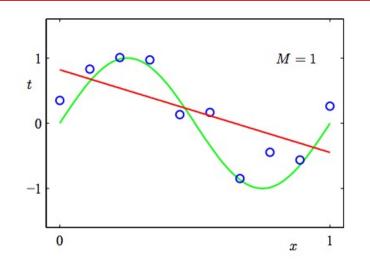


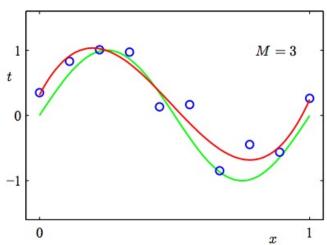
Reminder: Overfitting

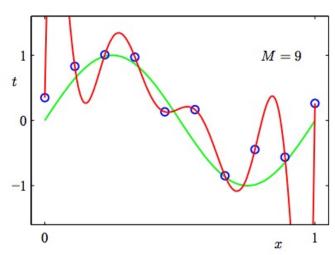
- A "big" problem for all machine learning algorithms
- The model captures the noise in the training data instead of the underlying structure (that exists in the population)
- Can occur in many models, but especially in:
 - **Decision Trees** (e.g. when the tree is too deep)
 - KNN (e.g. when K is small)
 - Perceptron (e.g. when sample is not representative)
 - Linear Regression (e.g. when features are not linear)
 - Logistic Regression (e.g. when categorical features are unevenly distributed)

Overfitting: Example









- Example: Polynomial regression
- Top-left: Degree 0
- Top-right: Degree 1
- Bottom-left: Degree 3
- Bottom-right: Degree 9

Result:

- The higher the degree, the more capacity to "overfit"
- Error gets <u>lower</u> on training data, but it is <u>higher</u> on new data

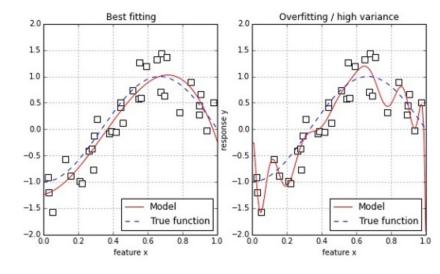
Overfitting: More Formally

- Assume that the data is drawn from some fixed, unknown probability distribution
- Every hypothesis has a "true" error e(h), which is the expected error when data
 is drawn from the distribution
- Because we work on a "sample", we measure the error on the training set:
 e_{Training}(h)
- Suppose we compare two hypotheses on the training set, calculate the errors and show statistically significantly that $e_{Training}(h_1) < e_{Training}(h_2)$, but <u>no</u> statistically significant proof that $e_{Test}(h_1) < e_{Test}(h_2)$
 - We are "overfitting"! And we need to fix it!



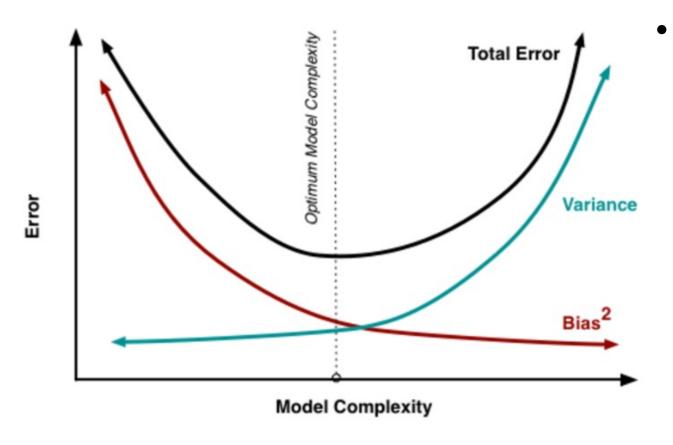
What is model complexity?

- A complex mapping has many terms and parameters
- And, in some cases, complex models may have more parameters than the data has examples
- Problem: the algorithm starts memorizing everything in the data – not just the signals, but also the random noise, the errors, and all the slightly specific characteristics of the sample





Bias-Variance Tradeoff



- As the model complexity increases:
 - Variance increases
 - Bias decreases
 - There is an "optimum spot" between bias and variance
 - We can reach that "optimum level" using regularization



Motivation: Regularization

- (Hypothetical) Question:
 - When does a model 'usually' give its best performance?
 - Answer: When all the variables in a dataset are fully included
 - In other words: When the model is fully saturated
- Example: Stock Prices
 - Suppose we want to predict Tesla's stock price at time t+1
 - What do we need?
 - Ideally all prices of all stocks in all past periods
 - And all news from all newspapers
 - And <u>all</u> weather reports
 - And <u>all</u> different colors worn by the class in <u>all</u> past periods
 - Do we really need all of this data?



Motivation: Regularization

What does <u>regularization</u> do?

- Occam's Razor: Prefer the simplest hypothesis (parsimony)
- Bayesian perspective: Impose a prior distribution on model coefficients
- What does it mean for a hypothesis to be simple (or parsimonious)?
- 1) Small number of features (model selection)



2) Small number of 'important' features (shrinkage)





Objectives: Regularization

* Idea: Restrict the space of solutions f to an appropriately small hypothesis space

Helps you to:

- Engineer appropriate features for a new task
- Use feature selection techniques to identify and remove irrelevant features
- Identify when a model is overfitting
- Add a regularizer to an existing objective in order to combat overfitting
- Explain why we should not regularize the bias term
- Convert linearly inseparable dataset to a linearly separable dataset in higher dimensions
- Describe feature engineering in common application areas



Technical Background



Regularization: Simple Terms

- <u>Lesson</u>: Complicated hypotheses lead to overfitting
- Idea: Change the error function to penalize hypothesis complexity

$$Error(\mathbf{w}) = Error_D(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda * Error_{penalty}(\mathbf{w})$$

- This is called regularization in machine learning and shrinkage in statistics
- λ is called regularization coefficient and controls how much we value fitting the sample data well vs. a simple hypothesis that generalizes well



Regularization

• Goal: Minimize a quadratic function:

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} H[f] = \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} V(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda ||f||_K^2$$

- Where V() is a loss function, and $||f||_K^2$ is a norm defined by function K, I is the number of training examples, and λ is the regularization parameter.
- The solution to the equation above is given by $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$
 - Summary: Find a regularization parameter that influences each data point in a 'different' and 'instant' way so that the overall cost is minimized.



Regularization vs. Generalization

- Question: How does Bayesian statistics come into play?
- Answer: We can only measure the performance of the regularizer on the training sample, <u>not</u> on the population data

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} c_i K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$
 is dependent on $I_{exp}[f] \equiv \int V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) dP(\mathbf{x}, y)$.

- where I() represents the generalization error, V() is the cost function, and P(x, y) is the probability distribution
- <u>But</u>: Do we know *P(x, y)*?
 - Answer: No. We can only the measure the empirical deviation using a sample:

$$I_{emp}[f] \equiv \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} V(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

ROCHESTER

Loss Functions with Regularization Parameter

General formula:

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} H[f] = \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} V(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda ||f||_K^2$$

Loss function V() is selected appropriately for context

$$V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = (y - f(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

$$V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = |y - f(\mathbf{x})|_{\epsilon}$$
 $|y - f(\mathbf{x})|_{\epsilon} = \max(0, |y - f(\mathbf{x})| - \epsilon)$

$$V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = |y - f(\mathbf{x})|_{\epsilon}$$

$$V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = \Theta(-yf(\mathbf{x}))$$

$$V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = (1 - yf(\mathbf{x}))_+$$
 SVM classification with a soft margin

$$V(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = (f(\mathbf{x}) - y)^2$$

Quadratic classification loss

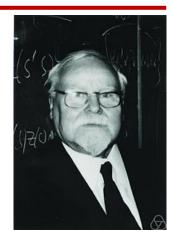
Linear regression

Support Vector Machine



Tikhonov Regularization

- <u>'Father'</u> of L2-regularization
 - L2-regularization = Tikhonov regularization
- <u>Idea</u>: Add *L2-norm* of the vector of weights (w) to the loss function in order to prefer solutions with smaller norms
 - Also known as Ridge regression



Andrey Nikolayevich Tikhonov

- <u>Tikhonov</u> Regularization function: $\min_{w} \sum_{i=1}^{n} V(\hat{x}_i \cdot w, \hat{y}_i) + \lambda \|w\|_2^2$
- Generalized form: $\min_f \sum_{i=1}^n V(f(\hat{x}_i), \hat{y}_i) + \lambda \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ H stands for Reproducing Kernel Hilbert space

Question: What are the advantages of adding Tikhonov (L2) Regularization term?



Tikhonov-regularized least squares

- Regularization goal: $\min_{w} \frac{1}{n} (\hat{X}w Y)^T (\hat{X}w Y) + \lambda \|w\|_2^2$
- Gradient: $abla_w = rac{2}{n}\hat{X}^T(\hat{X}w Y) + 2\lambda w$
- Optimal coefficients first-order condition: $0 = \hat{X}^T (\hat{X}w Y) + n\lambda w$
- Optimal weights: $w = (\hat{X}^T \hat{X} + \lambda n I)^{-1} (\hat{X}^T Y)$



Reminder: Linear Model

The equation for linear regression:

- And the expected value for Error is zero.
- Goal of regularization:
 - Reduce variance at the cost of introducing some bias, so that:



Reminder: Classification

• The goal of every classification algorithm:

$$min(J(f(x), y))$$
 We are minimizing the 'distances' between predictions and ground truth...

- Where J is the cost function
- Goal of regularization:
 - Add a regularization term to impose a penalty on the complexity of f

$$min(J(f(x), y) + \lambda R(f))$$



Regularized Least Squares



Regularization for Linear Models

- 1. Ridge Regression
- 2. Lasso Regression
- 3. ElasticNet Regression



Ridge Regression

- Reminder: Regularization is adding another term to the loss function
- Loss function for (not regularized) linear regression:

Loss function =
$$\sum (\hat{Y}_i - Y_i)^2$$

What if we add a regularization term:

$$\mathbf{J(W)} = rac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ((W_0 + W_1 X_1^{(i)} + \ldots + W_P X_P^{(i)}) - Y_i)^2 + rac{\lambda}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^{P} W_j^2$$

- The regularization term sums over squared β values and multiplies it by another parameter λ
 - This punishes the loss function for high β coefficients
 - This is also called L2 Regularization
- As $\lambda \rightarrow 0$, Ridge coefficient becomes similar to OLS coefficient
- As $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, Ridge coefficient becomes dominant.



L2 Regularization

• Positive λ will cause the magnitude of the weights to be smaller than in the usual linear solution



Pros and Cons of L2 Regularization

- If λ is chosen well, regularization helps to avoid overfitting
- Choosing λ may be hard...
- If there are irrelevant features in the input (i.e. features that do not affect the output), L_2 will give them small, but non-zero weights
- Ideally, irrelevant input should have weights exactly equal to 0



Lasso Regression

- Also called Least Absolute Shrinkage Selection Operator (LASSO)
- Adds a <u>penalty</u> for non-zero coefficients
 - But, unlike Ridge Regression which penalizes the sum of squared coefficients, Lasso penalizes the sum of their absolute values:

$$\mathbf{J(W)} = rac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ((W_0 + W_1 X_1^{(i)} + \ldots + W_P X_P^{(i)}) - Y_i)^2 + rac{\lambda}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^{P} |W_j|$$

- This is called L1 penalty or L1 regularization
- Result: For high values of of λ , many coefficients are exactly zero, which is never the case in Ridge Regression

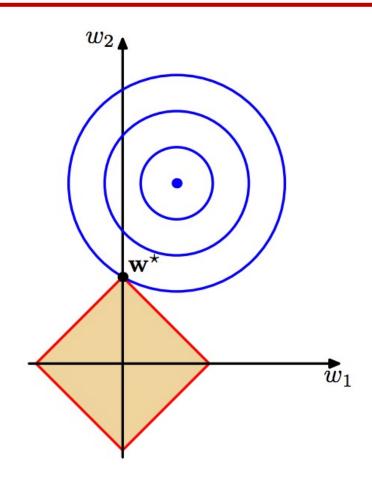


Pros and Cons of L1 Regularization

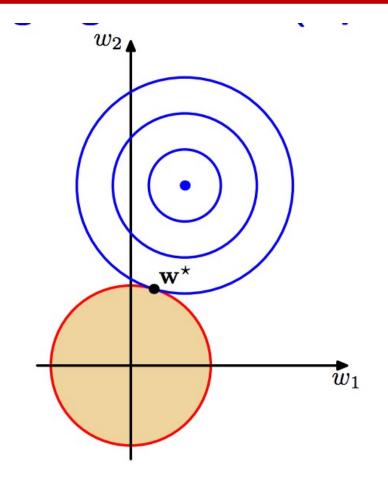
- If there are irrelevant input features, Lasso is likely to make their weights 0, while L2 is likely to just make all weights small
- Lasso is biased towards providing sparse solutions in general
- Lasso optimization is computationally more expensive than L2
- But, L1 regularization is also very popular...



Visualizing Regularization



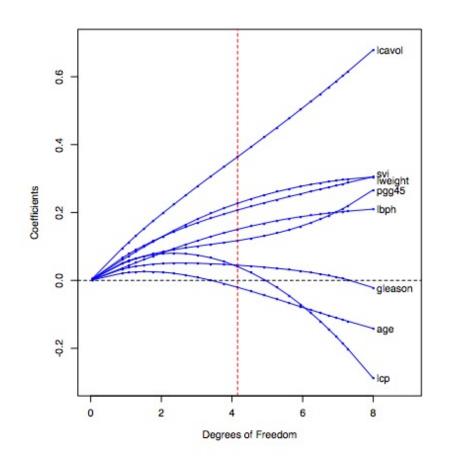
L1 Regularization

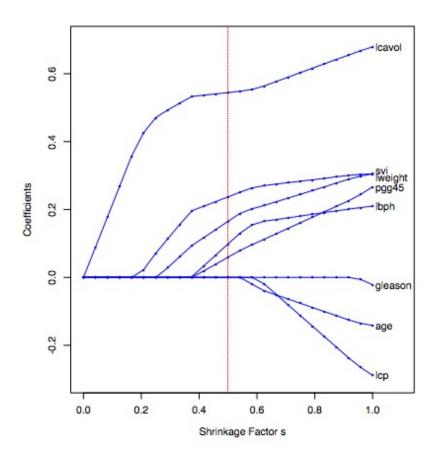


L2 Regularization



L1 vs. L2 effect





Question: Which one is L2 regularization?
L2 regularization is on the left!



So, which λ value should we pick?

- Two potential approaches:
- 1) Statistics approach: Pick a value such that some information criterion, such as AIC or BIC is the smallest (highest goodness of fit):
 - AIC: Akaike Information Criterion
 - BIC: Bayesian Information Criterion
- 2) Machine learning approach: Perform cross-validation and select the value λ that minimizes the cross-validated sum of squared residuals



Three additional methods to pick the best λ

- Manual tuning: Finding the right combination of settings for regularization can be done via manual tuning (if you have the expertise)
- Grid search: Find two sets of parameters that are believed to contain the best set of parameters and converge toward the best set



Ridge vs. Lasso

- Often neither one is overall better
- Lasso can set some coefficients to zero
 - Thus, Lasso performs variable/feature selection
 - Ridge does not do that
- Both methods allow to use correlated predictors, but they solve multicollinearity issues differently:
 - Ridge regression: Coefficients of correlated predictors are similar
 - Lasso regression: One of the correlated predictors has a larger coefficient, while the rest are (nearly) zeroed



Ridge vs. Lasso

- Lasso tends to do well if there are a small number of significant parameters and the others are close to zero
 - When only a few predictors actually influence the response
- Ridge works well if there are many large parameters of about the same value
 - When most predictors impact the response
- In practice, we don't know the parameter values, so it is really hard to decide between two:
 - Answer: ElasticNet Regression



ElasticNet Regression

- First emerged as a result of critique on Lasso
 - The variable selection for Lasso can be too dependent on data and thus unstable
 - Solution: Combine the penalties of Ridge and Lasso to get the best of both worlds.
 - The loss function for ElasticNet:

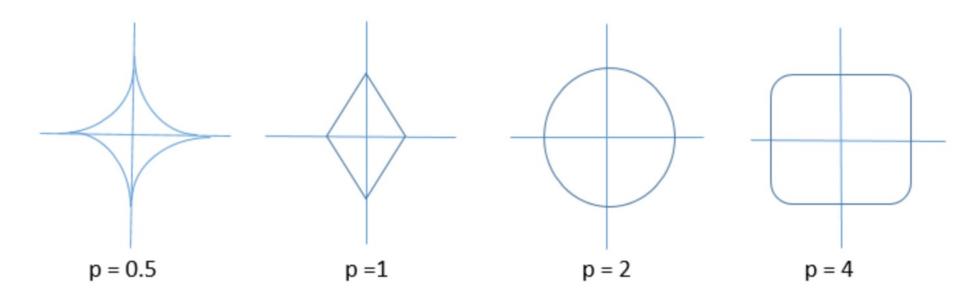
$$\mathbf{J(W)} = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ((W_0 + W_1 X_1^{(i)} + \ldots + W_P X_P^{(i)}) - Y_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda_1}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^{P} |W_j| + \frac{\lambda_2}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^{P} W_j^2$$

• There are two parameters to tune: λ_1 and λ_2



L^p Regularizers

- No need to use only L1 and L2, or L1+L2
 - *L^p regularization* is also possible.



Question: What happens with the parameters here?

<u>Hint</u>: Axes represent your coefficient values



'Other' types of regularization

Early stopping

- You can avoid overfitting if you are using an iterative optimization method, such as gradient descent
- <u>Conditions for early stopping</u>: Amount of change in updates (i), number of iterations (ii)
- Question: What are some disadvantages here?
- A solution to some disadvantages: Validation-based early stopping

Principal component regression (PCR)

 Instead of using the independent variables directly, the principal components of the explanatory variables are used as regressors

