MACHINE LEARNING

Linear regression

Corso di Laurea Magistrale in Informatica

Università di Roma Tor Vergata

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a.a. 2021-2022



Linear models

Linear combination of input features

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \dots + w_d x_d$$

Possions vehille o come fumbage di en fissato x o vicevesse, e' sompre linene.

with **x** =
$$(x_1, ..., x_d)$$

- Linear function of parameters w
- Linear function of features x

More compactly,

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

where
$$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = (0, x_1, \dots, x_d)$$

Esterions-conto li u. che e sobs, questo e un modo competto de suppresentue la Aessa cosa.

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Base functions

 \odot Extension to linear combination of base functions ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_m defined on \mathbb{R}^d

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

- ⊚ Each vector \mathbf{x} in \mathbb{R}^d is mapped to a new vector in \mathbb{R}^m , $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), ..., \phi_m(\mathbf{x}))$
- \odot the problem is mapped from a *d*-dimensional to an *m*-dimensional space (usually with m > d)

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Invece di fare la combinazione lineare delle feature: - definiamo un certo numero di funzioni da poter appliciare sull'insieme delle feature, ad esempio

Un esempio banale può essere quello di avere una sola fueature x. prendere come insieme di funzioni che

 $\phi_1(x_1,...,x_n)=\phi_1$ (lo stesso per le altre ϕ_2 , etc ...)

trasformano i valori delle feature. A questo punto, se abbiamo k funzoni la regressione diventa su k variabili questo è simile a ciò che avviene nell'ingegneria delle feature. In generale, abbiamo un insieme di feature, magari vogliamo trasformarle in qualcos'altro, quindi definiamo un insieme di funzioni di cui ognuna restitusice un valore.

Se abbiamo un elemento $x_1,...,x_d$ definendo m funzioni otteniamo m valori. Quindi, dato un punto a d dimensioni la nostra predizione verrà effettuata in uno spazio a diversa dimensione,

non sappiamo quali funzioni usare, che sono dette funzioni di base o come queste effettuano la trasformazione.

Supponiamo di conisderare solo funzioni polinomiali: $\phi_1(x) = x, \phi_2(x) = x^2, \phi_3(x) = x^3$ quindi se x=1,

avremo il vettore (1.1.1...). mentre se x=2 avremo (2.4.8...)

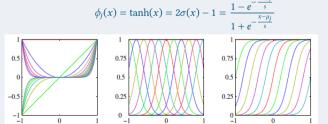
Base functions

- Many types:
 - Polynomial (global functions)
 - Gaussian (local)
 - Sigmoid (local)
 - Hyperbolic tangent (local)

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

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

to be contension to ever an entropy of signification member \$0 se nell' introduce to T. Se quich be feature 0' in un cetto juternallo ollora; I adore problets o' quelossa, oltrineto e' o.
L' internello e' peres' date emento d'a T.



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Base functions

Observe that a set of items (extended by 1 values)

$$\overline{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} - & \overline{\mathbf{x}}_1 & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & \overline{\mathbf{x}}_n & - \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1d} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nd} \end{pmatrix} \quad \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}} \underset{\mathsf{M}}$$

is transformed into

$$\Phi = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_1) & \cdots & \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_2) & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_2) & \cdots & \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_n) & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_n) & \cdots & \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \end{array} \right) \text{ in } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathbf{x}$$

Avent le futioni base: partions du un insiène d'hôti, dove againgu e' un elemento e presta o' trasformata in una diversa molture duve gyrni sugar e' una trasformatione otterrata applicants tutte le funcioni aut agai elements

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Problem

- ⊚ A set of *n* observations of two variables $x, t \in \mathbb{R}$: $(x_1, t_1), \dots, (x_n, t_n)$ is available. We wish to exploit these observations to predict, for any value \tilde{x} of x, the corresponding unknown value of the target variable t
- \odot The training set is a pair of vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$ and $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_n)^T$, related through an unknown rule (function)

Example of a training set.

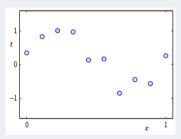
Voglans fre gulcosa del tipo:

y=wo+w1x. Applithium puor delle

funtion l'base, quind la preditine

sund y=wotw1xt... twkxxx se ad

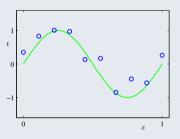
esempousions funtioni polinomiali.



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Training set

In this case, we assume that the (unknown) relation between x and t in the training set is provided by the function $t = \sin(2\pi x)$, with an additional gaussian noise with mean 0 and given variance σ^2 . Hence, $t_i = \sin(2\pi x_i) + \epsilon_i$ with $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$.



-> parte sh rumore, secondor distributiono Cransciana

Purpose

Guessing, or approximating as well as possible, the deterministic relation $t = \sin(2\pi x)$, on the basis of the analysis of data in the training set.

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Approach

Let us approximate the unknown function through a suitable polynomial of given degree m>0

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + ... + w_m x_m = \sum_{j=0}^m w_j x^j$$

whose coefficients $\mathbf{w} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_m)^T$ are to be computed.

Linear nei coefficute w. Vighour taune il whose ohe was in manner. In funcione obs costr.

Linear models

 $y(x, \mathbf{w})$ is a nonlinear function of x, but is a linear function (model) of \mathbf{w} .

Parameter estimation

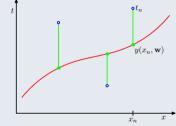
The values assigned to coefficients should minimize some error function (a.k.a. cost function), when applied to data in the training set (then, to \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{t} and \mathbf{w}).

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Regression loss

Least squares

A most widely adopted error function is least quares, i.e. the sum, for all items in the training set, of the (squared) difference between the value returned by the model and the target value.



Sarabbe il Tischis empirica

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_0 + w_1 x_i + w_2 x_i^2 + \dots + w_m x_i^m - t_i)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow l_1 \text{ for inseal of costs } v$$

$$\text{S.e. most in its wind main with man,} \qquad \qquad \text{(put is inseal of the properties)}$$

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Regression loss

Error minimization

- \odot To minimize $E(\mathbf{w})$, set its derivative w.r.t. \mathbf{w} to $\mathbf{0}$
- \odot $E(\mathbf{w})$ quadratic implies that its derivative is linear, hence that it is zero in one point \mathbf{w}^*
- \odot The resulting function is $\underline{y}(x, \mathbf{w}^*)$

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Derivative with respect to

The derivative w.r.t. \mathbf{w} is indeed a collection of derivatives. A linear system is then obtained:

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i) = 0$$
...
$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_m} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^m (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i) = 0$$

Each of the m+1 equations is linear w.r.t. each coefficient in \mathbf{w} . A linear system results, with m+1 equations and m+1 unknowns, which, in general and with the exceptions of degenerate cases, has precisely one solution.

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Gradient descent

- The minimum of $E(\mathbf{w})$ can be computed numerically, by means of gradient descent methods
- Initial assignment $\mathbf{w}^{(0)} = (w_1^{(0)}, w_2^{(0)}, \dots, w_m^{(0)})$, with a corresponding error value

$$E(\mathbf{w}^{(0)}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(t_i - (\mathbf{w}^{(0)})^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i) \right)^2$$

- Iteratively, the current value $\mathbf{w}^{(i-1)}$ is modified in the direction of steepest descent of $E(\mathbf{w})$, that is the one corresponding to the negative of the gradient evaluated at $\mathbf{w}^{(i-1)}$
- \odot At step *i*, $w_i^{(i-1)}$ is updated as follows:

$$w_j^{(i)} := w_j^{(i-1)} - \eta \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_j} \bigg|_{\mathbf{w}^{(i-1)}}$$

Gradient descent

In matrix notation:

$$\mathbf{w}^{(i)} := \mathbf{w}^{(i-1)} - \eta \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big|_{\mathbf{w}^{(i-1)}}$$

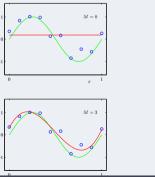
 \odot By definition of $E(\mathbf{w})$:

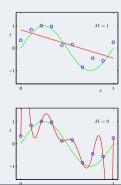
$$\mathbf{w}^{(i)} := \mathbf{w}^{(i-1)} - \eta(t_i - \mathbf{w}^{(i-1)} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i)) \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

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Polynomial degree

- Example of model selection: assigning a value to M determines the model to be used, the choice of M implies the number of coefficients to be estimated
- ⊚ increasing *M* allows to better approximate the training set items, decreasing the error
- \odot if M + 1 = n the model allows to obtain a null error (overfitting)





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Quindi, pur fissando la classe,	c'è un	iper-parametro	che	ha a	a che	fare	con	la	definizione	stessa	del	modello
che è il grado in questo caso.												
In overfitting invol:												

C'è un discorso di bias induttivo: possiamo definire la classe dei polinomi, ma poi possiamo farla variare.

- scegliamo una funzione e generiamo un dataset intorno a questa funzione. Definiamo 30 ascisse:

ad esempio cercando solo fra le rette, solo i nolinomi di grado 2 etc...

- calcoliamo il valore della funzione

- a parte, calcoliamo una componente di rumore da una Gaussiana

- abbiamo poi 30 elementi di test set: facciamo regressione sul train set e poi vediamo che accade sul

test set.

Overfitting

- \odot The function $y(x, \mathbf{w})$ is derived from items in the training set, but should provide good predictions for other items.
- It should provide a suitable generalization to all items in the whole domain.
- \odot If $y(x, \mathbf{w})$ is derived as a too much accurate depiction of the training set, it results into an unsuitable generalization to items not in the training set

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Evaluation of the generalization

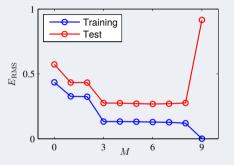
- ⊚ Test set \mathbf{X}_{test} of 100 new items, generated by uniformly sampling x in [0, 1,] and ε from $N(0, \sigma^2)$, and computing $t = \sin 2\pi x + \varepsilon$
- \odot For each M:
 - derives \mathbf{w}^* from the training set \mathbf{X}_{train}
 - compute the error $E(\mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{X}_{test})$ on the test set, or the square root of its mean

$$E_{RMS}(\mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{X}_{test}) = \sqrt{\frac{E(\mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{X}_{test})}{|\mathbf{X}_{test}|}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2|\mathbf{X}_{test}|} \sum_{x \in \mathbf{X}_{test}} (y(x, \mathbf{w}) - t)^2}$$

 \odot a lower value of $E_{RMS}(\mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{X}_{test})$ denotes a good generalization

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Plot of E_{RMS} w.r.t. M, on the training set and on the test set.



- ⊙ As *M* increases, the error on the training set tends to 0.
- On the test set, the error initially decreases, since the higher complexity of the model allows to better represent the characteristics of the data set. Next, the error increases, since the model becomes too dependent from the training set: the noise component in t is too represented.

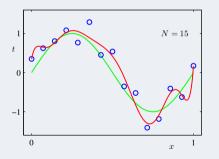
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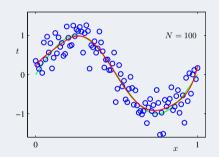
ul test set, inizialmente le cose he per il test set il costo comin sx e dx del grafico): occorre qui	icia ad aumentare. Vediamo qui	indi bene le due zone di	
''è un punto nel mezzo dove le cos er i vari gradi e prendere quello odel selection.			

di quella precedente. Quindi al limite si andrà uguale, ma non peggio.

Per il train set ci possiamo aspettare che se aumentiamo il grado, la migliore di quel grado andrà non peggio

For a given model complexity (such as the degree in our example), overfitting decreases as the dimension of the dataset increases.





The larger the dataset, the higher the acceptable complexity of the model.

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altrimenti lunghi.	si	rischia	che	il	modello	vada	in	overfitting.	Di	conseguenza,	abbiamo	dei	tempi	di	apprendimento

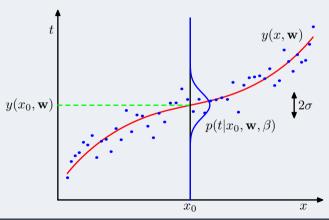
Se il training set è più grande, il modello può avere una complessità maggiore e quindi magari non va in overfitting perché la grandezza del train set non è più piccolo rispetto alla complessità del modello.

Per questo, per supervised learning servono molti dati, in quanto una rete neurale ha milioni di coefficienti

Probabilistic model for regression

Assume that, given an item \mathbf{x} , the corresponding unknown target t is normally distributed around the value returned by the model $\mathbf{w}^T \overline{\mathbf{x}}$, with a given variance $\sigma^2 = \beta^{-1}$:

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



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la distrbuzione di probabilità condizionata p(t|x), quindi vogliamo un valore di probabilità per ogni possibile t. Questa deve essere parametrica, quindi cerchiamo la migliore fra le possibili: nel caso della regressione

– p(t|x) è stato generato così: c'è un insieme di coefficienti $w_0,w_1,...,w_k$ che sono i coefficienti del

Abbiamo quindi visto l'approccio lineare, se seguiamo un approccio probabilistico. Qui, ci interessa

Il valore del target è estratto casualmente da una distr. Gaussiana centrata su y(x_0 , w). Ouindi la probabilità $^{p(t|x,w,\beta)}$ è Gaussiana. con media il valore predetto $^{t|y(x,w)}$ e varianza $^{\beta^{-1}}$.

modello. È arrivato quindi x. calcoliamo sempre $w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + ...$ che ci da un valore che è x_0 .

lineare, assumiamo che le nostre coppie x.t siano state generate come:

- p(x) uniforme

la probabilità congiunta.

N.B: x e t sono noti. La variabile vera è w, se questa cambia può accadere che cambi la curva rossa, ma quindi può accadere che venga spostata la Gaussiana e che quindi la probabilità di t sia maggiore o minore (a seconda di dove viene spostata la Gaussiana). La probabilità sarà il prodotto delle probabilità di tutti i punti e quindi cerchiamo il w che massimizza

Probabilistic model for regression

An estimate of both β_{MI} and the coefficients \mathbf{w}_{MI} can be performed on the basis of the likelihood w.r.t. the assumed normal distribution:

$$L(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} N(t_i|y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

Parameters w and β can be estimated as the values which maximize the data likelihood, or its logarithm

$$l(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log N(t_i|y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

which results into

$$l(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{\sqrt{\beta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{\beta}{2} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2} \right)$$
$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\beta}{2} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2 + \frac{n}{2} \log \beta - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi)$$
$$= -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2 + \frac{n}{2} \log \beta + \text{cost}$$

Nel caso della regressione lineare, ci arriva un punto e facciamo un predizione (una volta determinato w)	
Nel caso del modello probabilistico, abbiamo che dato un punto, se arriva un valore x non abbiamo y bensì u distribuzione Gaussiana, centrata intorno ad y, ma che assegna un valore di probabilità a tutti valori del target.	ına

È possibile anche stimare quanto è il valore della varianza, ha solo effetto in termini statistici: possiamo stimare quanto devono essere "larghe" le Gaussiane per far si che la verosimiglianza sia la più alta possibile.

How to limit the complexity of the model?

Limitians la f. di costo : aggingians un termine che ostacol i csefficianti mell' assumme tulto : unlori. N.Bl altoccu u lungpts

 $\,\odot\,$ Regularization term in the cost function

functione
$$d: w, X, t$$

Solve functione $d: w$
 $E_D(w) + \lambda E_W(w)$

 $E_D(\mathbf{w})$ dependent from the dataset (and the parameters), $E_W(\mathbf{w})$ dependent from the parameters alone.

The regularization coefficient controls the relative importance of the two terms.

Cerco di minimitale trutte le funtione ES(w), che un or dettr dipendre silo dei vulori di W percher

C'è un addendre in più.

Es (w): form in modor di predire bene i dati, shut a despendent. A : gruente la funció one 2 pers

Es (w): form in modor di predire bene i dati, shut a despendent.

Tis (w): 5stucola i w afferdre predient i dati al meglo di regulatione.

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Regularized least squares

Simple form

$$E_W(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^m w_i^2$$

Sum-of squares cost function: ridge regression

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{2} (\Phi \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^T (\Phi \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

with solution

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

Voglams mini mierare! nyfrant w che rendons vicini i valoni predethi a quelli reste, ma se sono troppo of much Assaina il petto aggiunto => limitu i valoni chi w

Il min. Costo e', unena suppresenta bila in forma

- ma se lambda è grande, l'esigenza di tenere bassi i valori di w, la solzuione è indipendente però dai dati e questo comoprta che se cambio train set mi verrà la stessa cosa perché il risultato è indipendente dai dati. Abbiamo quiindi bassa varianza, perché anche cambiando train set i risultati sono uguali. Avrò però un bias alto perché teniamo poco conto dei dati, quindi prediciamo male e sempre allo stesso modo, siamo quindi nel caso bias alto e varianza bassa.

- se lambda conta poco, allora la funzione di costo farà quanto meglio per predirre i valori target

Introduciamo quindi un effetto di limitazione nel modellare il training set

Abbiamo una funzione di costo:

Regularization

Forma generale del ario precedente

A more general form

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i))^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} |\mathbf{w}_j|^q$$

 \odot The case q = 1 is denoted as lasso: sparse models are favored

Caso general, si considera la somme dei anodado de coefficiento. L'effetto di regularitanto ne e' che tende a dere un modello più sperso.

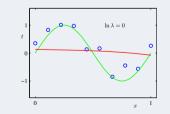
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Use of regularization to limit complexity and overfitting.

- inclusion of a penalty term in the error function
- o purpose: limiting the possible values of coefficients
- usually: limiting the absolute value of the coefficients

$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{M} w_k^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2$$

Dependance from the value of the hyperparameter λ .



-> valore vu determinato con model selection

s A garade:

modello trim

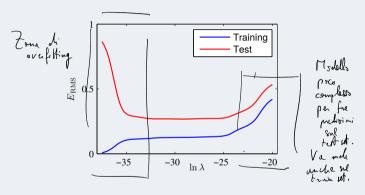
poco conto

dei dati.

Biri a elevati

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Plot of the error w.r.t λ , ridge regression.



- \odot Small λ : overfitting. Small error on the training set, large error on the test set.
- \odot Large λ : the effect of data values decreases. Large error on both test and training sets.
- \odot Intermediate λ . Intermediate error on training set, small error on test set.

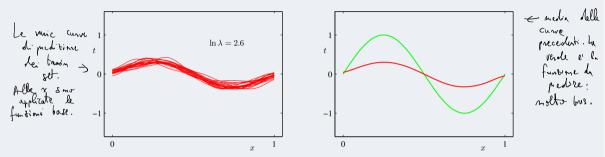
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- © Consider the case of function $y = \sin 2\pi x$ and assume L = 100 training sets T_1, \dots, T_L are available, each of size n = 25.
- © Given m = 24 gaussian basis functions $\phi_1(x), \dots, \phi_m(x)$, from each training set T_i a prediction function $y_i(x)$ is derived by minimizing the regularized cost function

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2}(\Phi \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t})^T(\Phi \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t}) + \frac{\lambda}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w}$$

Msiemo la ridge regression. Tiniono from un vettore d' d'un 24 e determinismo : miglioni coefficiati
fissuto 2.

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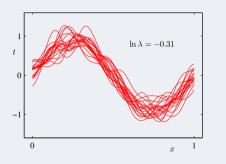


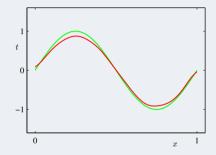
Left, a possible plot of prediction functions $y_i(\mathbf{x})$ ($i=1,\ldots,100$), as derived, respectively, by training sets $T_i, i=1,\ldots,100$ setting $\ln \lambda = 2.6$. Right, their expectation, with the unknown function $y=\sin 2\pi x$.

The prediction functions $y_i(\mathbf{x})$ do not differ much between them (small variance), but their expectation is a bad approximation of the unknown function (large bias).

In your de cap vingour d'une femtion desirate de divert train set. Vediano cosa accede miando .

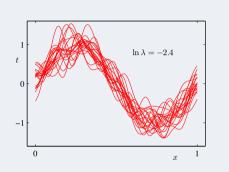
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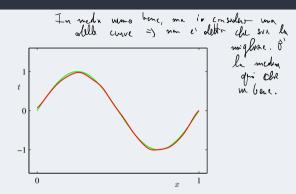




Plot of the prediction functions obtained with $\ln \lambda = -0.31$.

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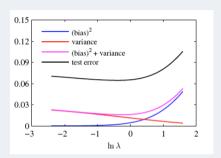
Plot of the prediction functions obtained with $\ln \lambda = -2.4$. As λ decreases, the variance increases (prediction functions $y_i(\mathbf{x})$ are more different each other), while bias decreases (their expectation is a better approximation of $y = \sin 2\pi x$).

Variante elevera unche non un beure.

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Example: polynomial regression

Occore troune un vulore de à a lorellor de anorbel schoolin per belancime ple effette.



Per secyliae 2: fixes, Middin set e cercs le 2 migline in buse al W migliore.

- \odot Plot of (bias)², variance and their sum as functions of λ : las λ increases, bias increases and varinace decreases. Their sum has a minimum in correspondence to the optimal value of λ .
- ⊚ The term $E_{\mathbf{x}}[\sigma_{v|\mathbf{x}}^2]$ shows an inherent limit to the approximability of $y = \sin 2\pi x$.

Con regressime lasso o 2º um les um forma claires, quindipar ocene appliare la disesa del grabate.

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Nella regolarizzazione quindi, lo spazio di ricerca è lo stesso, ma cambiamo la funzione di costo tentando di

È una limitazione più smooth (soft) in quanto farla da un punto di vista matematico sarebbe più complesso. Matematicamente si gestisce meglio un problema di ottimizzazione senza vincoli, per questo motivo andiamo a

ostacolare valori che non "ci piacciono".

modificare opprtunamente la funzione di costo.

Probabilistic model for regression

Assume that, given an item \mathbf{x} , the corresponding unknown target t is normally distributed around the value returned by the model $\mathbf{w}^T \overline{\mathbf{x}}$, with a given variance $\sigma^2 = \beta^{-1}$:

 x_0

 $p(t|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(t|\mathbf{v}(x, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$ Usians la mot. vero somiglimon.
fossetto w, les fissetto la
positione verticule della
Guerrium e la pol. del
tonget somi obresse > e $y(x, \mathbf{w})$ $y(x_0, \mathbf{w})$ $p(t|x_0, \mathbf{w}, \beta)$

TAGUA DA Qui in

Probabilistic model for regression

An estimate of both β_{ML} and the coefficients \mathbf{w}_{ML} can be performed on the basis of the likelihood w.r.t. the assumed normal distribution:

$$L(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} N(t_i|y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

Parameters \mathbf{w} and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ can be estimated as the values which maximize the data likelihood, or its logarithm

$$l(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log N(t_i|y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

which results into

$$l(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w},\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{\sqrt{\beta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{\beta}{2}(t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2} \right)$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\beta}{2} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2 + \frac{n}{2} \log \beta - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

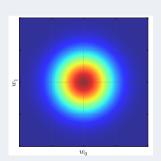
$$= -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2 + \frac{n}{2} \log \beta + \text{cost}$$

Viglo i subri di so tile che la prot, del tapat sia la più atta.

Probabilistic model for regression

Prior distribution of parameters: gaussian with mean 0 and diagonal covariance matrix with variance equal to the inverse of hyperparameter α

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{m+1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w}}$$



COPA modifiche!

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Posterior proportional to prior times likelihood: likelihood is gaussian (gaussian noise).

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}(t_i|\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \beta^{-1}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{-\frac{\beta}{2}(t_i - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))^2}$$

Given the prior $p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)$, the posterior distribution for \mathbf{w} derives from Bayes' rule

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \sigma) = \frac{p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \mathbf{w}, \sigma)p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)}{p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \alpha, \sigma)} \propto p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \mathbf{w}, \sigma)p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)$$

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In general, conjugate of gaussian is gaussian: choosing a gaussian prior distribution of \mathbf{w}

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{S}_0)$$

results into a gaussian posterior distribution

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{m}_N, \mathbf{S}_N)$$

where

$$\mathbf{m}_N = \mathbf{S}_N (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 + \beta \Phi^T \mathbf{t})$$

$$\mathbf{S}_N^{-1} = \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + \beta \Phi^T \Phi$$

Here, we have

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}) \qquad p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}, \Phi) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}^T \Phi, \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I})$$

and the posterior distribution is gaussian

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \sigma) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{m}_N, \mathbf{S}_N)$$

with

$$\mathbf{S}_N = (\alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{m}_N = \beta \mathbf{S}_N \Phi^T \mathbf{t}$$

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Note that as $\alpha \to 0$ the prior tends to have infinite variance, and we have minimum information on ${\bf w}$ before the training set is considered. In this case,

$$\mathbf{m}_N \to (\Phi^T \beta \mathbf{I} \Phi)^{-1} (\Phi^T \beta \mathbf{I} \mathbf{t}) = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} (\Phi^T \mathbf{t}) \mathbf{t}$$
 where $\mathbf{m}_N \to \mathbf{t}$ is \mathbf{w}_{ML} , the ML estimation of \mathbf{w} .

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Maximum a Posteriori

- Given the posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{w}|\Phi, \mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta)$, we may derive the value of \mathbf{w}_{MAP} which makes it maximum (the mode of the distribution)
- This is equivalent to maximizing its logarithm

maximizing its logarithm
$$\log p(\mathbf{w}|\Phi,\mathbf{t},\alpha,\beta) = \log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w},\Phi,\beta) + \log p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) - \log p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi,\beta)$$
 is a constant wrt \mathbf{w}

and, since $p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi,\beta)$ is a constant wrt **w**

$$\mathbf{w}_{MAP} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \ \log p(\mathbf{w}|\Phi, \mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \ (\log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}, \Phi, \beta) + \log p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha))$$

that is.

$$\mathbf{w}_{MAP} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ (-\log p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \mathbf{w}, \beta) - \log p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha))$$

a.a. 2021-2022

Fitting of polynomial in terms of probability

In this case

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

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{\sqrt{\beta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{\beta}{2} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2} \right) \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \right)^{\frac{M+1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}$$

The maximization of the posterior distribution (MAP) is equivalent to the maximization of the corresponding logarithm

$$-\frac{\beta}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(t_{i}-y(\mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{w})\right)^{2}+\frac{n}{2}\log\beta-\frac{\alpha}{2}\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{w}+\frac{m+1}{2}\log\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}+\mathrm{cost}$$

The value \mathbf{w}_{MAP} which maximize the probability (mode of the distribution) also minimizes

The value
$$\mathbf{w}_{MAP}$$
 which maximize the probability (mode of the distribution) also minimizes
$$\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} = \beta \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}))^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2\beta} ||\mathbf{w}||^2\right)$$
The ratio $\frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ corresponds to a regularization hyperparameter.

The ratio $\frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ corresponds to a regularization hyperparameter.

a.a. 2021-2022

Avere introdotto la MAP ci ha permesso di inserire la regolarizzazione

siano quelli che vengono dal prior.

Con la MAP, non vogliamo che i dati contino troppo ovvero non vogliamo modellarli troppo. La presenza del prior sta a bilanciare la verosimiglianza: massimizzare la verosimilgianza vuol dire trovare i valori di w che meglio permettono di predire i dati. Con il prior, non vogliamo i migliori w che perdicano i dati, ma

Fitting of polynomial in terms of probability

E': l'triget conditionnets alle feature (l'elements) dats il modells.

The same considerations of ML appy here for what concerns deriving the predictive distribution of t given x, which results now

$$p(t|\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}, \beta_{MAP}) = \mathcal{N}(t|y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}), \beta_{MAP}^{-1}) = \sqrt{\frac{\beta_{MAP}}{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{\beta_{MAP}}{2}(t - y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_{MAP}))^2}$$

where, as it is easy to see, $\beta_{MAP} = \beta_{ML}$

Ita la stessa forma della distrib. precedento, un al posto di cerca ciè ce masse l'ossriume assume di stimue la nuova per max. vero simplanta.

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Sequential learning

- \odot The posterior after observing T_1 can be used as a prior for the next training set acquired.
- ⊚ In general, for a sequence $T_1, ..., T_n$ of training sets,

- Purty du un' volum du punt
$$p(\mathbf{w}|T_1,...,T_n) \propto p(T_n|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}|T_1,...,T_{n-1})$$

$$p(\mathbf{w}|T_1,...,T_{n-1}) \propto p(T_n|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}|T_1,...,T_{n-2})$$

$$\dots$$

$$p(\mathbf{w}|T_1,...,T_{n-1}) \propto p(T_n|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}|T_1,...,T_{n-2})$$

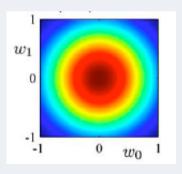
$$\dots$$

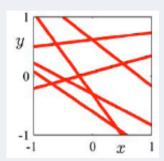
$$p(\mathbf{w}|T_1) \propto p(T_1|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})$$

$$= 0 \text{ theory of a sequence } T_1,...,T_n \text{ of training sets,}$$

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- ⊚ Input variable x, target variable t, linear regression $y(x, w_0, w_1) = w_0 + w_1 x$.
- ⊚ Dataset generated by applying function $y = a_0 + a_1 x$ (with $a_0 = -0.3$, $a_1 = 0.5$) to values uniformly sampled in [-1, 1], with added gaussian noise ($\mu = 0$, $\sigma = 0.2$).
- Assume the prior distribution $p(w_0, w_1)$ is a bivariate gaussian with $\mu = 0$ and $\Sigma = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} = 0.04 \mathbf{I}$

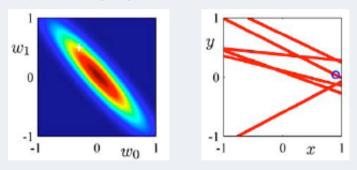




Left, prior distribution of w_0 , w_1 ; right, 6 lines sampled from the distribution.

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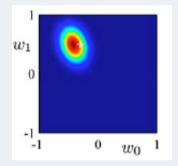
After observing item (x_1, y_1) (circle in right figure).

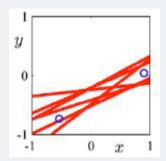


Left, posterior distribution $p(w_0, w_1|x_1, y_1)$; right, 6 lines sampled from the distribution.

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After observing items $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)$ (circles in right figure).

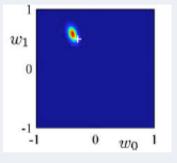


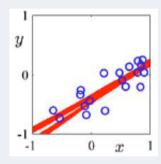


Left, posterior distribution $p(w_0, w_1|x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2)$; right, 6 lines sampled from the distribution.

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After observing a set of *n* items $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ (circles in right figure).





Left, posterior distribution $p(w_0, w_1|x_i, y_i, i = 1, ..., n)$; right, 6 lines sampled from the distribution.

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- \odot As the number of observed items increases, the distribution of parameters w_0, w_1 tends to concentrate (variance decreases to 0) around a mean point a_0, a_1 .
- \odot As a consequence, sampled lines are concentrated around $y = a_0 + a_1 x$.

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Approaches to prediction in linear regression

Classical

- \odot A value \mathbf{w}_{LS} for \mathbf{w} is learned through a point estimate, performed by minimizing a quadratic cost function, or equivalently by maximizing likelihood (ML) under the hypothesis of gaussian noise; regularization can be applied to modify the cost function to limit overfitting
- ① Given any \mathbf{x} , the obtained value \mathbf{w}_{LS} is used to predict the corresponding t as $y = \overline{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{w}_{LS}$, where $\overline{\mathbf{x}}^T = (1, \mathbf{x})^T$, or, in general, as $y = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}_{LS}$

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Approaches to prediction in linear regression

Bayesian point estimation

- \odot The posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta)$ is derived and a point estimate is performed from it, computing the mode \mathbf{w}_{MAP} of the distribution (MAP)
- \odot Equivalent to the classical approach, as \mathbf{w}_{MAP} corresponds to \mathbf{w}_{LS} if $\lambda=rac{lpha}{eta}$
- ⊚ The prediction, for a value \mathbf{x} , is a gaussian distribution $p(y|\phi(\mathbf{x})^T\mathbf{w}_{MAP}, \beta)$ for y, with mean $\phi(\mathbf{x})^T\mathbf{w}_{MAP}$ and variance β^{-1}
- \odot The distribution is not derived directly from the posterior $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta)$: it is built, instead, as a gaussian with mean depending from the expectation of the posterior, and variance given by the assumed noise.

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Abbiamo quindi due approcci, che condividono: abbiamo la distribuzione di w 0 e w 1, tutto il processo porta

alla stima di un vettore di (w 1,w 0) che descrive una retta di regressione che usiamo.

Lo possiamo fare per massima verosimiglianza o con la MAP.

Approaches to prediction in linear regression

Fully bayesian

 \odot The real interest is not in estimating w or its distribution $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta)$, but in deriving the predictive distribution $p(y|\mathbf{x})$. This can be done through expectation of the probability $p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta)$ predicted by a model instance wrt model instance distribution $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta)$, that is

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

 $oldsymbol{\circ} p(y|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta)$ is assumed gaussian, and $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t},\Phi,\alpha,\beta)$ is gaussian by the assumption that the likelihood $p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w},\Phi,\beta)$ and the prior $p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)$ are gaussian themselves and by their being conjugate

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(y|\mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \beta)$$
$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\beta \mathbf{S}_N \Phi^T \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{S}_N)$$

where $\mathbf{S}_N = (\alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \Phi^T \Phi)^{-1}$

Attens
$$\rho(\omega \mid t, X)$$
 regions considered. Le prediction de table le refle de regressione, peste en le prob. L. quelle rette di regressione.

a.a. 2021-2022



Pesiamo la predizione di ogni retta di regressione, pesando con la probabilità che il modello sia quello con quei valori di w e facciamo la media, ovvero il valor medio della Gaussiana.

Nel caso MAP, prendiamo la moda della distribuzione, qui consideriamo tutti i valori attesi. Otteniamo una distribuzione del valore target associato all'elemento che abbiamo derivato a partire dai dati.

distribuzione del valore target associato all'elemento ch abbiamo derivato a partire dai dati. L'integrale non è sempre risolvibile analiticamente, è possibile in casi semplici. Semplici nel senso che se pos

L'integrale non è sempre risolvibile analiticamente, è possibile in casi semplici. Semplici nel senso che se possiamo dire che entrambe le distribuzioni del prodotto nell'integrale sono Gaussiane, allora anche la distribuzione predittiva lo è.

Fully bayesian

Under such hypothesis, $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ is gaussian

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(y|m(\mathbf{x}), \sigma^2(\mathbf{x}))$$

with mean

and variance

 $\int_{\mathbf{x}_{N}} \mathbf{x} d\mathbf{x} = \beta \phi(\mathbf{x})^{T} \mathbf{S}_{N} \Phi^{T} \mathbf{t}$ $\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\beta} + \phi(\mathbf{x})^{T} \mathbf{S}_{N} \phi(\mathbf{x})$

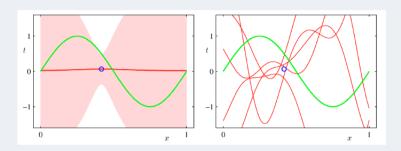
$$\odot$$
 $\frac{1}{\beta}$ is a measure of the uncertainty intrinsic to observed data (noise)

- $\odot \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \phi(\mathbf{x})$ is the uncertainty wrt the values derived for the parameters \mathbf{w}
- as the noise distribution and the distribution of w are independent gaussians, their variances add
- ⊚ $\phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \phi(\mathbf{x}) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, and the only uncertainty remaining is the one intrinsic into data observation

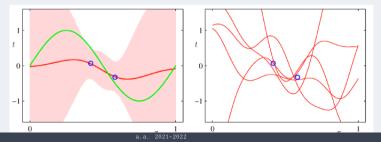
- \odot predictive distribution for $y = \sin 2\pi x$, applying a model with 9 gaussian base functions and training sets of 1, 2, 4, 25 items, respectively
- left: items in training sets (sampled uniformly, with added gaussian noise); expectation of the predictive distribution (red), as function of x; variance of such distribution (pink shade within 1 standard deviation from mean), as a function of x
- \odot right: items in training sets, 5 possible curves approximating $y = \sin 2\pi x$, derived through sampling from the posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta)$

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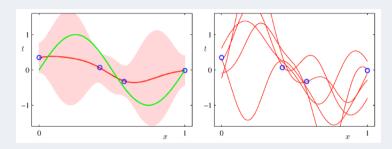
n = 1



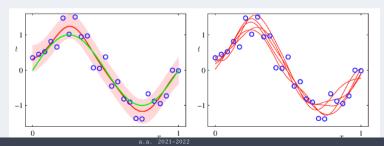
n = 2



$$n = 4$$



n = 25



Fully bayesian regression and hyperparameter marginalization

d a B smor usemt fisch nel modello. Posso were un modello più completo en d a B che humo una distrib. che mos a stimue.

 \odot In a fully bayesian approach, also the hyper-parameters α, β are marginalized

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

where, as seen before,

•
$$p(t|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(t|\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}), \beta)$$

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

this marginalization wrt $\mathbf{w}, \alpha, \beta$ is analytically intractable

 \odot we may consider an approximation where point estimation is applied to derive hyper-parameter values by maximizing the posterior distribution $p(\alpha, \beta | \mathbf{t}, \Phi)$

Consider butt is alor lid, \$, per organis confider una rettre di repressione, per ognum confider un mbre del tenjet => compless, un approssionats.

Sono i modelli Bayesium gerunchici.

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Fully bayesian regression and hyperparameter marginalization

 \odot since $p(\alpha, \beta | \mathbf{t}, \Phi) \propto p(\mathbf{t} | \Phi, \alpha, \beta) p(\alpha, \beta)$, if we assume that $p(\alpha, \beta)$ is relatively flat, then

$$\underset{\alpha,\beta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ p(\alpha,\beta|\mathbf{t},\Phi) \simeq \underset{\alpha,\beta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi,\alpha,\beta)$$

and we may consider the maximization of the marginal likelihood (marginal wrt to coefficients w)

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

 \odot if we assume that $p(\Phi)$ is constant this is equivalent to maximize the evidence

$$p(\Phi, \mathbf{t}|\alpha, \beta) = p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \alpha, \beta)p(\Phi|\alpha, \beta) \propto p(\mathbf{t}|\Phi, \alpha, \beta)$$

N 8 ?

Equivalent kernel

The expectation of the predictive distribution can be written as

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \beta \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \Phi^T \mathbf{t} = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) t_i$$

The prediction can be seen as a linear combination of the target values t_i of items in the training set, with weights dependent from the item values \mathbf{x}_i (and from \mathbf{x})

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) t_i$$

The weight function $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \beta \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \phi(\mathbf{x}')$ is said equivalent kernel

The weight function
$$\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \beta \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$
 is said equivalent kernel we is use suppresentative compute the dati, qui are cel'hr. Applies um certa $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$ e faces he predictione, that stess same; parameter.

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 $\phi(x)$ è il valore rispetto al quale vogliamo effettuare la predizione

Il valore predetto dato x è dato da una cosa che considera un elemento alla volta del train set, per ognuno fa un'operazione dove compaiono:

- feature dell'elemento da predirre
- feature dell'elemento considerato è come avere: $\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x, x_i) t_i$

la prima parte è beta... che è una funzione di x e del punto i-esimo che sto considerando. Questa funzione moltiplica il target del punto del train set. Questo vuol dire che la predizzione effettuata è calcolato mediante una combinazione lineare di tutti i punti del train set, ognuno pesato dalla f(x.) che mette in relazione l'elemento x con

f misura la similitudine: è più alta tanto più x è vicino ad x i, ci dice che il target di x si può prevedere considerando i target di tutti i punti che conosco, combinandoli insieme ma pesandoli per la vicinanza, i punti più vicini peseranno di più.

la f sarebbe la k. il target associato ad un punto più vicino ad x ha un effetto maggiore nel determinare la predizione. Una funzione di guesto tipo prende il nome di kernel, guesto è il kernel eguivalente.

I coefficienti w non ci sono più: la predizione viene effettuata in modo sostanzialmente diverso, detto duale la predizione del target viene effettuata combinando insieme i valori target degli elementi nel train set pesandoli mediante la funzione kernel. Non è più un approccio parametrico: prima, tiravamo fuori i parametri e noti i valori, facevamo la predizione mentre qui no. Ogni volta che si fa la predizione, si considerano i dati, è un esempio di modello non parametrico, o meglio i singoli punti del train set sono i parametri.

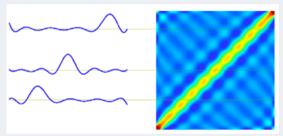
La funzione k c'è sempre, mi da il peso di quanto l'elemento per cui effetto la predizione è vicino (simile) a quello del training set.

Equivalent kernel

Right: plot on the plane (x, x_i) of a sample equivalent kernel, in the case of gaussian basis functions.

Left: plot as a function of x_i for three different values of x

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In deriving y, the equivalent kernel tends to assign greater relevance to the target values t_i corresponding to items x_i near to x.

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