Chapter ML:III (continued)

III. Linear Models

- □ Logistic Regression
- □ Loss Computation in Detail
- Overfitting
- Regularization
- □ Gradient Descent in Detail

Definition 9 (Overfitting)

Let D be a multiset of examples and let H be a hypothesis space. The hypothesis $h \in H$ is considered to overfit D if an $h' \in H$ with the following property exists:

$$Err(h, D) < Err(h', D)$$
 and $Err^*(h) > Err^*(h')$,

where $\mathit{Err}^*(h)$ denotes the true misclassification rate of h, while $\mathit{Err}(h,D)$ denotes the error of h for D.

[see continuation]

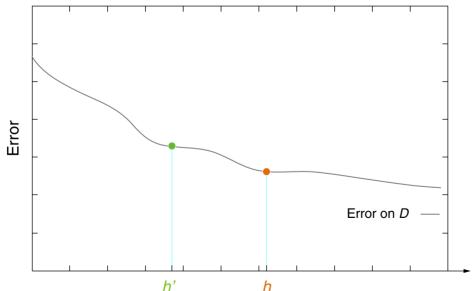
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[see continuation]



Increasing model function complexity

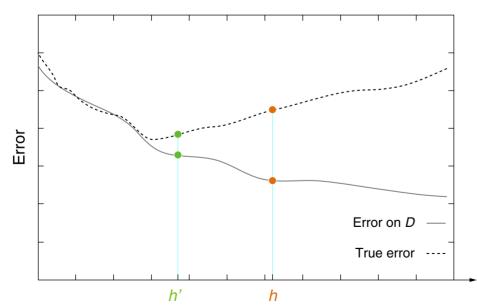
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[see continuation]



Increasing model function complexity

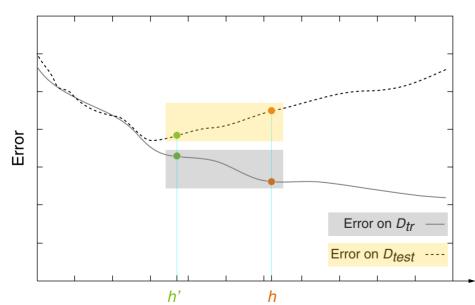
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Increasing model function complexity

Definition 9 (Overfitting)

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[see continuation]

Reasons for overfitting are often rooted in the example set D:

- □ *D* is noisy and we "learn noise."
- D is biased and hence not representative.
- □ *D* is too small and hence pretends unrealistic data properties.

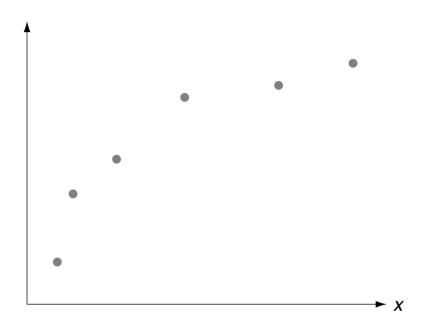
Remarks:

of a model function or its parameters.

Recap. A hypothesis is a proposed explanation for a phenomenon. [Wikipedia] Here, a hypothesis "explains" (= fits) the data D. Hence, a concrete model function y(), y(), or, if the function type is clear from the context, its parameters \mathbf{w} or $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are called "hypothesis". The variable name h (similarly: h_1 , h_2 , h_i , h', etc.) may be used to refer to a specific instance

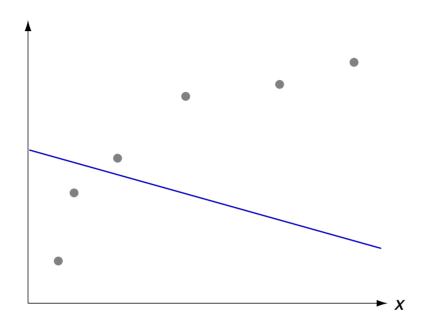
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Example: Linear Regression



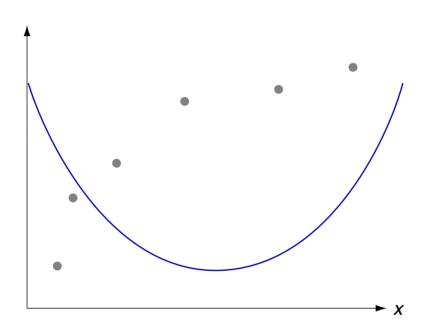
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Example: Linear Regression (continued)



(a)
$$y(x) = w_0 + w_1 \cdot x$$

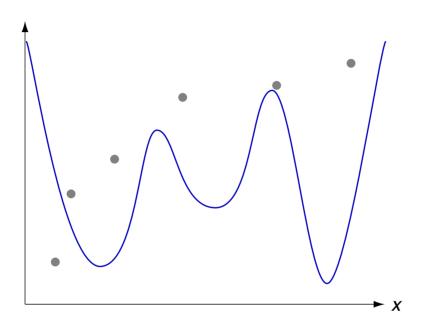
Example: Linear Regression (continued)



(b)
$$y(x) = w_0 + w_1 \cdot x + w_2 \cdot x^2$$
 (basis expansion)

$$y(x) = (w_0 \ w_1 \ w_2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \end{pmatrix} =: \mathbf{w}^T \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = y(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{where } x_0 = 1, \ x_1 = x, \ x_2 = x^2$$

Example: Linear Regression (continued)

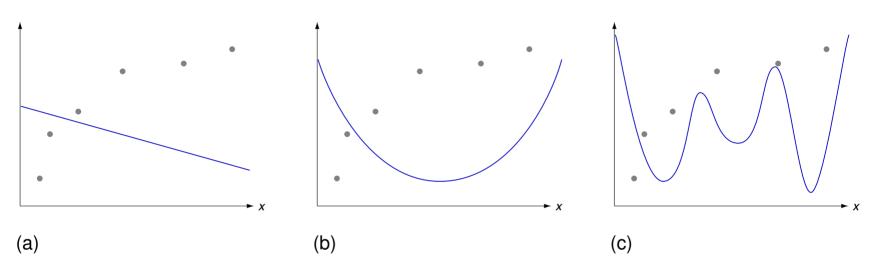


(c)
$$y(x) = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{6} w_j \cdot x^j$$
 (basis expansion)

 $y(x) =: \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = y(\mathbf{x}), \text{ where } x_0 = 1, x_j = x^j, j = 1, ..., 6$

Example: Linear Regression (continued)

Given the three polynomial model functions of degrees 1, 2, and 6, and a training set D_{tr} , select the function that best fits the data:

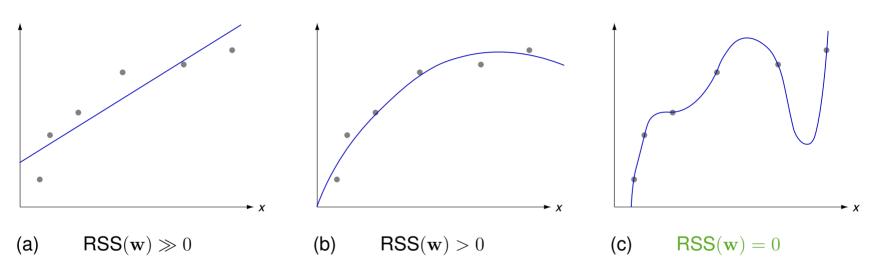


Questions:

- (1) How to choose a suited model function / hypothesis space H?
- (2) How to parameterize a model function / pick an element from H?

Example: Linear Regression (continued)

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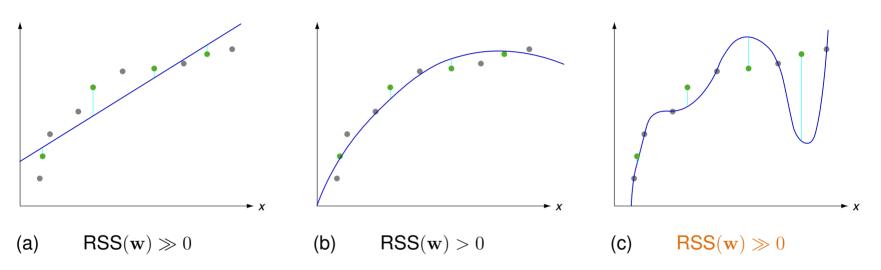


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Example: Linear Regression (continued)

Given the three polynomial model functions of degrees 1, 2, and 6, and a training set D_{tr} , select the function that best fits the data:



Let D_{test} be a set of test examples.

If $D = D_{tr} \cup D_{test}$ is representative of the real-world population in X, the quadratic model function (b), $y(x) = w_0 + w_1 \cdot x + w_2 \cdot x^2$, is the closest match.

Definition 9 (Overfitting (continued))

Let D be a set of examples and let H be a hypothesis space. The hypothesis $h \in H$ is considered to overfit D if an $h' \in H$ with the following property exists:

$$Err(h, D) < Err(h', D)$$
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where $\mathit{Err}^*(h)$ denotes the true misclassification rate of h, while $\mathit{Err}(h,D)$ denotes the error of h for D.

Let $D_{tr} \subset D$ be the training set. Then $\mathit{Err}^*(h)$ can be estimated with a test set $D_{test} \subset D$ where $D_{test} \cap D_{tr} = \emptyset$ [holdout estimation]. The hypothesis $h \in H$ is considered to overfit D if an $h' \in H$ with the following property exists:

$$Err_{tr}(h) < Err_{tr}(h')$$
 and $Err(h, D_{test}) > Err(h', D_{test})$

In particular holds: $Err(h, D_{test}) \gg Err_{tr}(h)$

Mitigation Strategies

How to detect overfitting:

- Visual inspection
 - Apply projection or embedding for dimensionalities p > 3.
- Validation
 - Given a test set, the difference $Err_{test}(y, D_{test}) Err_{tr}(y)$ is too large.

Mitigation Strategies (continued)

How to detect overfitting:

Visual inspection

Apply projection or embedding for dimensionalities p > 3.

Validation

Given a test set, the difference $Err_{test}(y, D_{test}) - Err_{tr}(y)$ is too large.

How to address overfitting:

 \Box Increase the quantity and / or the quality of the training data D.

Quantity: More data averages out noise.

Quality: Omitting "poor examples" allows a better fit, but is problematic though.

□ Early stopping of the optimization (training) process.

Criterion: $Err_{test}(y, D_{test}) - Err_{tr}(y)$ increases with the number of iterations (training time).

Mitigation Strategies (continued)

How to detect overfitting:

Visual inspection

Apply projection or embedding for dimensionalities p > 3.

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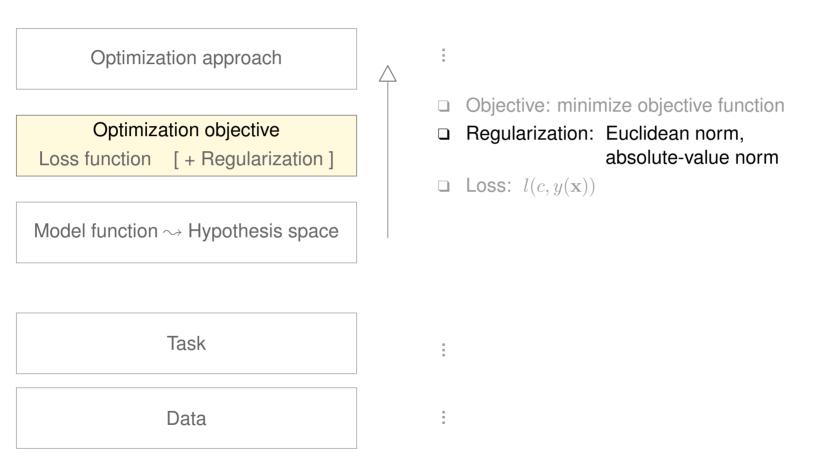
- Regularization: Increase model bias by constraining the hypothesis space.
 - (1) Model function: Consider functions of lower complexity / VC dimension. [Wikipedia]
 - (2) Hypothesis w: Bound the absolute values of the weights in \vec{w} of a model function.

Chapter ML:III (continued)

III. Linear Models

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Regularization in the Machine Learning Stack



Bound the Absolute Values of the Weights w

Principle: Add to the loss function (term) a regularization function (term), $R(\mathbf{w})$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w}), \qquad \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w}) = l(c, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} \cdot R(\mathbf{w}),$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ controls the impact of $R(\mathbf{w})$, $R(\mathbf{w}) \geq 0$.

Bound the Absolute Values of the Weights w (continued)

Principle: Add to the loss function (term) a regularization function (term), $R(\mathbf{w})$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w}), \qquad \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w}) = l(c, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} \cdot R(\mathbf{w}),$$

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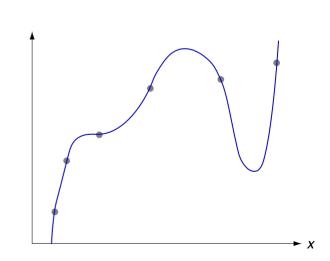
Example (c) (continued):

$$\Box L(\mathbf{w}) = \mathsf{RSS}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - y(x_i))^2$$

$$R(\mathbf{w}) = |w_1| + |w_2| + \dots + |w_6|$$

$$\lambda = 0$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (-0.7, 15.4, -80.6, 174.9, -99.5, -113.7, 109.7)^T$



Bound the Absolute Values of the Weights w (continued)

Principle: Add to the loss function (term) a regularization function (term), $R(\mathbf{w})$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w}), \qquad \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w}) = l(c, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} \cdot R(\mathbf{w}),$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ controls the impact of $R(\mathbf{w})$, $R(\mathbf{w}) \geq 0$.

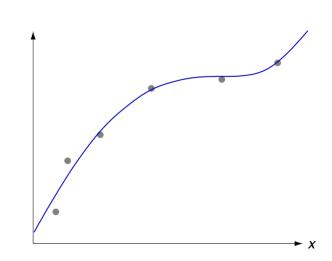
Example (c) (continued):

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$$R(\mathbf{w}) = |w_1| + |w_2| + \dots + |w_6|$$

$$\lambda = 0.001$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (0.01, 2.0, -1.73, -0.22, 0.0, 0.0, 0.8)^T$



Bound the Absolute Values of the Weights w (continued)

Principle: Add to the loss function (term) a regularization function (term), $R(\mathbf{w})$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w}), \qquad \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w}) = l(c, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} \cdot R(\mathbf{w}),$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ controls the impact of $R(\mathbf{w})$, $R(\mathbf{w}) \geq 0$.

Example (c) (continued):

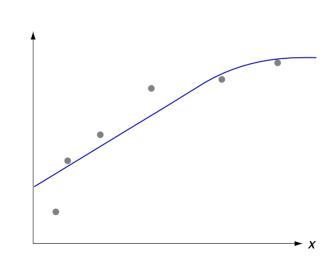
$$y(x) = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{6} w_j \cdot x^j$$

$$\Box L(\mathbf{w}) = \mathsf{RSS}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - y(x_i))^2$$

$$R(\mathbf{w}) = |w_1| + |w_2| + \dots + |w_6|$$

$$\lambda = 0.02$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (0.17, 0.73, 0.0, -0.21, -0.01, -0.01, 0.0)^T$



Bound the Absolute Values of the Weights w (continued)

Principle: Add to the loss function (term) a regularization function (term), $R(\mathbf{w})$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w}), \qquad \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w}) = l(c, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} \cdot R(\mathbf{w}),$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ controls the impact of $R(\mathbf{w})$, $R(\mathbf{w}) \geq 0$.

Observations:

- Model complexity depends (also) on the magnitude of the weights w.
- \Box Minimizing $L(\mathbf{w})$ sets no bounds on the weights \mathbf{w} .
- \square Regularization is achieved with a "counterweight" $\lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w})$ that grows with \mathbf{w} .
- \neg Aside from λ no additional hyperparameter is introduced.

Remarks:

- \square $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ is called (global) "objective function", "cost function", or "error function"; $\ell(\mathbf{w})$ is the pointwise counterpart.
- The regularization term constrains the magnitude of the direction vector of the hyperplane, progressively reducing the hyperplane's steepness as λ increases. The intercept w_0 is adjusted accordingly through minimization of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ but must not be part of the regularization term itself, which would lead to an incorrect solution.
- To denote the difference, we write $\mathbf{w} \equiv (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_p)^T$ to refer to the entire parameter vector (the actual hypothesis), and $\vec{\mathbf{w}} \equiv (w_1, \dots, w_p)^T$ for the direction vector excluding w_0 .
- \Box About choosing λ :
 - "No black-box procedures for choosing the regularization parameter λ are available, and most likely will never exist." [Hansen/Hanke 1993]
 - How to calculate the regularization parameter λ in linear regression. [stackoverflow]

Remarks (continued):

- ☐ The term "regularization" derives from "regular", a synonym for "smooth" within the context of model functions. [stackexchange]
- Regularization is applied in settings where the set of examples D is much smaller than the population of real-world objects O. Under the conditions of the Inductive Learning Hypothesis we can infer from D a hypothesis h that generalizes sufficiently well to the entire population—if h is sufficiently simple, stable (wrt. changes in D), and smooth, which can be reached with regularization.
 - However, if D covers (nearly) the entire population, minimizing the loss $L(\mathbf{w})$ takes precedence over additional restrictions $R(\mathbf{w})$ regarding the simplicity, the stability, and the smoothness of h.
- ☐ The origins of regularization go back to the fields of inverse problems and ill-posed problems. Solving an inverse problem means calculating from a set of observations the causal factors that produced them. [Wikipedia]
 - Inverse problems are often ill-posed, where "ill-posedness" is defined as not being "well-posed". In turn, a mathematical problem is called well-posed if (1) a solution exists, (2) the solution is unique, (3) the solution's behavior changes continuously with the initial conditions. [Wikipedia]

Under certain assumptions the problem of learning from examples forms an inverse problem. [deVito 2005]

The Vector Norm as Regularization Function

$$exttt{\square}$$
 Ridge regression. $R_{||ec{\mathbf{w}}||_2^2}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 = ec{\mathbf{w}}^T ec{\mathbf{w}}$

$$\Box$$
 Lasso regression. $R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_1}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^p |w_i|$

Remarks:

The term "ridge" refers to the ridge that one gets in the likelihood function (equivalently, "valley" in the RSS) if the there is multicollinearity in the data. Ridge regression adds a penalty that turns the ridge into a peak in likelihood space or, equivalently, a depression in the minimization criterion. [stackexchange]

Ridge regression predates lasso regression. It is also known as weight decay in machine learning, and with multiple independent discoveries, it is variously known as the Tikhonov-Miller method, the Phillips-Twomey method, the constrained linear inversion method, and the method of linear regularization. [Wikipedia]

- "Lasso" is an acronym for "least absolute shrinkage and selection operator".
- $| | \cdot | |_k$ denotes the vector norm operator:

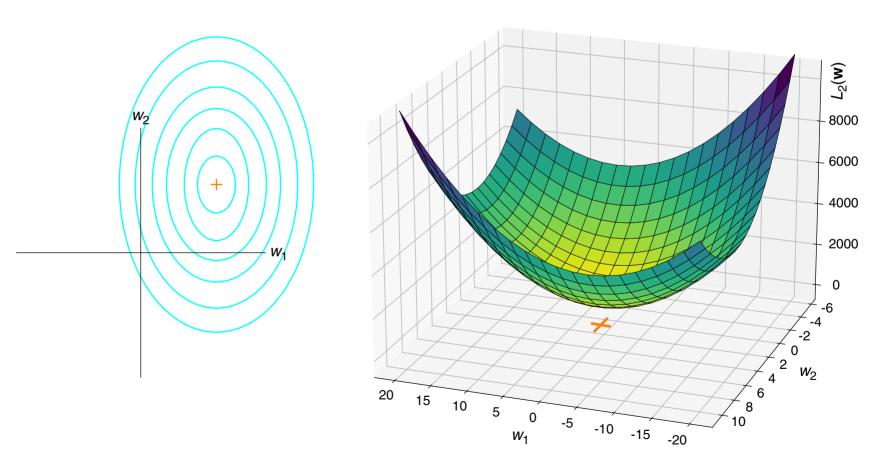
$$||\mathbf{x}||_k \equiv \left(\sum_{j=1}^p |x_j|^k\right)^{1/k},$$

where $k \in [1, \infty)$ and p is the dimensionality of vector \mathbf{x} .

 \Box By convention, $||\cdot||$ (omitting the subscript) refers to the Euclidean norm (k=2).

The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

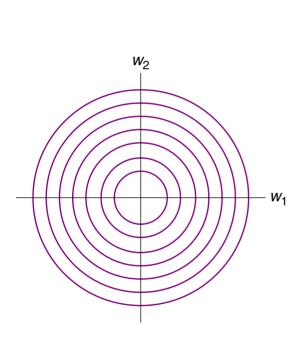
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w})$$

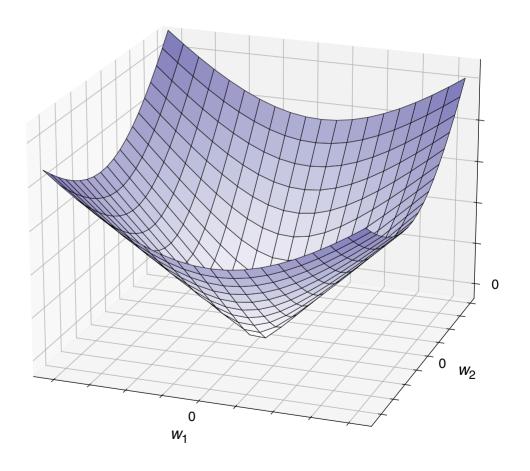


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The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

$$R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_2^2}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^p w_i^2 = \vec{\mathbf{w}}^T \vec{\mathbf{w}}$$

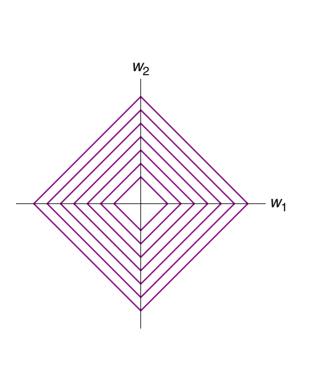


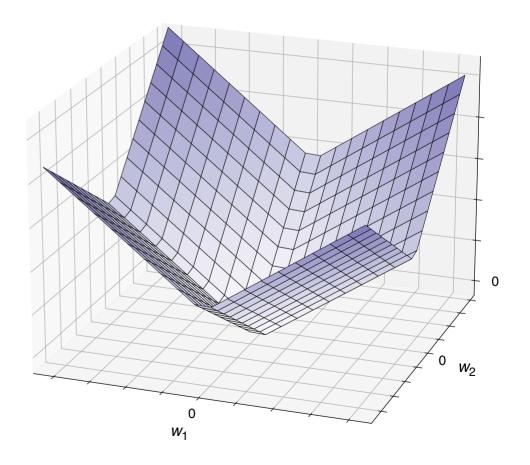


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The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

$$R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_1}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^p |w_i|$$





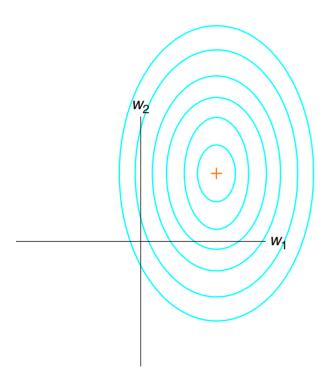
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Remarks:

- The exemplified plots of the loss term, $L(\mathbf{w})$, and the regularization term, $R(\mathbf{w})$, are illustrated over the parameter space $\{(w_1, w_2) \mid w_i \in \mathbf{R}\}$ (instead of $\{(w_0, w_1) \mid w_i \in \mathbf{R}\}$) to better emphasize the characteristic difference between ridge regression and lasso regression.
- The contour line plots show two-dimensional projections of the three-dimensional convex loss function (here: RSS) for a given set of example data, as well as of the two regularization functions $R_{||\mathbf{w}||_2^2}$ and $R_{||\mathbf{w}||_1}$, whose shapes do not depend on the data.
- □ A contour line is a curve along which the respective function has a constant value.

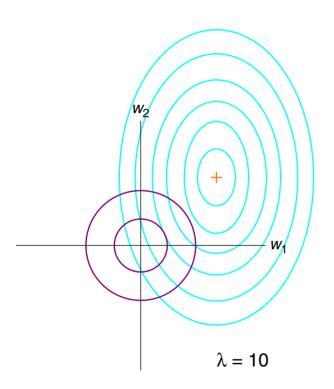
The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

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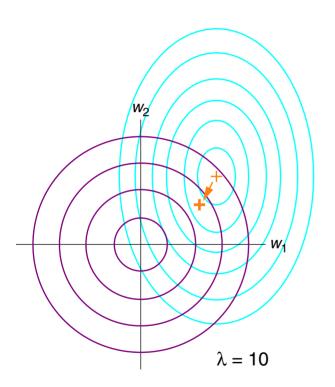
The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_2^2}(\mathbf{w})$$

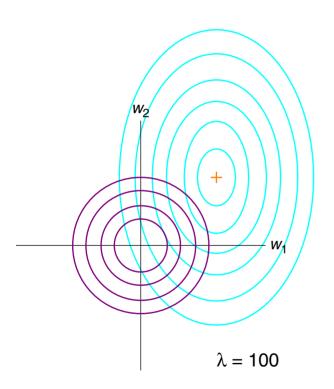


The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

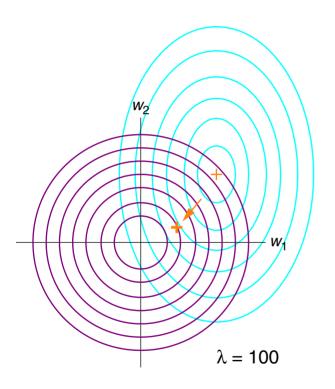
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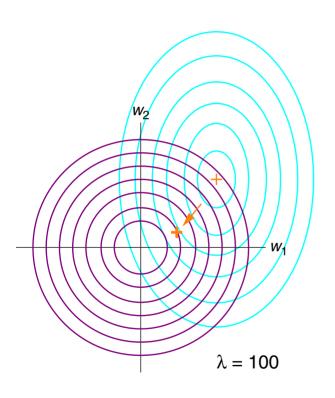


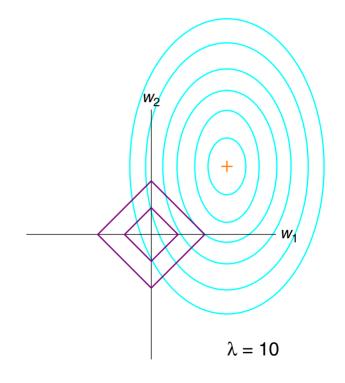
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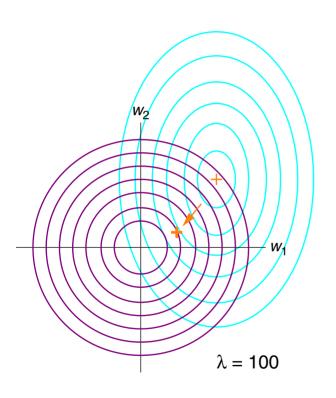
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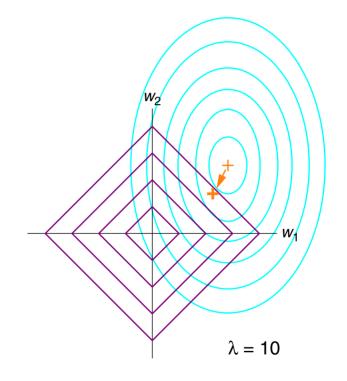




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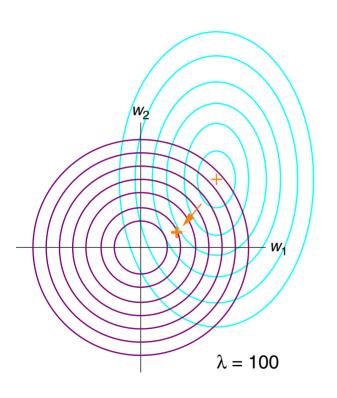
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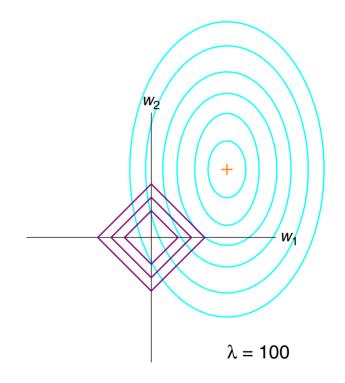




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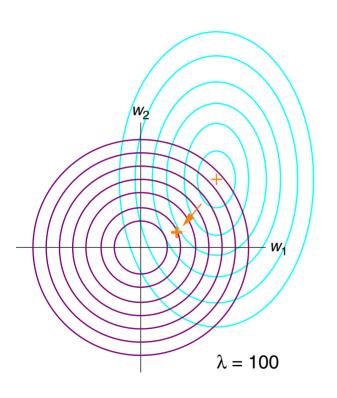
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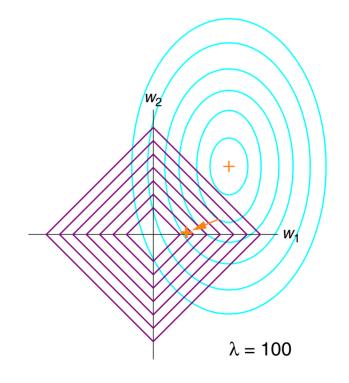




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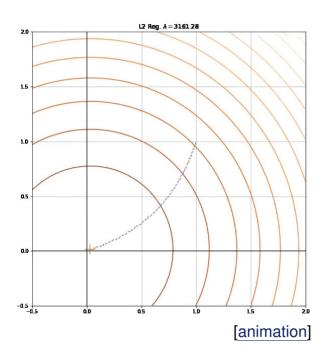


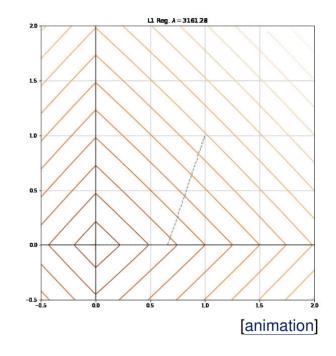


The Vector Norm as Regularization Function (continued)

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$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_1}(\mathbf{w})$$





The animations show superimposed contourlines. The choice of R determines the trajectory the minimum takes towards the origin as a function of λ . [stackexchange]

Remarks:

- The exemplified loss function is minimal at the cross. Without regularization, the weights associated with the minimum will be the result of a linear regression. By adding the regularization term $\lambda \cdot R(\mathbf{w})$ with $\lambda > 0$, the joint minimum of the two functions is found closer to the origin of the parameter space than the minimum of the loss function.
- \Box The choice of λ determines how much closer the joint minimum is to the origin of the parameter space; the higher, the closer, and thus the smaller the parameters \mathbf{w} .
- The minimum of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ is on a tangent point between a contour line of $L(\mathbf{w})$ and a contour line of $R(\mathbf{w})$. Barring exceptional cases, the minimum of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ (the sum of global loss and regularization) is unique, even if the minimum of $L(\mathbf{w})$ (the global loss) is non-unique.
- A key difference between ridge $(R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_2^2})$ and lasso $(R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_1})$ regression is that, with lasso regression, parameters can be reduced to zero, eliminating the corresponding feature from the model function.
 - With ridge regression, the influence of all parameters will be reduced "uniformly." In particular, a parameter will be reduced to zero if and only if the minimum of the loss function is found on that parameter's axis.

Regularized Linear Regression [linear regression]

 \Box Given x, predict a real-valued output under a linear model function:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p w_j \cdot x_j$$

 \Box Vector notation with $x_0=1$ and $\mathbf{w}=(w_0,w_1,\ldots,w_p)^T$:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Regularized Linear Regression (continued) [linear regression]

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 \Box Given $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$, assess goodness of fit of the objective function:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \mathsf{RSS}(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot R_{||\vec{\mathbf{w}}||_2^2}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \lambda \cdot \vec{\mathbf{w}}^T \vec{\mathbf{w}}$$
(1)

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 \Box Estimate optimum w by minimizing the residual sum of squares:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{R}^{p+1}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$$
 (2)

Regularized Linear Regression (continued) [linear regression]

□ Let X denote the $n \times (p+1)$ matrix, where row i is $(1 \ \mathbf{x}_i^T)$ with $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in D$. Let \mathbf{y} denote the n-vector of outputs in the training set D.

$$\sim \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \cdot \vec{\mathbf{w}}^T \vec{\mathbf{w}}$$

Regularized Linear Regression (continued) [linear regression]

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 \Box Minimize $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ via a direct method:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = -2X^{T}(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) + 2\lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vec{\mathbf{w}} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$X^{T}(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) - \lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vec{\mathbf{w}} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (X^{T}X + \lambda \cdot \operatorname{diag}(0, 1, \dots, 1)) \mathbf{w} = X^{T}\mathbf{y}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w} = (X^{T}X + \operatorname{diag}(0, \lambda, \dots, \lambda))^{-1}X^{T}\mathbf{y}$$

Regularized Linear Regression (continued) [linear regression]

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Normal equations.

$$\mathbf{w} \quad = \quad \left(\, X^T X + \mathrm{diag}(0,\lambda,\ldots,\lambda) \, \, \right)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y} \mathrm{lf} \, \, \lambda > 0.$$

Conditioning the moment matrix X^TX [Wikipedia $\underline{1}, \underline{2}, \underline{3}$]

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Normal equations.

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} \equiv \mathbf{w} = \left(X^T X + \operatorname{diag}(0, \lambda, \dots, \lambda) \right)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y} \text{If } \lambda > 0.$$

Conditioning the moment matrix X^TX [Wikipedia $\underline{1}, \underline{2}, \underline{3}$]

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^T \mathbf{x}_i$$

Regression function with least squares estimator $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$.