# Introduction to Kernels and Regularization

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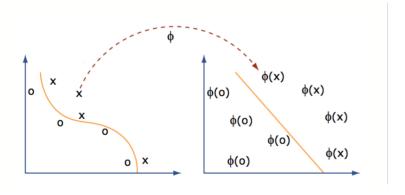
### Outline

Kernels

Suppot Vector Machines

Regularization

## Mapping



- Map data points into an inner product space H with some function
   φ: φ: x → φ(x) ∈ H
- $\bullet$  The map  $\phi$  aims to convert the nonlinear relations into linear ones.

### Constructing Features

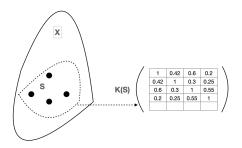
#### Problems

- Need to be an expert in the domain
- Features may not be adequate
- Extracting features can sometimes be computationally expensive
  - Example: second order features in 1000 dimensions.

#### Solutions

- Calculate a similarity measure in the feature space instead of the coordinates of the vectors there,
- apply algorithms that only need the value of this measure

#### Kernels as distance matrices



- Define a "similarity/distance function":  $K: X \times X \rightarrow R$
- Represent a set of n data points  $S = \{\mathbf{x_1}, \mathbf{x_2}, ..., \mathbf{x_n}\}$  by the  $n \times n$  matrix:  $\mathbf{K}[ij] := K(x_i, x_j)$  where  $K(x_i, x_j)$  is the distance/similarity as depicted in K(S)

#### Kernels

• A kernel is a function  $k: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  for which the following property holds

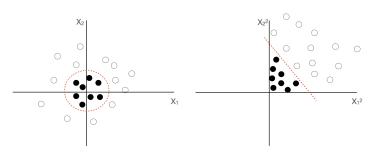
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle$$

where  $\phi$  is a mapping from X to a Hilbert (inner product) space H

$$\phi: \mathbf{X} \to \phi(\mathbf{X}) \in \mathbf{H}$$

## Kernel Example

• Quadratic Features in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 



$$\phi: \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) \to \phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}_1^2, \mathbf{x}_2^2, \sqrt{2}\mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{x}_2)$$

Inner product in the feature space

$$\langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle = \left\langle \left( x_1^2, x_2^2, \sqrt{2}x_1 x_2 \right), \left( z_1^2, z_2^2, \sqrt{2}z_1 z_2 \right) \right\rangle$$
  
=  $x_1^2 z_1^2 + x_2^2 z_2^2 + 2x_1 x_2 z_1 z_2 = \langle x, z \rangle^2$ 

#### Kernel trick

- enable operation in a high-dimensional, implicit feature space
- without computing the coordinates of the data in that space  $\phi(x)$
- simply computing inner products between the images of all pairs of data in the feature space
- need a function:  $k(x, x') = \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle$ 
  - computationally cheaper than the explicit computation of the coordinates.
  - introduced for sequence data, graphs, text, images, as well as vectors.

## Properties of a Kernel Matrix

- Symmetric
  - *K* due to the symmetry of the dot product:

$$K_{ij} = K_{ji} \text{ as } \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle = \langle \phi(x'), \phi(x) \rangle$$

- K is Positive Semidefinite
  - $a^T Ka \ge 0$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and all kernel matrices  $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ .

### Constructing Kernels from Kernels

- Assuming valid kernels  $k_1(x, z)$  and  $k_2(x, z)$ , the following are also valid kernels:
  - $k(x,z) = ck_1(x,z)$ , where  $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$
  - $k(x,z) = k_1(x,z) + k_2(x,z)$
  - $k(x,z) = k_1(x,z)k_2(x,z)$
  - $k(x,z) = \exp(k_1(x,z))$
  - $k(x, x') = k_a(x_a, x'_a) + k_b(x_b, x'_b)$ , where  $x = (x_a, x_b)$
  - $k(x, x') = k_a(x_a, x'_a) k_b(x_b, x'_b)$ , where  $x = (x_a, x_b)$

## Typical Kernels

Linear

$$k(x, x') = \langle x, x' \rangle$$

Laplacian RBF

$$k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\lambda \frac{\|x - x'\|}{\sigma}\right)$$

Gaussian RBF

$$k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\lambda \frac{\|x - x'\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

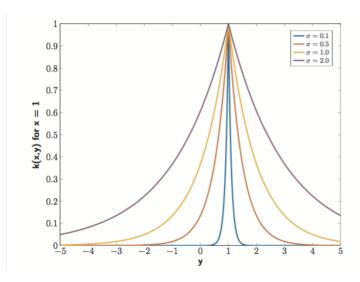
Polynomial

$$k(x, x') = (\alpha \langle x, x' \rangle + c)^d, \alpha, c \ge 0, d \in \mathbb{N}$$

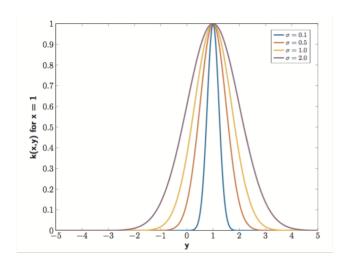
Sigmoid

$$k\left(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}'\right)= anh\left(lpha\left\langle\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}'\right
angle+b
ight)$$

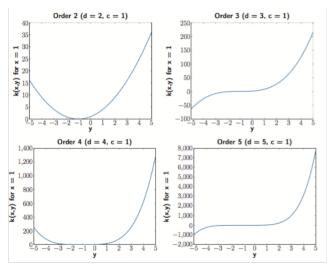
## Laplacian Kernel



### Gaussian Kernel



## Polynomial Kernel



$$k(x, x') = (\langle x, x' \rangle + c)^d, c \geq 0, d \in \mathbb{N}$$

### Outline

Kernels

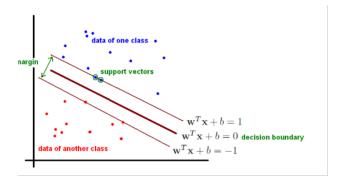
Suppot Vector Machines

Regularization

#### **SVMs**

- Issues that motivated SVMs:
  - bias variance tradeoff
  - Over-fitting
- For a given learning task, a finite amount of training data, the best generalization performance is achieved by jointly optimizing
  - · accuracy attained on a training set,
  - "capacity": ability to learn from any training set without error

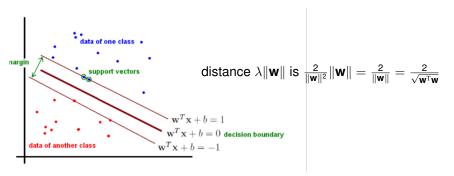
### **SVMs**



- Goal: find a a hyperplane (i.e. decision boundary) linearly separating our classes.
- Boundary equation:  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$ 
  - if  $x_i : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b > 0$  then  $y_i = 1$
  - if  $x_i : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b < 0$  then  $y_i = -1$  equivalent:  $y(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b) \ge 1$

#### SVMs – distance between the boundaries

- lines are parallel, with same parameters w, b
- Assume  $x_1$  on  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 1$ , the closest point of  $x_2$  on line  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = -1$ and  $\lambda \mathbf{w}$  the vector connecting  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .
- Solving for  $\lambda : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2 + b = 1$  where  $\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{x}_1 + \lambda \mathbf{w} = \lambda = \frac{2}{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}} = \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|^2}$

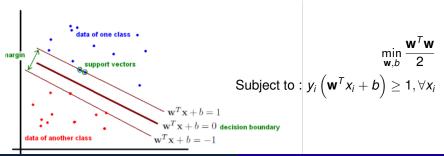


### SVMs – optimization formulation

- maximize the distance between the two boundaries defining the classes
   to avoid mis-classifications: maximal margin
- Objective :

$$\mathsf{max}\,\frac{2}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{w}}}\approx \mathsf{min}\,\frac{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{w}}}{2}\approx \mathsf{min}\,\frac{\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{w}}{2}$$

Quadratic formulation problem:



### Soft Margin extension

- We allow for some misclassification: some data points on the other side of the boundary (slack variables:  $\epsilon_i > 0$  for each point  $x_i$ ).
- The problem becomes:

$$\begin{split} \min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{w}}{2} + C \sum_{l} \epsilon_{l} \\ \text{Subject to: } y_{l} \left( \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{x}_{l} + b \right) \geq 1 - \epsilon_{l} \quad \& \quad \epsilon_{l} \geq 0 \qquad \forall \mathbf{x}_{l}. \end{split}$$

### SVMs - Non Linear Decision Boundary

• If data are not linearly separable we consider a mapping to a higher dimensional space via a function  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ . Then the optimization becomes:

$$\begin{split} \min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2} + C \sum_{l} \epsilon_i \\ \text{Subject to: } y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + b \right) \geq 1 - \epsilon_i \quad \& \quad \epsilon_i \geq 0 \qquad \forall \mathbf{x}_i. \end{split}$$

## SVMs - reformulation as a Lagrangian

- Introduce Lagrangian multipliers to represent the condition
- $y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i \right) + b \right)$  should be as close to 1 as possible :
- This condition is captured by:  $\max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \alpha_i \left[ 1 y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i \right) + b \right) \right]$ 
  - When  $y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i \right) + b \right) \geq 1$  the expressions is maximal when  $\alpha_i = 0$
  - Otherwise  $y_i\left(\mathbf{w}^T\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_i\right)+b\right)<1$ , so  $1-y_i\left(\mathbf{w}^T\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_i\right)+b\right)$  is a positive value and the expression is maximal when  $\alpha_i\to\infty$
- This results in penalizing (large  $\alpha_i$ ) misclassified data points, while 0 penalty to properly classified ones
- Thus we have the following formulation:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{w}}{2} + \sum_{i} \max_{\alpha_{i} \geq 0} \alpha_{i} \left[ 1 - y_{i} \left( \mathbf{w}^{T} \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_{i} \right) + b \right) \right] \right]$$

# SVMs - reformulation as a Lagrangian

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2} + \sum_{i} \max_{\alpha_i \geq 0} \alpha_i \left[ 1 - y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i \right) + b \right) \right] \right]$$

- Preventing  $\alpha$  variables to  $\infty$  impose constraints  $0 \le \alpha_i \le C$
- We define the dual problem interchanging the max, min:

$$\max_{\alpha \geq 0} \left[ \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} J(\mathbf{w}, b; \alpha) \right]$$

where 
$$J(\mathbf{w}, b; \alpha) = \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2} + \sum_{i} \alpha_i \left[ 1 - y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \phi \left( \mathbf{x_i} \right) + b \right) \right]$$

• To solve the optimization problem:  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0$  hence  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \phi(x_i)$ ,  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = 0$  hence  $\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0$ . Substitute and simplify:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} J(\mathbf{w},b;\alpha) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{j})$$

The dual problem is:

$$\max_{\alpha \geq 0} \left[ \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_{i} \right)^{T} \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_{j} \right) \right]$$
  
Subject to: 
$$\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq \alpha_{i} \leq C$$

#### SVM - Kernel trick

As dimensionality may be infinite computation of  $\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$  may be intractable Kernel Trick:

$$K\left(\mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)=\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)^{T}\phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)$$

Thus our computation is simplified with rewriting the dual in terms of the kernel:

$$\max_{\alpha \geq 0} \left[ \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} K\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) \right]$$

#### SVM – Decision function

• To classify a novel instance  $\mathbf{x}$ , having learned the optimal  $\alpha_i$  parameters:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\mathbf{w}^{T}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + b\right) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} K\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}\right) + b\right),$$

by setting  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})$  and using the kernel trick

•  $\alpha_i$  are non zero for  $\phi(x_i)$  on or close to the boundary – support vectors

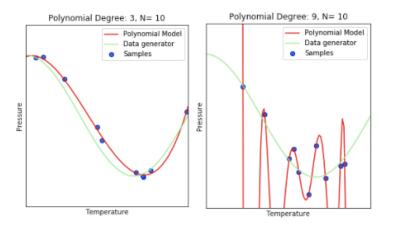
### Outline

Kernels

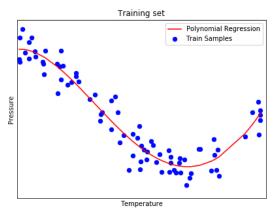
Suppot Vector Machines

Regularization

### Training vs. Test error

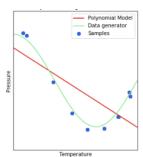


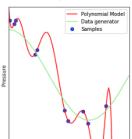
## Polynomial Curve fitting



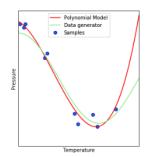
$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \ldots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x^j$$
  
$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2$$

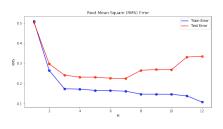
## Model complexity vs. Overfitting





Temperature

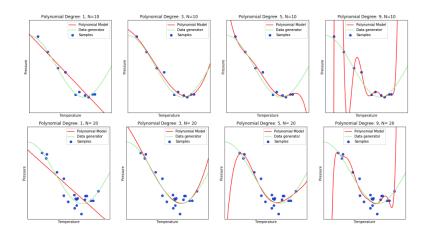




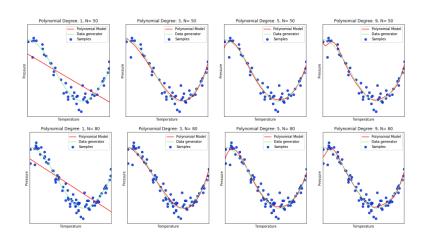
## Polynomial coefficients

	M1	МЗ	М5		M9
W <sub>0</sub>	-3.16	-1.54	0.57	-50.04	
W1		-12.13	-16.01	16	18.22
W2		13.81	-16.05	-2158	35.65
W3			88.54	14192	27.36
W4			-61.42	-51513	39.44
W5				108313	33.64
W6				-131377	71.37
W7				8529	10.97
W8				-22942	23.36

### Dataset size



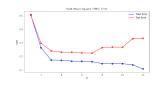
#### Dataset size



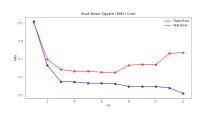
## Regularization

- Complex models tend to overfit
- Need to penalize the complexity of the model

$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2$$



### Regularization: Error vs. $\lambda$



M1         M3         M5          M9           W0         -3.16         -1.54         0.57         -50.04           W1         -12.13         -16.01         1618.22           W2         13.81         -16.05         -21585.65           W3         -8.54         141927.36           W4         -61.42         -515139.44           W5         -1313771.37           W6         -1313771.37           W7         852910.97           W8         -229423.36					
W1 -12.13 -16.01 1618.22 W2 13.81 -16.05 -21585.65 W3 88.54 141927.36 W4 -61.42 -515139.44 W5 1083133.64 W6 -1313771.37 W7 852910.97		M1	МЗ	M5	М9
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W6 -1313771.37 W7 852910.97	W4			-61.42	-515139.44
W7 852910.97	W5				1083133.64
	W6				-1313771.37
W8 -229423.36	W7				852910.97
	W8				-229423.36

 A learning algorithm is stable if a small change of the input does not change the output of the algorithm much

## Different risk/error types

- Empirical risk:  $L_{(S)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta(f(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y})$
- Expected risk:  $L_{(D,f)} = \int_{\mathbb{X},\mathbb{Y}} \delta(f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y}) p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y}$

### Generalization

- Empirical risk:  $L_{(S)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta(f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y})$
- Expected risk:  $L_{(D,f)} = \int_{\mathbb{X},\mathbb{Y}} \delta(f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y}) p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y}$
- Generalization error:  $G = L_{(D,f)} L_{(S,f)}$ 
  - Difference between the training set and the underlying joint probability distribution error
  - An algorithm generalizes well if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}G=L_{(D,f)}-L_{(S,f)}=0$$

p(x, y) unknown probability distribution  $\Rightarrow$  impossible to compute

#### Regularization

- Regularized Loss Minimization (RLM)
- Minimize the sum of the empirical risk + regularization function
  - measures the complexity of hypotheses/models
  - an interpretation of the regularization function is the structural risk minimization paradigm
- Regularization: stabilizer of the learning algorithm
  - stability: a slight change of its input does not change its output much

### Regularized Loss Minimization (RLM)

• Learning rule jointly minimizing the empirical risk  $L_s(\boldsymbol{w})$  and penalizing the model complexity via the regularization function  $R(\boldsymbol{w})$ 

$$\arg\min_{m{w}}(L_s(m{w})+R(m{w}))$$

- The simplest one is  $R(\mathbf{w}) = \lambda ||\mathbf{w}||^2$ ,  $\lambda$  scalar value and  $||\mathbf{w}|| = \sqrt{\sum w_i^2}$
- Therefore:  $A(S) = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} (L_s(\boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2)$

### Squared Loss – Ridge regression

 RLM rule with Tikhonov regularization to linear regression with the squared loss, we obtain the following learning rule

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}\in\mathbb{R}^d}(\lambda||\boldsymbol{w}||^2+\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m\frac{1}{2}(<\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{x_i}>-y_i)^2)$$

Solving for gradient = 0 we get:

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{Ridge} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}$$

- $\lambda > 0$  is a parameter that controls the amount of weights' shrinkage:
  - the larger the value of  $\lambda$ , the greater the amount of shrinkage. The coefficients are shrunk toward zero.

### Squared Loss – Ridge regression

Equivalent formulation:

$$\arg\min_{m{w}\in\mathbb{R}^d}(\lambda||m{w}||^2+rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^mrac{1}{2}(-y_i)^2)$$

- subject to  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i^2 \le t$
- We assume that mean value of *y* = intercept

### Regularization of the intercept

- Regression  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}\mathbf{X} \Rightarrow \mathbf{y} = w_0 + w_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \ldots + w_m\mathbf{x}_m$
- $\Rightarrow$  for X = 0:  $|y| = w_0$
- Regularization based on the idea that overfitting on y is caused by being "overly specific",
  - usually resulting in large values of w elements.
- $w_0$  offsets the relationship: less important to the problem.
  - in case a large offset needed, regularizing it will prevent finding the correct relationship.
- $y = w_{1...M}X + w_0$ ,
  - $\mathbf{w}_{1...M}$  is multiplied with the explaining variables,  $w_0$  added to it.
- Regularizing w<sub>0</sub> may increase bias...

- $X_{N\times(M+1)}$ : matrix of input features (N rows, M+1 columns, M weights and the intercept)
- $y_N$ : the actual outcome variable
- $\hat{y_N}$ : predicted values of y
- $\mathbf{w}_{M+1}$ : weights or the coefficients
- For each data point the prediction is  $\hat{y}_i = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x_{ij}$
- Cost function to be minimized: RSS (Residual Sum of Squares)

Cost(
$$\mathbf{w}$$
) = RSS( $\mathbf{w}$ ) =  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \{y_i - \hat{y}_i\}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ y_i - \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x_{ij} \right\}^2$ 

#### Regression algorithm – with gradient descent:

```
m{w} = 0; \ \eta : learning rate; while no convergence do for each feature j in \{0, 1, \ldots, M\} do determine the gradient; m{w}^{t+1} = m{w}^t - \eta * \text{gradient}; end
```

Gradient for the jth weight:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} = -2\sum_{i=1}^N x_{ij} \left\{ y_i - \sum_{k=0}^M w_k x_{ik} \right\}$$

Therefore:

$$w_{j}^{t+1} = w_{j}^{t} + 2\eta \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{ij} \left\{ y_{i} - \sum_{k=0}^{M} w_{k} x_{ik} \right\}$$

- L2 regularization loss function:  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ y_i \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x_{ij} \right\}^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j^2$
- The gradient:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{j}} Cost(\mathbf{w}) = -2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{ij} \left\{ y_{i} - \sum_{k=0}^{M} w_{k} x_{ik} \right\} + 2\lambda w_{j}$$

$$w_{j}^{t+1} = w_{j}^{t} - \eta \left[ -2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{ij} \left\{ y_{i} - \sum_{k=0}^{M} w_{k} x_{ik} \right\} + 2\lambda w_{j}^{t} \right]$$

$$w_{j}^{t+1} = (1 - 2\lambda \eta) w_{j}^{t} + 2\eta \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{ij} \left\{ y_{i} - \sum_{k=0}^{M} w_{k} x_{ik} \right\}$$

Simple regression update rule:

$$w_j^{t+1} = w_j^t + 2\eta \sum_{i=1}^N x_{ij} \left\{ y_i - \sum_{k=0}^M w_k x_{ik} \right\}$$

Ridge regression update rule:

$$w_j^{t+1} = (1 - 2\lambda \eta)w_j^t + 2\eta \sum_{i=1}^N x_{ij} \left\{ y_i - \sum_{k=0}^M w_k x_{ik} \right\}$$

- Ridge regression:
  - reduces the weights by a factor of  $(1 2\lambda\eta)$
  - then applies the same update rule as simple linear regression
- Explains why the coefficients reduce to small numbers but never zero

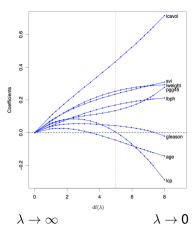
#### Squared Loss – Ridge regression

$$A(S) = \arg\min_{oldsymbol{w}} (L_S(oldsymbol{w}) + \lambda ||oldsymbol{w}||^2)$$

Solution is affected by the parameter  $\lambda$  (shrinkage parameter)

- $\lambda$  controls size of coefficients therefore the amount of regularization
- for each  $\lambda$  value different solution
- $-\lambda \rightarrow 0$ : obtain the un-regularized solution
- $\lambda$  →  $\infty$ :  $\mathbf{w} = 0$ 
  - infinite weights lead coefficients to 0

$$\mathbf{w}^{Ridge} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$



### Lasso regularization

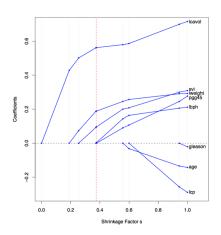
 The Lasso regression [Tibshirani, 1996] is penalizing the sum of absolute values of the weights

$$\mathbf{w}^{Lasso} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - w_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{ij} w_j)^2$$

- Subject to the constraint  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} |w_i| \leq t$ .
- The constraint makes the solutions nonlinear in the y<sub>i</sub>: no closed form expression.
- Computing the lasso solution is a quadratic programming problem.

#### Lasso regression

- Assume  $t_0 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} |w_i|$ ,  $w_i$  the weights produced by the least square solution (i. e. non regularized results)
- for values of  $t \le t_0$  (t >= 0), solutions are shrunken versions of the least squares estimates
  - often, some coefficients  $w_j$  are zero
- "t" defines the number of predictors to use in a regression model
- t value to minimize expected prediction error – via cross validation



$$s = \frac{t}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} |w_i|}$$

#### Computation of the Lasso solutions

 A quadratic programming problem; can be tackled by numerical analysis algorithms.

#### Incremental Forward Stepwise (FS)<sup>1</sup> Regression:

```
Start with residual r = y - \bar{y} and all w_j = 0; repeat
```

- Find predictor  $\mathbf{x}_i$  most correlated with  $\mathbf{r}$ ;
  - Update  $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \delta_i$ , where  $\delta_i = \epsilon * \text{sign}[\text{corr}(\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)]$ ;
- 4 Update  $\mathbf{r} \leftarrow \mathbf{r} \delta_j \mathbf{x}_j$

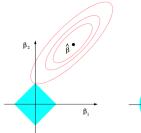
**until** no predictor has any correlation with **r**;

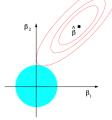
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Forward stagewise regression and the monotone lasso, Trevor Hastie, Jonathan Taylor, Robert Tibshirani, Guenther Walther, *Electronic Journal of Statistics*, Vol. 1 (2007) 1–29 ISSN: 1935-7524. https://arxiv.org/pdf/0705.0269.pdf

### Comparing ridge and lasso

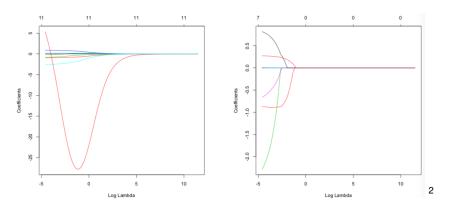
# Contours of the error and constraint functions:

- solid blue areas constraint regions:  $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le t$  and  $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \le t^2$ .
- red ellipses: contours of the least squares error function.





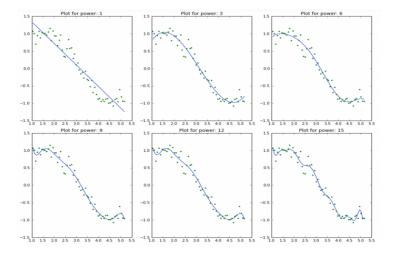
### Comparing ridge and lasso



- variable coefficient estimates: Ridge regression (*left*), LASSO (*right*) for the red wine data plotted versus *logλ*.
- Upper part of the plot shows the number of non-zero coefficients in the regression model for a given  $log(\lambda)$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>L.E. Melkumova et al. / Procedia Engineering 201 (2017) 746–755

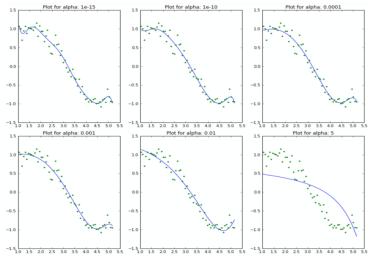
• Regression: RSS vs. model complexity (polynomial degree)



Regression: coefficient values vs. model complexity (polynomial degree)

	rss	intercept	c	oef_x_1	coef_x_2	coef_x_3	coef_x_4	coef_x_5	coef_x	_6	coef_x_7	coef_x_8	coef_x_9	coef_x_10	coef_x_11
model_pow_1	3.3	2	-	0.62	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN		NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_2	3.3	1.9	-	0.58	-0.006	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN		NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_3	1.1	-1.1	3		-1.3	0.14	NaN	NaN	NaN		NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_4	1.1	-0.27	1	.7	-0.53	-0.036	0.014	NaN	NaN		NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_5	1	3	1	5.1	4.7	-1.9	0.33	-0.021	NaN		NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_6	0.99	-2.8	9	.5	-9.7	5.2	-1.6	0.23	-0.014		NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_7	0.93	19	-	56	69	-45	17	-3.5	0.4	_	-0.019	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_8	0.92	43	-	1.4e+02	1.8e+02	-1.3e+02	58	-15	2.4	_	-0.21	0.0077	NaN	NaN	NaN
model_pow_9	0.87	1.7e+02	-	6.1e+02	9.6e+02	-8.5e+02	4.6e+02	-1.6e+02	37		-5.2	0.42	-0.015	NaN	NaN
model_pow_10	0.87	1.4e+02	-	4.9e+02	7.3e+02	-6e+02	2.9e+02	-87	15	Г	-0.81	-0.14	0.026	-0.0013	NaN
model_pow_11	0.87	-75	5	.1e+02	-1.3e+03	1.9e+03	-1.6e+03	9.1e+02	-3.5e+0	)2	91	-16	1.8	-0.12	0.0034
model_pow_12	0.87	-3.4e+02	1	.9e+03	-4.4e+03	6e+03	-5.2e+03	3.1e+03	-1.3e+0	03	3.8e+02	-80	12	-1.1	0.062
model_pow_13	0.86	3.2e+03	3	1.8e+04	4.5e+04	-6.7e+04	6.6e+04	-4.6e+04	2.3e+0	4	-8.5e+03	2.3e+03	-4.5e+02	62	-5.7
model_pow_14	0.79	2.4e+04	-	1.4e+05	3.8e+05	-6.1e+05	6.6e+05	-5e+05	2.8e+0	5	-1.2e+05	3.7e+04	-8.5e+03	1.5e+03	-1.8e+02
model_pow_15	0.7	-3.6e+04	2	.4e+05	-7.5e+05	1.4e+06	-1.7e+06	1.5e+06	-1e+06		5e+05	-1.9e+05	5.4e+04	-1.2e+04	1.9e+03

#### ullet Ridge Regression: RSS vs. $\lambda$ parameter – shrinkage

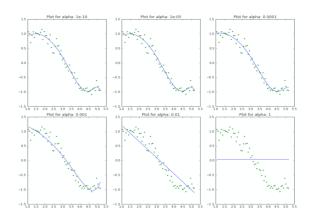


• Ridge Regression: coefficient values (regression weights) vs.  $\lambda$  ( $\alpha$  in table) parameter shrinkage

	rss	intercept	coef_x_1	cc	ef_x_2	coef_x_3	coef_x_4	coef_x_5	coef_x_6	coef_x_7	coef_x_8	C	oef_x_	coef_x_10	coef_x_11	c
alpha_1e-15	0.87	95	-3e+02	3.	3e+02	-2.4e+02	66	0.96	-4.8	0.64	0.15	-0	0.026	-0.0054	0.00086	O
alpha_1e-10	0.92	11	-29	31		-15	2.9	0.17	-0.091	-0.011	0.002	0.	00064	2.4e-05	-2e-05	-
alpha_1e-08	0.95	1.3	-1.5	4.	7	-0.68	0.039	0.016	0.00016	-0.00036	-5.4e-05 4	-	2.9e-07	1.1e-06	1.9e-07	2
alpha_0.0001	0.96	0.56	0.55	-0	.13	-0.026	-0.0028	-0.00011	4.1e-05	1.5e-05	3.7e-06	7	4e-07	1.3e-07	1.9e-08	1
alpha_0.001	1	0.82	0.31	-0	.087	-0.02	-0.0028	-0.00022	1.8e-05	1.2e-05	3.4e-06	7	3e-07	1.3e-07	1.9e-08	1
alpha_0.01	1.4	1.3	-0.088	-0	.052	-0.01	-0.0014	-0.00013	7.2e-07	4.1e-06	1.3e-06	3	e-07	5.6e-08	9e-09	1
alpha_1	5.6	0.97	-0.14	-0	.019	-0.003	-0.00047	-7e-05	-9.9e-06	-1.3e-06	-1.4e-07	-6	9.3e-09	1.3e-09	7.8e-10	2
alpha_5	14	0.55	-0.059	-0	.0085	-0.0014	-0.00024	-4.1e-05	-6.9e-06	-1.1e-06	-1.9e-07	-3	3.1e-08	-5.1e-09	-8.2e-10	-
alpha_10	18	0.4	-0.037	-0	.0055	-0.00095	-0.00017	-3e-05	-5.2e-06	-9.2e-07	-1.6e-07	-2	.9e-08	-5.1e-09	-9.1e-10	-
alpha_20	23	0.28	-0.022	-0	.0034	-0.0006	-0.00011	-2e-05	-3.6e-06	-6.6e-07	-1.2e-07	-2	2.2e-08	-4e-09	-7.5e-10	ŀ

- The RSS increases with  $\lambda$ , while model complexity reduces
- 2 Even a **small**  $\lambda$  ( $e^{-15}$ ) results in significant reduction coefficients magnitude. Compare the coefficients first row to the last row of simple linear regression table.
- **1** High  $\lambda$  values lead to significant under-fitting
  - Note rapid increase in RSS for  $\lambda > 1$
  - The coefficients are very very small, they are NOT zero

#### Lasso regression effect on regression weights



Model complexity decreases with increase in the values of  $\lambda$ .

- Notice straight line at  $\lambda = 1$ 

### Regularization and sparsity

- For the same values of  $\lambda$  ( $\alpha$  in table) , lasso coefficients  $\ll$  ridge coefficients.
- $\bullet$  For the same  $\lambda,$  lasso has higher RSS (poorer fit) as compared to ridge regression.
- Many of the coefficients are zero even for very small values of alpha.
- Inferences #1,2 might not generalize always but will hold for many cases. The real difference from ridge is coming out in the last inference.

	rss	intercept	coef_x_1	coef_x_2	coef_x_3	coef_x_4	coef_x_5	coef_x_6	coef_x_7	coef_x_8	coef_x_9	coef_x_10	coef_x_11	co
alpha_1e-15	0.96	0.22	1.1	-0.37	0.00089	0.0016	-0.00012	-6.4e-05	-6.3e-06	1.4e-06	7.8e-07	2.1e-07	4e-08	5.4
alpha_1e-10	0.96	0.22	1.1	-0.37	0.00088	0.0016	-0.00012	-6.4e-05	-6.3e-06	1.4e-06	7.8e-07	2.1e-07	4e-08	5.4
alpha_1e-08	0.96	0.22	1.1	-0.37	0.00077	0.0016	-0.00011	-6.4e-05	-6.3e-06	1.4e-06	7.8e-07	2.1e-07	4e-08	5.3
alpha_1e-05	0.96	0.5	0.6	-0.13	-0.038	-0	0	0	0	7.7e-06	1e-06	7.7e-08	0	0
alpha_0.0001	1	0.9	0.17	-0	-0.048	-0	-0	0	0	9.5e-06	5.1e-07	0	0	0
alpha_0.001	1.7	1.3	-0	-0.13	-0	-0	-0	0	0	0	0	0	1.5e-08	7.5
alpha_0.01	3.6	1.8	-0.55	-0.00056	-0	-0	-Вісн с	PARSITY	-0	-0	-0	0	0	0
alpha_1	37	0.038	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0
alpha_5	37	0.038	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0
alpha_10	37	0.038	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0

### Other regularization approaches

#### **Elastic Net**

- -p>n (#variables greater than sample size), lasso can select only n variables
- select only one from any set of highly correlated variables
- even when n > p, if the variables are strongly correlated, ridge regression tends to perform better
- Combines L1 and L2 regularization to balance out the pros and cons of ridge and lasso regression

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}\in\mathbb{R}^p}\{|\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{w}|^2+\lambda_1|\boldsymbol{w}|+\lambda_2|\boldsymbol{w}|^2\}$$

• Subject to:  $(1 - \alpha)|\boldsymbol{w}| + \alpha|\boldsymbol{w}|^2 \le t$  with  $\alpha = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}$ 

## Other regularization approaches

#### **Group Lasso**

- Regularization based on groups of variables
- Lasso selects one of them we might need all variables of a group (i. e. topic modelling, biological applications)

#### Objective function:

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}\in\mathbb{R}^p}\{|\boldsymbol{y}-\sum_{j=1}^J\mathbf{X}_j\boldsymbol{w}_j|^2+\lambda\sum_{j=1}^J|\boldsymbol{w}_j|_{\mathbf{K}_j}\}$$

where *J*: the variable groups and  $|w_i|_{\mathbf{K}_i} = (w^T \mathbf{K}_i w)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

Properties of Group Lasso:

- entire groups are eliminated
- all variables of a group are present with the same weight
- if groups contain 1 variable ⇒ lasso

To weight variables within groups: Sparse Group Lasso

#### Regularization - Conclusion

- Ridge: all of the features retained in the model. Major advantage: coefficient shrinkage thus reducing model complexity.
- Lasso: Along with shrinking coefficients, lasso performs feature selection as some of the coefficients become exactly zero.

#### Typical Use Cases

- Ridge: prevent overfitting includes all features, useful in case of very high number of features.
- Lasso: provides sparse solutions suitable for cases where # features is large: great computational advantage as features with zero coefficients can be ignored (feature selection).

#### **Presence of Highly Correlated Features**

- Ridge: works well for highly correlated features includes all of them in the model, coefficients will adjust.
- Lasso: selects feature among the highly correlated ones, reduces the coefficients of the rest to zero.
   For highly correlated variables even small λ values give significant sparsity.

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