732A96/TDDE15 Advanced Machine Learning Gaussian Process Regression and Classification

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Lectures 12: Gaussian Process Classification

Contents

- ► Linear Logistic Regression
- Bayesian Linear Logistic Regression
- Gaussian Process Classification
- Laplace Approximation
- Gaussian Process Classification: Iris Data

Literature

- Main source
 - Rasmussen, C. E. and Williams, K. I. Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning. MIT Press, 2006. Chapters 3.1-3.4.1 and 3.7.
- Additional source
 - Bishop, C. M. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer, 2006. Chapters 6.4.5-6.4.6.

Linear Logistic Regression

▶ Consider a binary classification problem $y \in \{-1, +1\}$. Then,

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|y = +1)p(y = +1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|y = +1)p(y = +1) + p(\mathbf{x}|y = -1)p(y = -1)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-s(\mathbf{x}))} = \sigma(s(\mathbf{x})).$$

where $s(\mathbf{x}) = \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)p(y=+1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|y=-1)p(y=-1)} = \log \frac{p(y=+1|\mathbf{x})}{p(y=-1|\mathbf{x})}$, and σ is called logistic sigmoid function.

- We assume that $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$ is a member of the exponential family (e.g., Gaussian, multinomial), which implies that $s(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w}$. The model $p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w})$ is called logistic regression.
- Given some training data $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) | i = 1, ..., n\} = (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}),$ we determine the parameters \mathbf{w} by maximizing the log lik function:

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{y}|X,\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_i \log \sigma(\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{w}) + (1 - y_i)(1 - \log \sigma(\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{w}))].$$

- No closed form solution exists, but the log lik function is concave and thus easy to maximize via gradient ascent. The gradient of the log lik function wrt \mathbf{w} is $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{w}) y_{i})\mathbf{x}_{i}$.
- Beware of overfitting for linearly separable datasets: Log lik maximization causes |w| to tend to infinity, i.e. the sigmoid function becomes a Heaviside step function.

Bayesian Linear Logistic Regression

- ▶ Prior distribution: $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_p)$, e.g. ridge regression $\Sigma_p = \alpha^{-1}I$.
- Posterior distribution:

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{w}|X,\boldsymbol{y}) \propto -\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{w}^T \Sigma_p^{-1} \boldsymbol{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \log \sigma(y_i f_i)$$

where $f_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{w}$.

- No closed form solution exists, but the penalty term is quadratic on w and thus the log posterior is concave and thus easy to maximize via gradient ascent or related methods.
- ▶ A full Bayesian approach uses the predictive distribution:

$$p(y_* = +1|\mathbf{x}_*, X, \mathbf{y}) = \int p(y_* = +1|\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}|X, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{w}.$$

- No closed form expression for the predictive distribution exists.
- The above carries over to multi-class classification problems by using the multiple logistic function, a.k.a. softmax.

Gaussian Process Classification

- Given a test case \mathbf{x}_* , use a GP for regression to predict a real number f_* that is then "squashed" through the sigmoid logistic function to produce a class label $y_* = \sigma(f_*)$.
- However, the training data only include class labels y and, thus, f are latent variables.
- In other words, prediction occurs in two steps:
 - ▶ Compute the distribution of the latent variable *f*_{*}:

$$p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{y})=\int p(f_*,\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f}.$$

▶ Compute the prediction y_* , since the latent variable f_* is uninteresting:

$$p(y_* = +1|x_*, X, y) = \int \sigma(f_*) p(f_*|x_*, X, y) df_*.$$

 No closed form solutions exist for these integrals. Solutions: Laplace approximation or MC sampling.

Laplace Approximation

Computing the distribution of the latent variable can be rewritten as

$$p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{y}) = \int p(f_*,\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f} = \int p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|X,\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f}$$

where

- the first term is $\mathcal{N}(K(\mathbf{x}_*,X)K(X,X)^{-1}\mathbf{f},K(\mathbf{x}_*,\mathbf{x}_*)-K(\mathbf{x}_*,X)K(X,X)^{-1}K(X,\mathbf{x}_*))$ since it is a GP for regression, and
- the second term is Gaussian around its modes as the size of the training data grows, due to the central limit theorem. Therefore, it can be approximated by a second order Taylor expansion around a mode via Laplace's method:

$$p(\mathbf{f}|X,\mathbf{y}) \approx \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{\hat{f}},A^{-1})$$

where $\hat{f} = \arg \max_{f} p(f|X, y)$ and $A = -\nabla \nabla \log p(f|X, y)|_{f=\hat{f}}$.

- ▶ Laplace's method to approximate $p(u) = \frac{1}{7}q(u)$:
 - Find a mode u_0 of $\log q$, i.e. $\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \log q(u)|_{u=u_0} = 0$ (numerical methods are typically used).
 - Consider a second order Taylor expansion of log q centered at u₀ (second order because a Gaussian distribution is quadratic in the variables):

$$\log q(u) \approx \log q(u_0) - \frac{1}{2}A(u - u_0)^2$$

where $A = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial u^2} \log q(u)|_{u=u_0}$ (the first order term is gone because u_0 is a mode of q).

► Then, $q(u) \approx q(u_0) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}A(u-u_0)^2\right]$ and thus $p(u) \approx \mathcal{N}(u_0, A^{-1})$.

Laplace Approximation

▶ Computing the distribution of the latent variable can be rewritten as

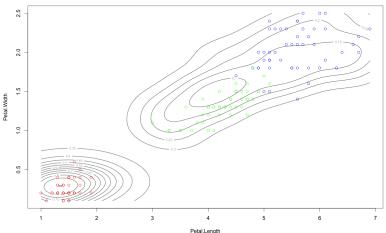
$$p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{y}) = \int p(f_*,\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f} = \int p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*,X,\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|X,\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f}$$

where

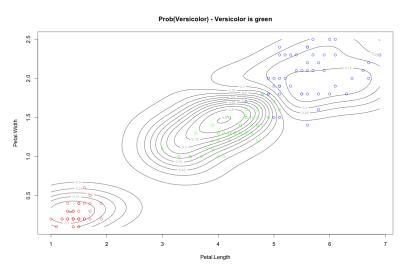
- the first term is $\mathcal{N}(K(\mathbf{x}_*,X)K(X,X)^{-1}\mathbf{f},K(\mathbf{x}_*,\mathbf{x}_*)-K(\mathbf{x}_*,X)K(X,X)^{-1}K(X,\mathbf{x}_*))$ since it is a GP for regression, and
- the second term is approximated by $\mathcal{N}(\hat{f}, A^{-1})$ where $\hat{f} = \arg\max_{f} p(f|X, y)$ and $A = -\nabla\nabla\log p(f|X, y)|_{f=\hat{f}}$.
- ► Moreover, $A = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\mathbf{f}|X,\mathbf{y})|_{\mathbf{f}=\hat{\mathbf{f}}} = -W K(X,X)^{-1}$ where W is a diagonal matrix with elements $\sigma(\hat{f}_i)(1 \sigma(\hat{f}_i))$.
- ► Then, $p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*, X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(K(X, \mathbf{x}_*)^T K(X, X)^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{f}}, K(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) K(X, \mathbf{x}_*)^T (K(X, X) + W^{-1})^{-1} K(X, \mathbf{x}_*)).$
- Finally, note that the (approximate) prediction requires one-dimensional numerical integration.
- In general, the prediction (expected sigmoid) differs from the sigmoid of the expectation ($\sigma(K(X, \mathbf{x}_*)^T K(X, X)^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{f}})$). However, either both or none are greater than 0.5. So, we can use the latter if we are only interested in the most probable class label.
- Demo of KernLabDemo.R.

- ▶ SE kernel with automatic ℓ estimation and $\sigma_f = 1$.
- ► Species ~ Petal.Length + Petal.Width.
- ▶ p(Setosa|Petal.Length, Petal.Width):

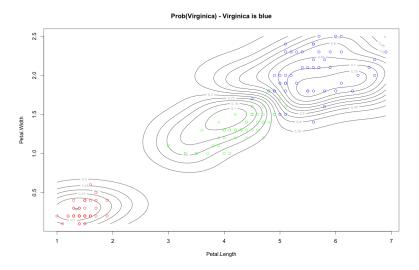




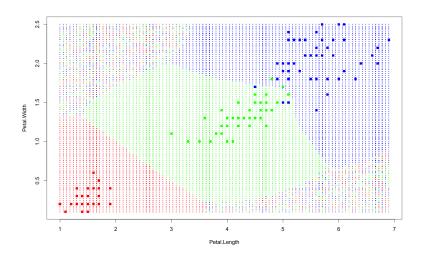
- ▶ SE kernel with automatic ℓ estimation and $\sigma_f = 1$.
- ► Species ~ Petal.Length + Petal.Width.
- ▶ p(Versicolor|Petal.Length, Petal.Width):



- ▶ SE kernel with automatic ℓ estimation and $\sigma_f = 1$.
- ► Species ~ Petal.Length + Petal.Width.
- ▶ p(Virginica|Petal.Length, Petal.Width):



- ▶ SE kernel with automatic ℓ estimation and $\sigma_f = 1$.
- ► Species ~ Petal.Length + Petal.Width.
- Decision boundary:



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Thank you