## Linear Regression Models

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### Outline

- Introduction
- Polynomial Curve Fitting
- Probability Perspective for Regression
- Loss Function for Regression
- 5 Linear Basis Function Models
- 6 Model Complexity Issue
  - Bias-Variance Decomposition

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## Supervised Learning

#### Components for learning in common

- a set of variables -> inputs x, which are measured or preset
- one or more outputs (responses) y
- the goal is to use the inputs to predict the values of the outputs  $\mathbf{x} > \mathbf{y}$

### Supervised learning

- given a set of data  $\mathcal{D} = (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ , where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $y \in \mathbb{R}$
- the prediction of a new sample  $\mathbf{x}$  by  $\mathcal{D}$ , i.e.,  $y(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D})$  or  $P(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D})$

# **Function Approximation**

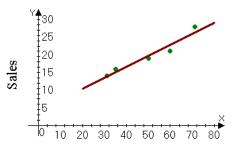
- If exists a mapping between inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  and outputs y, the prediction can be obtained by *function approximation*, i.e.,  $y := f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$
- What's the form of f?
- How to estimate w?

### **Probabilistic Distribution**

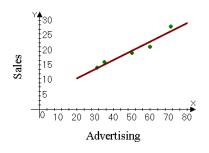
- uncertainty over the value of the target variable t can be expressed by a probability distribution
- assume that given the value of x, the corresponding value of  $t = p(t|x, \mathcal{D})$

## Regression

Sales (\$000,000s) (y <sub>i</sub> )	Advertising ( $\$000s$ ) ( $x_i$ )		
28	71		
14	31		
19	50		
21	60		
16	35		



## Regression (contd)



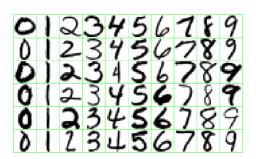
$$y = w_0 + w_1 x$$

The outputs y is quantitative, the quantitative variables are *continuous* variable  $\Rightarrow$  regression when we predict quantitative outputs,



#### Classification

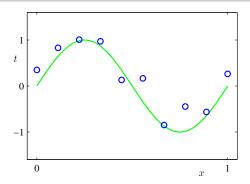
The outputs y is qualitative, the qualitative variables are also referred to as *categorical* or *discrete* variable  $\Rightarrow$ , e.g., handwritten digit recognition,  $C = \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$  classification when we predict qualitative outputs

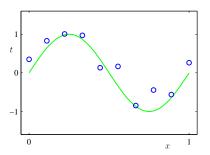


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### A simple regression problem

- observe a real-valued input variable x
- use this observation to predict the value of a real-valued target variable t
- consider synthetically generated data from the function  $sin(2\pi x)$  with random noise included in the target values





- given a training set comprising N(N = 10) observations of x
- together with corresponding observations of the values of t
- the goal is to exploit this training set to make predictions of the value for new input variable

Difficulty: finite dataset; corruption with noise -> uncertainty to the appropriate value for  $\hat{t}$ 

## Difficulty

- finite dataset
- corruption with noise
- $\Rightarrow$  uncertainty to the appropriate value for  $\hat{t}$ 
  - probability theory
  - decision theory

## **Curve Fitting**

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \cdots + w_M x^M = \sum_{i=0}^{M} w_i x^i$$

where M is the order of the polynomial and  $x^{j}$  denotes x raised to the power of j

## **Curve Fitting**

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \dots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^M w_j x^j$$

where M is the order of the polynomial and  $x^{j}$  denotes x raised to the power of j

#### Noted

- the polynomial function is a nonlinear function of x
- it is linear function of the coefficients w

Functions, such as the polynomial, which are linear in the unknown parameters, are called linear models for regression



### **Error Function**

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \dots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x^j$$

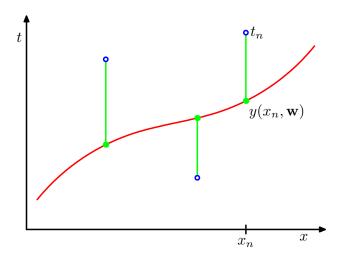
### **Error Function**

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \dots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x^j$$

- the values of the coefficients can be determined by fitting the polynomial to the training data
- this can be done by minimizing an error function that measures the misfit between the function for any given value of w and the training set data points
- the sum of the squares of the errors (SSE) between the predictions  $y(x_n, \mathbf{w})$  for each data point and the corresponding target values  $t_n$ :

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

## Geometrical Interpretation of SSE



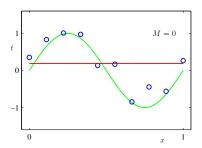
## Closed Form Solution of w

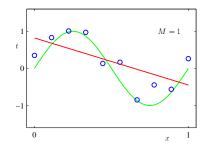
$$Min E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2$$

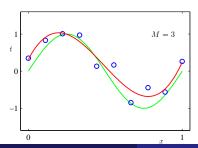
- the error function is a quadratic function of the coefficients w
- the derivatives w.r.t w will be linear in the elements of w
- the minimization of the error function has a unique solution denoted by w\*

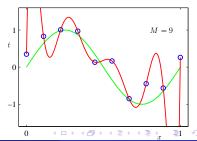
The resulting polynomial is given by the function  $y(x, \mathbf{w}^*)$ 

## Choosing M: Model Selection

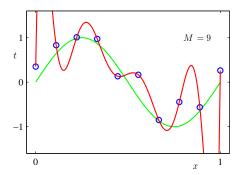








# Over-fitting

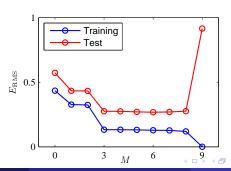


 $E(\mathbf{w}^*) = 0$ , but very poor representation of the function  $\sin 2\pi x$ , bad generalization

### **RMS Errors**

The goal of learning: to achieve good generalization by making accurate predictions for new data

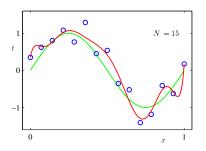
- training error
- test error
- root-mean-square (RMS) error:  $E_{RMS} = \sqrt{2E(\mathbf{w}^*)/N}$ 
  - N for comparing different sizes of datasets in the same footing
  - the square root for measuring on the same scale as the target variable

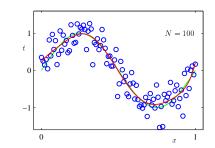


## Magnitude w with M

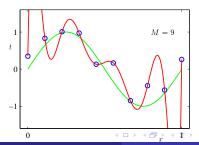
	M=0	M = 1	$M={}^{\scriptscriptstyle 3}$	M = 9
$w_0^{\star}$	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
$w_1^{\star}$		-1.27	7.99	232.37
$w_2^{\star}$			-25.43	-5321.83
$w_3^{\star}$			17.37	48568.31
$w_4^{\star}$				-231639.30
$w_5^{\star}$				640042.26
$w_6^{\star}$				-1061800.52
$w_7^{\star}$				1042400.18
$w_8^{\star}$				-557682.99
$w_9^{\star}$				125201.43

## More Training Data Points









## Regularization

- Relatively complex and flexible models with limited training dataset
- e.g., curve fitting problem with N = 10, M = 9
- solution?

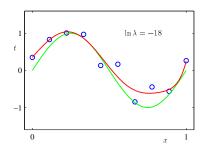
## Regularization

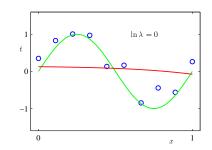
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- solution?

Regularization is used to control the over-fitting phenomenon, e.g.,

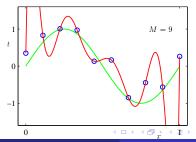
$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2$$

## Regularization (contd)





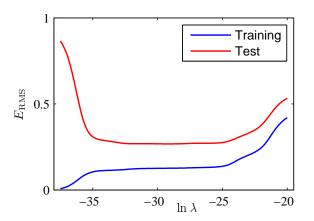




# Magnitude **w** with Regularization

	$\ln \lambda = -\infty$	$\ln \lambda = -18$	$\ln \lambda = 0$
$w_0^{\star}$	0.35	0.35	0.13
$w_1^{\star}$	232.37	4.74	-0.05
$w_2^{\star}$	-5321.83	-0.77	-0.06
$w_3^{\overline{\star}}$	48568.31	-31.97	-0.05
$w_4^{\star}$	-231639.30	-3.89	-0.03
$w_5^{\star}$	640042.26	55.28	-0.02
$w_6^{\star}$	-1061800.52	41.32	-0.01
$w_7^{\star}$	1042400.18	-45.95	-0.00
$w_8^\star$	-557682.99	-91.53	0.00
$w_9^{\star}$	125201.43	72.68	0.01

## RMS Errors with Regularization

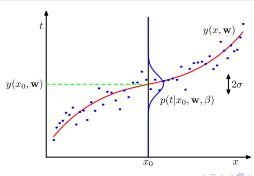


M = 9,  $\lambda$  controls the effective complexity of the model and determines the degree of over-fitting

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- Assume that the target variable t is given by a deterministic function  $y(x, \mathbf{w})$  with additive Gaussian noise  $\epsilon$
- Uncertainty over the value of the target variable t can be expressed by a probability distribution
- Assume that  $\epsilon \propto \mathcal{N}(t|0, \beta^{-1})$ , then:

$$p(t|x, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(t|y(x, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$



### Determination of w

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(t_n|y(x_n, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \ln \beta - \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi)$$

- ullet w can be determined by maximum likelihood, denoted by  ${f w}_{\sf ML}$
- considering  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $\beta$  is constant -> max ln  $p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta)$  equivalently to min  $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) t_n\}^2$ ,

### Determination of w

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- considering  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $\beta$  is constant -> max  $\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta)$  equivalently to  $\min \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n,\mathbf{w}) t_n\}^2$ , the sum-of-squares error function
- the sum-of-squares error function has arisen as a consequence of maximizing likelihood under the assumption of a Gaussian noise distribution

## Determination of $\beta$

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(t_n|y(x_n,\mathbf{w}),\beta^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta) = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n,\mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \ln \beta - \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi)$$

 $\beta$  can be determined by maximum likelihood

$$\frac{1}{\beta_{\rm ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{ y(x_n, \mathbf{w}_{\rm ML}) - t_n \}^2$$

### **MAP**

• With  $\mathbf{w}_{\text{MI}}$  and  $\beta_{\text{MI}}$ , we have

$$p(t|x, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(t|y(x, \mathbf{w}_{ML}), \beta_{ML}^{-1})$$

 Assume that a prior distribution over the coefficients w, e.g., Gaussian distribution of the form

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{1}) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}\right)^{(M+1)/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{\alpha}{2}\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{w}\right\}$$

Using Bayesian theorem, the posterior distribution for w

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{t},\alpha,\beta) \propto p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta)p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)$$



## MAP (contd)

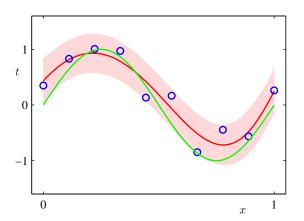
$$\begin{aligned} & \rho(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) \propto \rho(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) \rho(\mathbf{w}|\beta) \\ & \Rightarrow \ln \rho(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) = \cdots \\ & \propto -\left\{\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{w}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

 $\Rightarrow$  maximizing the posterior distribution is equivalent to minimizing the regularized sum-of-squares error function, with a regularization parameter given by  $\lambda=\alpha/\beta$ 

## Bayesian Curve Fitting

- In the curve fitting problem, we are given the training data x and t,
- with a new test point x, the goal is to predict the value of t, i.e., the predictive distribution  $p(t|x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$
- $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are fixed and known in advance

$$p(t|x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \int p(t|x, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{w}$$
$$\propto \mathcal{N}(t|m(x), s^2(x))$$



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• Suppose that the decision stage consists of choosing a specific estimate y(x) of the values of t for each input x and we incur a loss  $\mathcal{L}(t, y(x))$ :

$$\mathcal{E}[\mathcal{L}] = \int \int \mathcal{L}(t, y(x)) p(x, t) dx dt$$

• Suppose that the decision stage consists of choosing a specific estimate y(x) of the values of t for each input x and we incur a loss  $\mathcal{L}(t, y(x))$ :

$$\mathcal{E}[\mathcal{L}] = \int \int \mathcal{L}(t, y(x)) p(x, t) dx dt = \int \int (y(x) - t)^2 p(x, t) dx dt$$

- Our goal is to choose y(x) so as to minimize  $\mathcal{E}[\mathcal{L}]$
- If assume a completely flexible function y(x), we can have

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}[\mathcal{L}]}{\partial y(x)} = 2 \int (y(x) - t) p(x, t) dt = 0$$

• Solving for y(x) using the sum and product rules of probability, we obtain

$$y(x) = \frac{\int tp(x,t)dt}{p(x)} =$$

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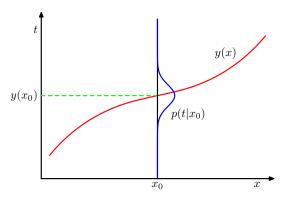
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$$y(x) = \frac{\int tp(x,t)dt}{p(x)} = \int tp(t|x)dt = \mathcal{E}_t[t|x]$$

### Regression Function (contd)

 $y(x) = \int tp(t|x)dt = \mathcal{E}_t[t|x]$  is known as the regression function



The regression function y(x) which minimizes the expected squared loss, is given by the mean of the conditional distribution p(t|x)

#### Three Approaches for Regression Problems

$$y(x) = \int tp(x,t)dt = \mathcal{E}_t[t|x]$$

- $p(x,t) \rightarrow p(x) p(t|x) \rightarrow \int tp(x,t)dt$
- $p(t|x) \rightarrow \int tp(x,t)dt$
- Find a regression function y(x) directly from the training data

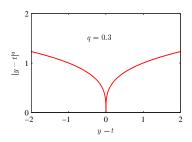
#### Minkowski Loss

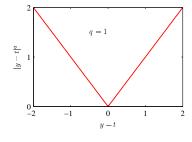
One simple generalization of the squared loss, called the Minkowski loss, whose expectation is given by

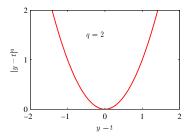
$$\mathcal{E}[\mathcal{L}_{q}] = \int \int |y(x) - t|^{q} p(x, t) dx dt$$

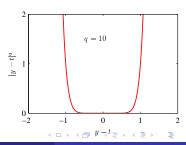
q = 2: the expected squared loss

#### Minkowski Loss (contd)









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#### Linear Regression

The simplest linear model for regression is one that involves a linear combination of the input variables

$$y(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_D x_D$$

where 
$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_D)^{\top}$$
.

- This is often simply known as linear regression
- A linear function of the parameters  $w_0, \dots, \mathbf{w}_D$
- A linear function of the input variables x<sub>i</sub>

#### **Basis Functions**

- Limitation of the linear regression
- An extension by considering linear combinations of fixed nonlinear functions of the input variables:

$$y(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{M-1} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $\phi_j(\mathbf{x})$  are know as basis function, e.g., in polynomial curve fitting,  $\phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = x^j$ 

•  $w_0$  is called a bias parameter. For convenience,

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x})$$

where 
$$\mathbf{w} = (w_0, \dots, w_{M-1})^{\top}$$
 and  $\Phi = (\phi_0, \dots, \phi_{M-1})^{\top}$ 

# Linear Regression: Revisit

• The simplest linear regression model

$$y(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_D x_D$$

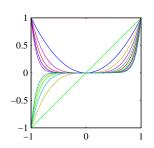
• By using nonlinear basis functions,

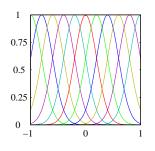
$$y(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{M-1} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

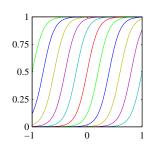
# Basis Functions (contd)

- Polynomial curve fitting,  $\phi_i(x) = x^j$
- Gaussian basis functions,  $\phi_j(x) = \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu_j)^2}{2s^2}\right\}$
- Sigmoidal basis functions,  $\phi_j(x) = \sigma\left(\frac{x-\mu_j}{s}\right)$ , where  $\sigma(a)$  is the logistic sigmoid function defined by  $\sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-a)}$

### Basis Functions (contd)







#### Maximum Likelihood

• Assume that the target variable t is given by a deterministic function  $y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$  with additive Gaussian noise so that

$$t = y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) + \epsilon$$

•  $\epsilon = \mathcal{N}(0, \beta^{-1})$ , thus we have

$$p(t|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(t|y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

Recall that

$$\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{t}}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}] = \int \mathbf{t} \rho(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}) dt = y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$$

• the likelihood function of the adjustable parameters **w** and  $\beta$ :

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w},\beta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(t_n|\mathbf{w}^{\top}\Phi(\mathbf{x}_n),\beta^{-1})$$

#### Determination of **w**<sub>ML</sub>

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(t_n|\mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n), \beta^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \mathcal{N}(t_n|\mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n), \beta^{-1})$$

$$= \frac{N}{2} \ln \beta - \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \beta E_D(\mathbf{w})$$

where 
$$E_D(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2$$
.

We can use maximum likelihood to determine **w** and  $\beta$ :

$$\nabla \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^{\top}$$

## Determination of $\mathbf{w}_{ML}$ and $\beta_{ML}$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^{\top}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w}_{ML} = (\Phi^{\top} \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^{\top} \mathbf{t}$$

$$\nabla_{\beta} \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta_{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{\mathbf{t}_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2$$

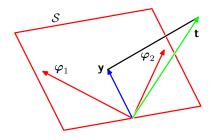
#### Pseudo-Inverse of A Matrix

$$\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{\textit{N} \times \textit{M}}$$

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_1) & \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) & \cdots & \phi_{M-1}(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_2) & \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_2) & \cdots & \phi_{M-1}(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_N) & \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_N) & \cdots & \phi_{M-1}(\mathbf{x}_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

• Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse of the matrix  $\Phi: \Phi^{\dagger} \equiv (\Phi^{\top} \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^{\top}$ 

## Geometry of Least Squares



- M < N,  $S = \text{span}(\varphi_1, \cdots, \varphi_{M-1})$
- **y** can live anywhere in the *M*-dimensional subspace
- $E_D(\mathbf{w}) = ||\mathbf{y} \mathbf{t}||^2$
- the least-squares solution for w corresponds to that choice of y that lies in subspace S and that is closest to t
- $\bullet$  the solution corresponds to the orthogonal projection of t onto the subspace  $\mathcal S$

Numerical difficulty when  $\Phi^{\top}\Phi$  is close to singular,e.g., when two or more of the basis vectors  $\varphi_i$  are co-linear, or nearly so

#### Possible solutions

- singular value decomposition
- regularization

### Regularized Least Squares

To control over-fitting, total error function takes the form

$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = E_D(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda E_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{w})$$

one of the simplest forms of regularizer is given by

$$\textit{E}_{\boldsymbol{w}}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{w}$$

 if the sum-of-squares error function is taken, then total error functions

$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\{t_n-\mathbf{w}^{\top}\Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2+\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$$

• the close-formed solution for w is

$$\mathbf{w} = (\lambda \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{\Phi}^{\top} \mathbf{\Phi})^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^{\top} \mathbf{t}$$

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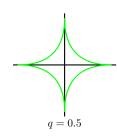
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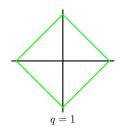
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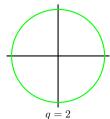
#### Regularizers

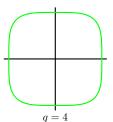
#### A more general regularizer is sometimes used

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \Phi(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{M} |\mathbf{w}|^q$$









- Introduction
- Polynomial Curve Fitting
- Probability Perspective for Regression
- 4 Loss Function for Regression
- 5 Linear Basis Function Models
- Model Complexity Issue
  - Bias-Variance Decomposition

# Over-fitting Problem

#### Linear models for regression

Fixing the form and the number of basis functions

- Over-fitting for complex models trained by datasets of limited size, e.g., ML or least square
- Loss of flexibility of the model by limiting the number of basis function to avoid over-fitting
- How to determine  $\lambda$  by the introduction of regularization terms to control over-fitting

Over-fitting for MLE but not in a Bayesian setting when we marginalize over parameters

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# **Expected Squared Loss: Revisited**

- Given the conditional distribution  $p(t|\mathbf{x})$
- Optimal prediction

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] = \int tp(t|\mathbf{x})dt.$$

Squared loss function:

$$\{y(\mathbf{x}) - t\}^2 = \{y(\mathbf{x}) - \mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] + \mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] - t\}^2$$
$$= \{y(\mathbf{x}) - \mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}]\}^2 + \{\mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] - t\}^2 + 2\{y(\mathbf{x}) - \mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}]\}\{\mathcal{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] - t\}$$

Expected squared loss function:

$$\mathcal{E}[L] = \int \{y(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} + \underbrace{\int \{h(\mathbf{x}) - t\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt}_{}$$

independent of  $y(\mathbf{x})$ ; intrinsic noise on the data

## **Expected Squared Loss: Revisited**

- Given the conditional distribution  $p(t|\mathbf{x})$
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• Expected squared loss function:

$$\mathcal{E}[L] = \int \{y(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} + \underbrace{\int \{h(\mathbf{x}) - t\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt}_{}$$

independent of  $y(\mathbf{x})$ ; intrinsic noise on the data

#### **Expected Squared Loss (contd)**

- Modeling  $h(\mathbf{x})$  using a parametric function  $y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$
- expressed by a posterior distribution over **w**

Uncertainty in the model from a Bayesian perspective being

- ullet Estimation of ullet based on the dataset  $\mathcal D$  in a frequentist treatment
- Obtaining different prediction functions  $y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})$  based on different datasets  $\Longrightarrow$  different values of the squared loss
- The performance of a particular learning algorithm is assessed by taking the average over this ensemble of datasets

For 
$$\{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2$$

- ullet Dependent on the particular dataset  ${\cal D}$
- Taking its average over the ensemble of datasets:

$$\begin{aligned} \{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] + \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 \\ &= \{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})]\}^2 + \{\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 \\ &+ 2\{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})]\}\{\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x})\} \end{aligned}$$

ullet the expectation of the expression wrt  ${\cal D}$ 

$$\mathcal{E}\left[\left\{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - h(\mathbf{x})\right\}^{2}\right]$$

$$=\underbrace{\left\{\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x})\right\}^{2}}_{\text{(bias)}^{2}} + \underbrace{\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left\{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})]\right\}^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}}$$

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expected loss = 
$$(bias)^2 + variance + noise$$

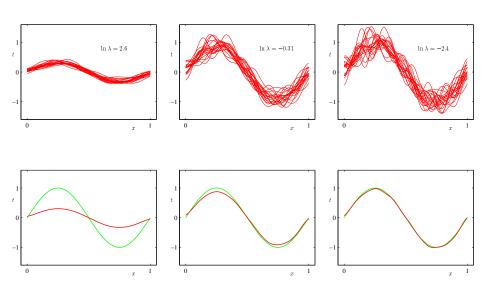
where

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{bias})^2 &= \left\{ \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x}) \right\}^2 \\ \text{variance} &= \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[ \left\{ y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] \right\}^2 \right] \\ \text{noise} &= \int \left\{ h(\mathbf{x}) - t \right\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt \end{aligned}$$

#### Our goal is to minimize the expected loss

- trade-off between bias and variance
- flexible models having low bias and high variance
- rigid models having high bias and low variance





Result of averaging many solutions for the complex model is a very good fit to the regression function

- averaging might be a beneficial procedure
- the average prediction is estimated from

$$\bar{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} y^{(l)}(\mathbf{x})$$

and the integrated squared bias and integrated variance

(bias)<sup>2</sup> = 
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} {\{\bar{y}(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2}$$
  
variance =  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=1}^{L} y^{(l)}(\mathbf{x}) - \bar{y}(\mathbf{x})\}^2$ 

