Appendix C. Matrix Derivatives

Chapter 3 Linear Models for Regression

Definition. Introduction

- 1. **Problem** Given training set $\{x_n\}$, where $n = 1, \dots, N$ and corresponding target values $\{t_n\}$, the goal is to predict value of t for a new value of \mathbf{x} .
- 2. Approach Construct a function $y(\mathbf{x})$ whose value is the prediction for some \mathbf{x} . More generally, we aim to model the predictive distribution $p(t|\mathbf{x})$ as it represent uncertainty of t given \mathbf{x} . We want to find a $y(\mathbf{x})$ in such a way so as to minimize the expected loss of a chosen loss function (i.e. for squared loss, $y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}_t \{t|\mathbf{x}\}$, the mean of predictive distribution)

3.1 Linear Basis Function Models

Definition. Linear Basis Function

1. **Model** A linear model with respect to parameters w_0, \dots, w_D

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} w_j \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x})$$
 $\phi_0(\mathbf{x}) = 1$

where $\phi_j(\mathbf{x})$ are basis functions and M is the total number of parameters in the model, including bias. $\mathbf{w} = (w_0, \dots, w_{M-1})^T$ and $\phi = (\phi_0, \dots, \phi_{M-1})^T$. Here is some basis functions

$$\phi_j(x) = x^j \ (polynomial)$$
 $\phi_j(x) = \exp{-\frac{(x - \mu_j)^2}{2s^2}} \ (gaussian)$

$$\phi_j(x) = \sigma(\frac{x - \mu_j}{s}) \quad \sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \ (logistic)$$

Definition. Maximum Likelihood and Least Squares Here we show that fitting a linear basis function by minimizing a sum-of-square error function can be motivated as the maximum likelihood solution under an assumed Gaussian noise model. Let target variable determined by $y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})$ with Gaussian noise

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

We can model the predictive distribution with

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

For squared loss, the optimal prediction for new value of \mathbf{x} is given by conditional mean of target variable,

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{t|\mathbf{x}\right\} = \int tp(t|\mathbf{x})dt = y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \quad i.e. \ \mathbb{E}\left\{p(t|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta)\right\} = y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$$

Let $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x_1}, \cdots, \mathbf{x_N}\}$ with target $\mathbf{t} = \{\mathbf{t_1}, \cdots, \mathbf{t_N}\}$, we get likelihood function

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}\left(t_n | \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x_n}), \beta^{-1}\right)$$

Now we try to minimize likelihood

$$\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w},\beta) = \sum_{n} \ln \mathcal{N}\left(t_n|\mathbf{w}^T\phi(\mathbf{x_n}),\beta^{-1}\right) = \frac{N}{2} \ln \beta - \frac{N}{2} \ln 2\pi - \beta E_D(\mathbf{w})$$

where sum of squared error function is defined by

$$E_D(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x_n}))^2$$

Now we find maximum likelihood estimator for \mathbf{w} and β ,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \sum_{n=1}^{N} t_n \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)^{\mathbf{T}} = \mathbf{w}^T \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \right)$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathit{mle}} = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^T\boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Phi}^T\mathbf{t}$$

where Φ is called the design matrix

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

3.13 Sequential Learning

Definition. Sequential/On-line Learning Instead of processing the entire training set in one go, sequential algorithms consider each data points one at a time. Stochastic gradient descent is an online algorithm. Given error function as a sum over errors of all training samples, i.e. $E = \sum_n E_n$, w is updated according to

$$\mathbf{w}^{(\tau+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(\tau)} - \eta \nabla E_n$$

where τ is iteration number and η is a learning rate parameter. For sum-of-squares error function, this gives

$$\mathbf{w}^{(\tau+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(\tau)} - \eta(t_n - \mathbf{w}^{(\tau)T}\boldsymbol{\phi}_n)\boldsymbol{\phi}_n \qquad \boldsymbol{\phi}_n = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

Definition. Regularized Least Squares Adding regularization term to an error function to control over-fitting,

$$E_D(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda E_W(\mathbf{w})$$

In case of sum-of-squares error with sum-of-squares regularizer

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n))^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

The particular choice is called **weight decay**, an example of parameter shrinkage method because it shrinks parameter to 0. In this case, maximum likelihood estimator has closed form

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

A more general regularizer has form

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

3.2 The Bias-Variance Decomposition

1.1.5 Background on Decision Theory

Definition. Bias-Variance Decomposition Decision theory for regression consists of choosing a particular estimate $y(\mathbf{x})$ of value of t for each input \mathbf{x} such that the expected loss is minimized. For squared loss function, the optimal prediction $y(\mathbf{x})$ is given by

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}\left\{t|\mathbf{x}\right\} = \int tp(t|\mathbf{x})dt$$

We can rewrite the expected loss as

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{L\right\} = \int (y(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}))d\mathbf{x} + \int (h(\mathbf{x}) - t)^2 p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}$$

where the first term is minimized if $y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}\{t|\mathbf{x}\}$ and the second term, independent of $y(\mathbf{x})$ is the variance of the distribution of t averaged over \mathbf{x} , representing the intrinsic variability of the data. We can decompose expected loss in terms of bias, variance, and noise

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{L\right\} = \int (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left\{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})\right\} - h(\mathbf{x}))^2 p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} + \int \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left\{y(\mathbf{x}\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left\{y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}]\right)\right\}^2\right\} p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} + \int (h(\mathbf{x}) - t)^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt$$

given a particular dataset \mathcal{D} . The first term is **squared bias**, represents extend to which average prediction over all data sets differs from the desired regression function. The second term, called **variance**, measures the extend to which solutions for individual datasets vary around their average (average of $y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})s$), hence measures the extent to which $y(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$ is sensitive to a particular choice of dataset.

As an example, assuming we sample L datasets and fit a model by minimizing regularized squared error function to give L prediction function $y^{(l)}(x)$. The average prediction is estimated by

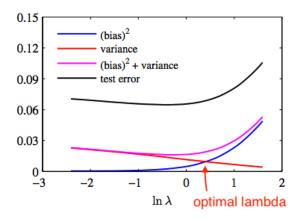
$$\bar{y}(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} y^{(l)}(x)$$

and the integrated squared bias and integrated variance is approximated by finite sums

$$(bias)^{2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\bar{y}(x_{n}) - h(x_{n}))^{2}$$

$$variance = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} (y^{(l)}(x_{n}) - \bar{y}(x_{n}))^{2}$$

Note values of these terms depend on choice of regularization parameter, changes to λ adjusts for the bias-variance tradeoff.



Definition. Convex Function A function f is convex if and only if for all θ_1, β_2 , and for all $\alpha \in [0, 1]$, we have

$$f(\alpha\theta_1 + (1-\alpha)\theta_2) \le \alpha f(\theta_1) + (1-\alpha)f(\theta_2)$$

Definition. Newton's Method is a method for finding successively better approximations to the roots of a real-valued function. The algorithm starts with a function f, the derivative f' and the initial guess x_0 for the root of f, a better approximation is given by updating x_n until convergence

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

 $(x_n,0)$ is the intersection of x-axis and the tangent of the graph of f at $(x_n, f(x_n))$. Note the equation of tangen line is given by

$$y = f'(x_n)(x - x_n) + f(x_n)$$
 \to $0 = f'(x_n)(x_{n+1} - x_n) + f(x_n)$

We can use Newton's Method to find a miminum or maximum of a function f by applying Newton's method to the derivative

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f'(x_n)}{f''(x_n)}$$

In the multivariate case, we have

$$y = f(\mathbf{x} + \triangle \mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T \triangle \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \triangle \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) \triangle \mathbf{x}$$

Take the gradient

$$\nabla_{\triangle \mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x} + \triangle \mathbf{x}) \approx \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{H} \triangle \mathbf{x}$$

Setting gradient to zero provides the Newton step

$$\triangle \mathbf{x} = -H^{-1}y(\mathbf{x}) \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_n + \triangle \mathbf{x}$$

Computing and storing hessian matrix takes $\Theta(n^2)$ memory, infeasible for high dimensional functions.

1. Quasi-Newton Method Replaces the exact Hessian with an approximation.

Definition. Stochastic Gradient Descent is a stochastic approximation of the greadient descent optimization and iterative method for minimizing an objective function that is written as a sum of differentiable functions. Sum-minimization problems arise in least squares and in maximum likelihood estimation

$$Q(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N} Q_i(w)$$

where we want to estimate w such that Q(w) is minimized. A batch gradient descent updates weight with

$$w = w - \eta \nabla Q(w) = w - \frac{\eta}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla Q_i(w)$$

Ther idea is that the summand functions have a simple form that enables inexpensive evaluation of sum and gradient operations for objective function with a good form. In stochastic gradient descent, the gradient Q(w) is approximated by a gradient at a single example

$$w = w - \eta \nabla Q_i(w)$$

which perfoms update for each training example, in multiple epochs, such that the algorithm converges. To choose an appropriate setp size by picking a sequence of η_t such that

$$\sum_{t} \eta_{t} = \infty \qquad \qquad \sum_{t} \eta_{t} < \infty$$

satisfied by $\eta_T \propto 1/t$

3.3 Bayesian Linear Regression

definition of $p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w})$ as product of independent gaussians with $\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)$ as mean Formula for marginal and Conditional Gaussian in determining Gaussian posterior

Definition. Parameter Distribution Bayesian treatment of linear regression, Given a zero-mean isotropic ($\Sigma = \sigma \mathbf{I}$) Gaussian prior and likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}\right)$$
 $p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}\left(t_n|\mathbf{w}^T\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n), \beta^{-1}\right)$

then we have posterior

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{m}_N, \mathbf{S}_N)$$
 $\mathbf{m}_N = \beta \mathbf{S}_N \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{t}$ $\mathbf{S}_N^{-1} = \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi}$

Maximization of posterior distribution of log likelihood with respect to \mathbf{w} is equivalent to minimization of sum-of-squares error function with the addition of a quadratic regularization term with $\lambda = \alpha/\beta$

$$\ln p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}) = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}_n))^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

3.3.2 Predictive Distribution

Definition. Posterior Predictive Distribution wiki Posterior predictive distribution in gaussian linear model is given by marginalizing distribution of prediction t over parameters **w** over posterior distribution of estimated parameters given training dataset **w**, **t**.

$$p(t|\mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) = p(t|\mathbf{w}, \beta)p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta)d\mathbf{w}$$

where integrands refer to 3.8 and 3.49. Note the posterior predictive distribution is also a gaussian distribution.

3.4 Bayesian Model Comparison

3.6 Limitations of Fixed Basis Functions