Aprenentatge Automàtic 1

GCED

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LECTURE 3: Regression theory and linear regression models (I)

Outline

- 1. The regression framework
- 2. Bias-Variance analysis
- 3. Empirical and Structural risk minimization

The regression framework

Given data $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_n, t_n)\}_{n=1,...,N}$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, t_n \in \mathbb{R}$,

Statistics: estimation of a continuous random variable (r.v.) T conditioned on a random vector \boldsymbol{X}

Mathematics: estimation of a real function f based on a finite number of "noisy" examples $(x_n, f(x_n))$

The departing statistical setting is $t_n = f(x_n) + \varepsilon_n$; a model is any approximation of f

 ε_n are i.i.d. continuous r.v. such that $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_n] = 0$ and $\text{Var}[\varepsilon_n] = \sigma^2 < \infty$

The regression framework

The **risk** of a model y is

$$R(y) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} L(t, y(x)) p(t, x) dx dt$$

where L is a suitable **loss** function:

- $L(t,y(x)) \ge 0$
- L(t,y(x)) = 0 if t = y(x)
- L(t,y(x)) does not increase when |t-y(x)| decreases

related to the distribution of the ε_n (the "noise model")

The regression framework

Let us step firm ground and assume that $\varepsilon_n \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ (implications?)

Using a **Maximum Likelihood** argument, it can be shown that the "right" loss is the **square error**:

$$L_{\mathsf{SE}}(t,y(x)) := (t-y(x))^2$$

The **risk** is therefore

$$R(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (t - y(x))^2 p(t|x) p(x) dx dt$$

The regression framework

If we enjoy complete freedom to choose y, the solution is:

$$y^*(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} t \, p(t|x) \, dt = f(x)$$

known as the regression function.

Since $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_n] = 0$, we can alternatively express the regression setting by stating that t is a continuous r.v. such that $f(x) = \mathbb{E}[t|X = x]$.

$$\implies f = y^*$$

The regression framework

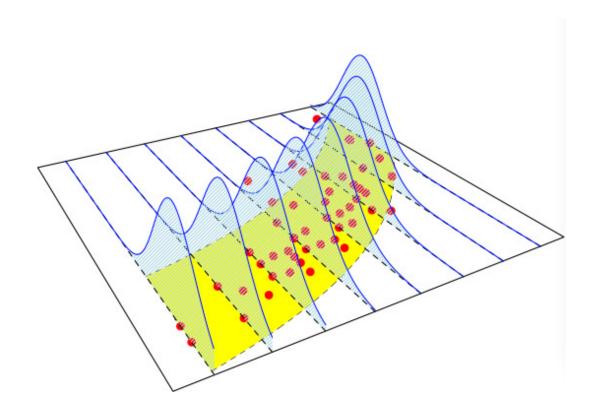


Illustration of the standard assumptions (normality, homoscedasticity)

The regression framework

In a practical setting, we do not know p(t|x) ...

- Instead, we have a finite i.i.d. **data sample** of N labelled observations $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_n, t_n)\}_{n=1,...,N}$, where $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, t_n \in \mathbb{R}$
- Intuition (?) is telling us to solve for y in:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(\boldsymbol{x}) - y(\boldsymbol{x}))^2 p(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

• We must impose restrictions on the possible solutions y (a specific class of functions)

The regression framework

We can compute an approximation to the true risk, called the **empirical** risk, by averaging the loss function on the available data \mathcal{D} :

$$R_{\text{emp}}(y) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - y(x_n))^2$$

(this quantity is also known as the **training**, resubstitution or apparent **error**)

The **Empirical Risk Minimization** (ERM) principle states that a learning algorithm should choose a hypothesis (model) \hat{y} which minimizes the empirical risk among a predefined class of functions \mathcal{Y} :

$$\widehat{y} := \arg\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} R_{\text{emp}}(y)$$

The regression framework

The quantity $R_{emp}(\hat{y})$ is known as the **training error**.

In theoretical ML, we are very much interested in:

- 1. how this error fluctuates as a function of \mathcal{D}
- 2. how far this error is from the true error, *i.e.*, to bound $|R_{\text{emp}}(\hat{y}) R(y)|$; at the very least, to bound $|\mathbb{E}[R_{\text{emp}}(\hat{y})] R(y)|$
- 3. how far this error is from the best possible error, *i.e.*, to bound $|R_{\text{emp}}(\hat{y}) R(y^*)|$; at the very least, to bound $|\mathbb{E}[R_{\text{emp}}(\hat{y})] R(y^*)|$

Bias-Variance analysis

Recall the assumption that $\varepsilon_n \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$...

In this case (using the square error), the risk can be decomposed as:

$$R(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (t - y(x))^2 p(t, x) dx dt$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (t - f(x))^2 p(t, x) dx dt$$

$$+ \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x) - y(x))^2 p(x) dx$$

$$= \sigma^2 + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x) - y(x))^2 p(x) dx =: \sigma^2 + \mathsf{MSE}(y)$$

where f is the **regression function**.

Bias-Variance analysis

Therefore we arrive at $R(y) = \sigma^2 + MSE(y)$

We can now "forget" about σ^2 and the risk and minimize instead the MSE "to the last bullet":

$$MSE(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x) - y(x))^2 p(x) dx$$

A **learning algorithm** for **regression** is a procedure that, given \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{Y} , outputs a model $y_{\mathcal{D}} \in \mathcal{Y}$ that aims to minimize MSE(y).

Bias-Variance analysis

- Consider now one particular x_0 : different \mathcal{D} will produce different $y_{\mathcal{D}}$ and therefore different predictions $y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0)$...
- lacksquare Let us concentrate on the quantity $ig(f(x_0)-y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0)ig)^2$
- We wish to eliminate the dependence on \mathcal{D} ; therefore we investigate its expected value:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [(f(x_0) - y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0))^2],$$
 taken over all possible \mathcal{D} of size N

Bias-Variance analysis

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[\Big(f(x_0) - y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0) \Big)^2 \Big] = \\ \Big(f(x_0) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0) \Big] \Big)^2 \\ + \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[\Big(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0) \Big] \Big)^2 \Big]$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathsf{MSE}(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0)) = \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0))\right)^2 + \mathsf{Var}(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0))$$

$$R(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0)) = \sigma^2 + \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0))\right)^2 + Var(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0))$$

Bias-Variance analysis

The prediction risk at any given point x_0 is the sum of three components:

The noise variance: variability of the target value around its conditional mean

The (squared) bias: average (square) deviation of our prediction at x_0 and the best possible prediction

The variance: variability of our prediction as a function of the used data sample (regardless of the underlying function!)

Bias-Variance analysis

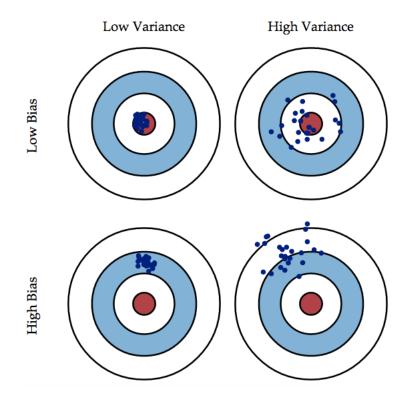


Illustration of the Bias-Variance decomposition using a dartboard

Bias-Variance analysis

The derivation above depends on a particular point x_0 ... let us put it back in place (i.e., within their integrals):

$$\left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}})\right)^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x))\right)^2 p(x) dx$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(y_{\mathcal{D}}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Var(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x)) p(x) dx$$

$$R(y_{\mathcal{D}}) = \sigma^2 + \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}})\right)^2 + Var(y_{\mathcal{D}})$$

Bias-Variance analysis

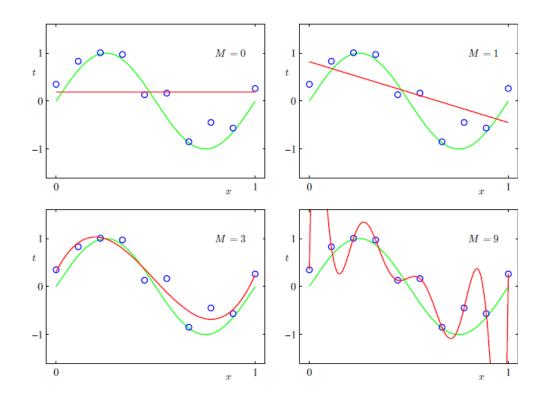


Illustration of the **Bias-Variance tradeoff** (a.k.a. **dilemma**)

Theoretical issues for regression Bias-Variance analysis

In general,

- an underfit model will have a high bias
- an overfit model will have a high variance

The "ability to fit" has a name: complexity of the function class

- Models that are "more complex than needed" will tend to have a large prediction error, which will be dominated by the variance term
- Models that are "less complex than needed" will tend to have a large prediction error, which will be dominated by the (square) bias term

Bias-Variance analysis

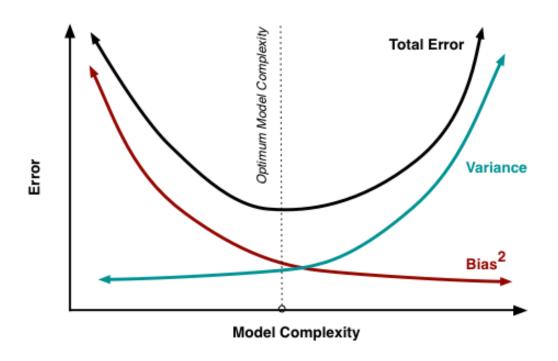


Illustration of Bias², Var, MSE (Total Error) and Model Complexity

Bias-Variance analysis

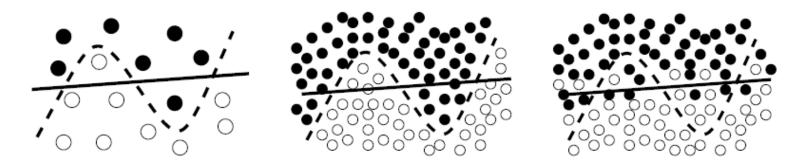


Figure 2.1: Illustration of the over—fitting dilemma: Given only a small sample (left) either, the solid or the dashed hypothesis might be true, the dashed one being more complex, but also having a smaller training error. Only with a large sample we are able to see which decision reflects the true distribution more closely. If the dashed hypothesis is correct the solid would under-fit (middle); if the solid were correct the dashed hypothesis would over-fit (right).

Interpretation of the Overfitting vs. underfitting dilemma

(last two figures from S. Mika's PhD dissertation, Technische Universität Berlin, 2002)