Visual Analytics: Introduction to Statistical Pattern Analysis

Ian Nabney

ian.nabney@bristol.ac.uk

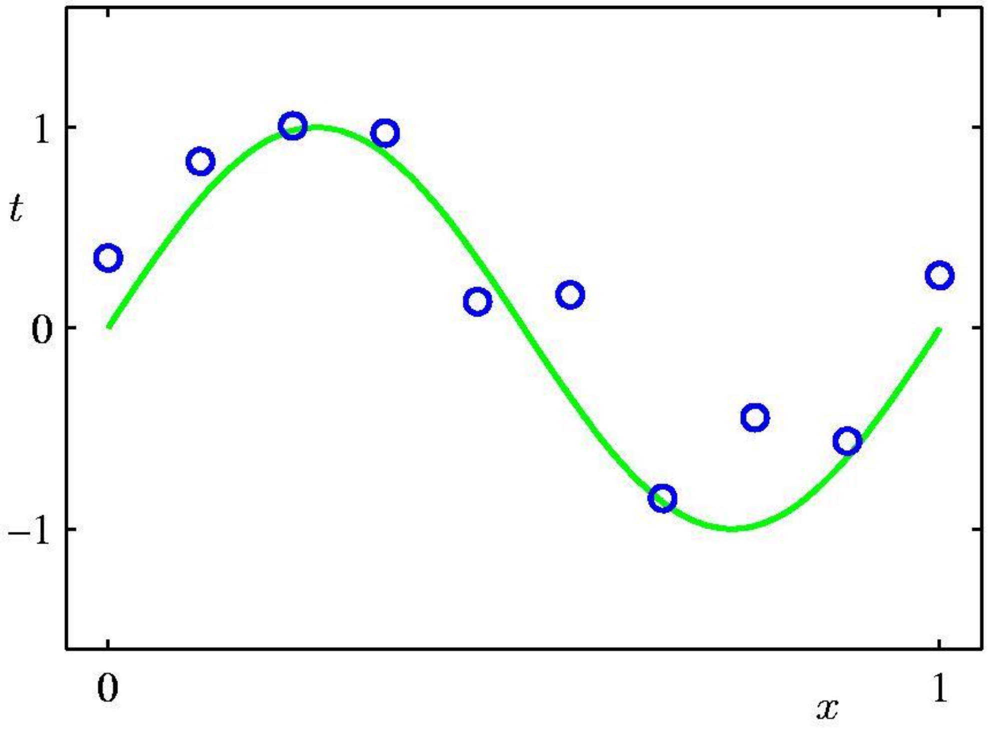
Overview

- Contextual reading: selections from chapter 1 of Bishop (free pdf available from https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/uploads/prod/2006/01/Bishop-Pattern-Recognition-and-Machine-Learning-2006.pdf)
- Understand key concepts of fitting models to data
- Able to use simple methods for model selection
- Understand the relevance of the 'curse of dimensionality' to model fitting and overfitting
- Understand the basic principles of information theory as they apply to pattern analysis

Overview of pattern analysis part of unit

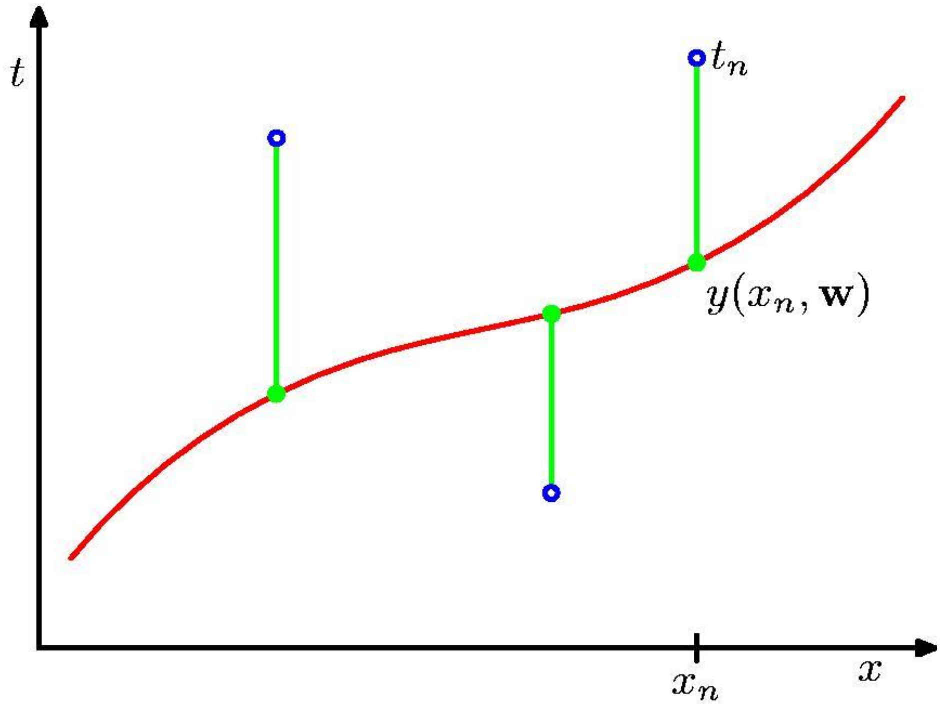
- We will cover principles, algorithms, and application of linear and non-linear methods for statistical pattern recognition.
- The primary focus will be on dimensionality reduction, but this will allow us to cover a range of other models in passing (e.g. Gaussian mixture models, Gaussian Processes, kernel methods, etc.).
- It is aimed to complement Introduction to AI. Some of material may overlap, but the principles are so fundamental, this is not a bad thing
- It cannot be comprehensive: the Wikipedia page on non-linear dimensionality reduction methods lists 12 ‘Important Concepts’ and 14 ‘Other Algorithms’ and that does not include some of the methods that will be discussed in this unit!
- Theory in lectures will be followed by practical exercises in the labs.

Polynomial Curve Fitting



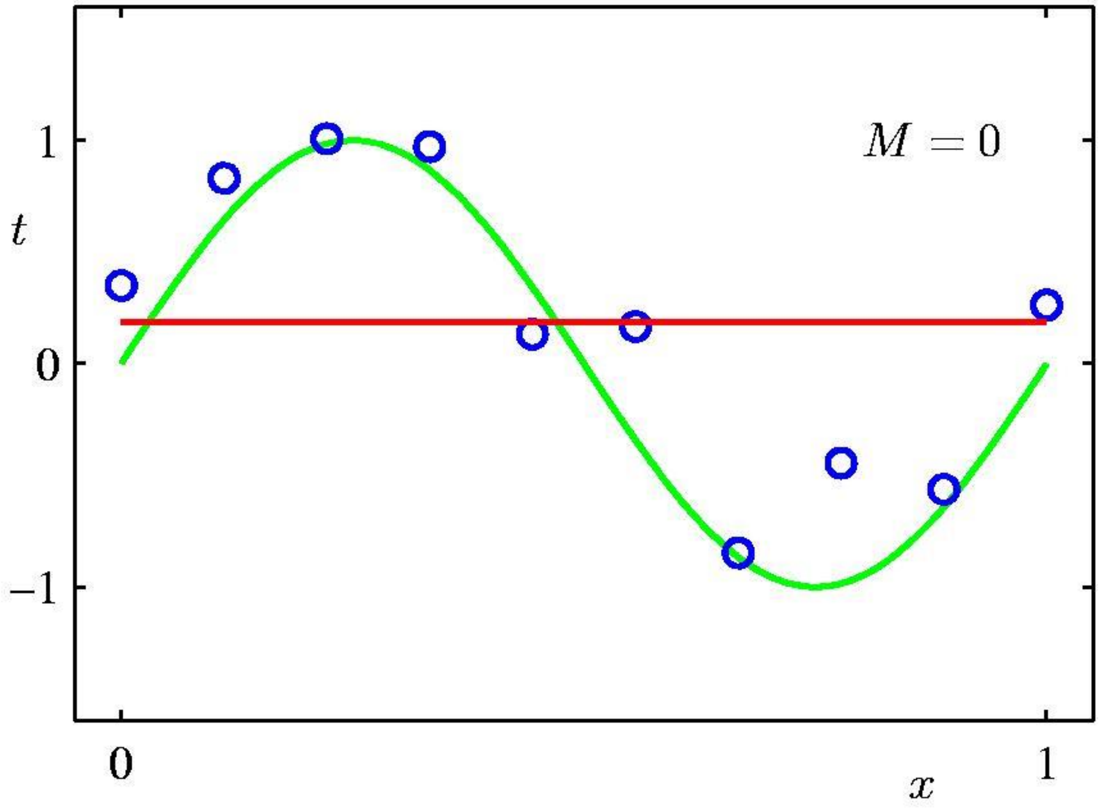
$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \ldots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x^j$$

Sum-of-Squares Error Function

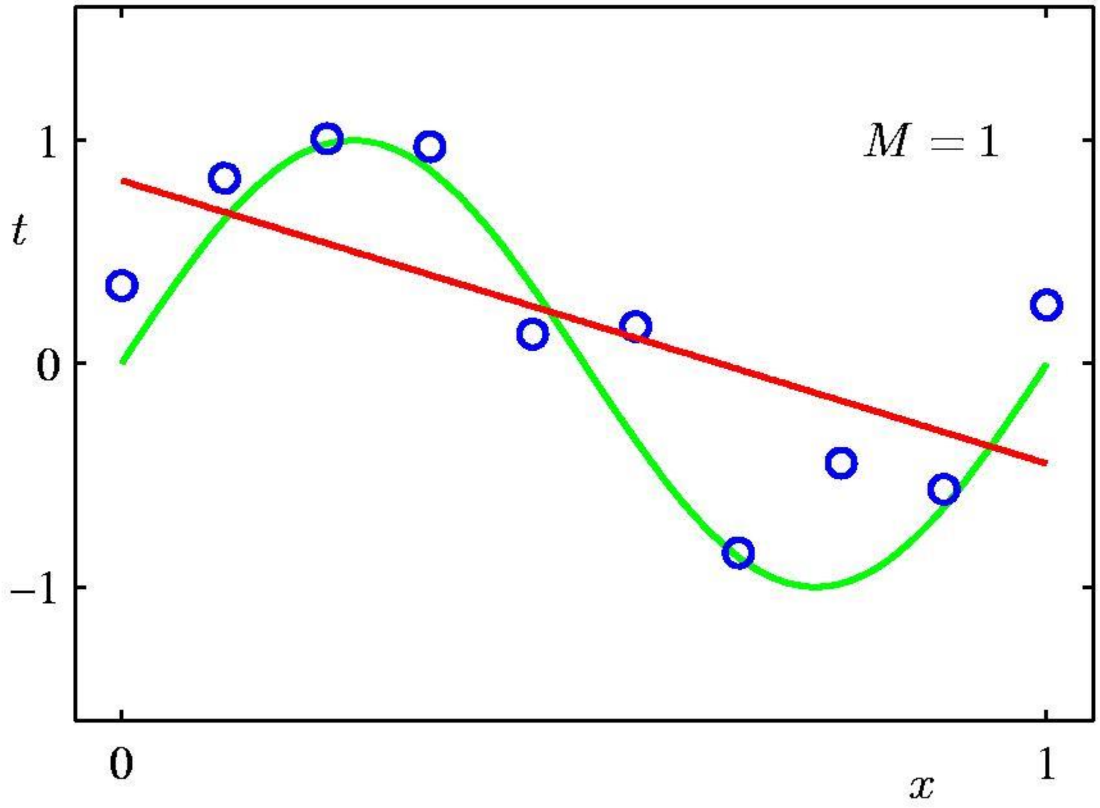


$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2$$

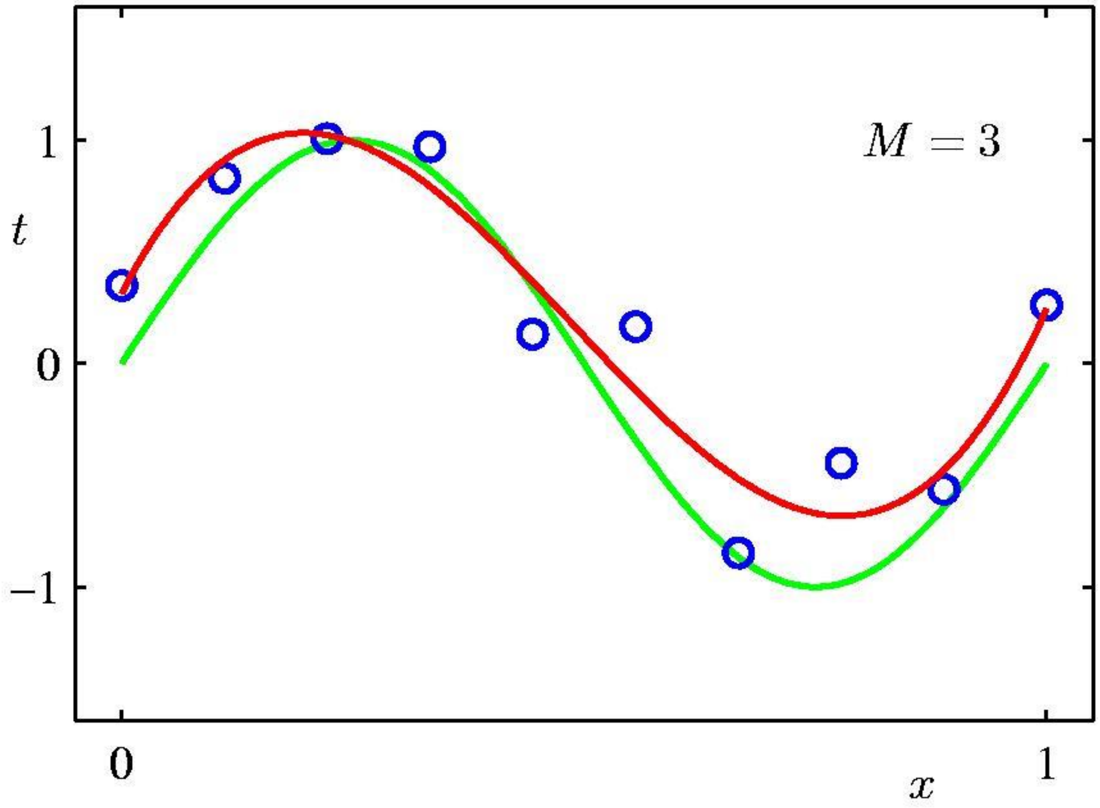
0^{th} Order Polynomial



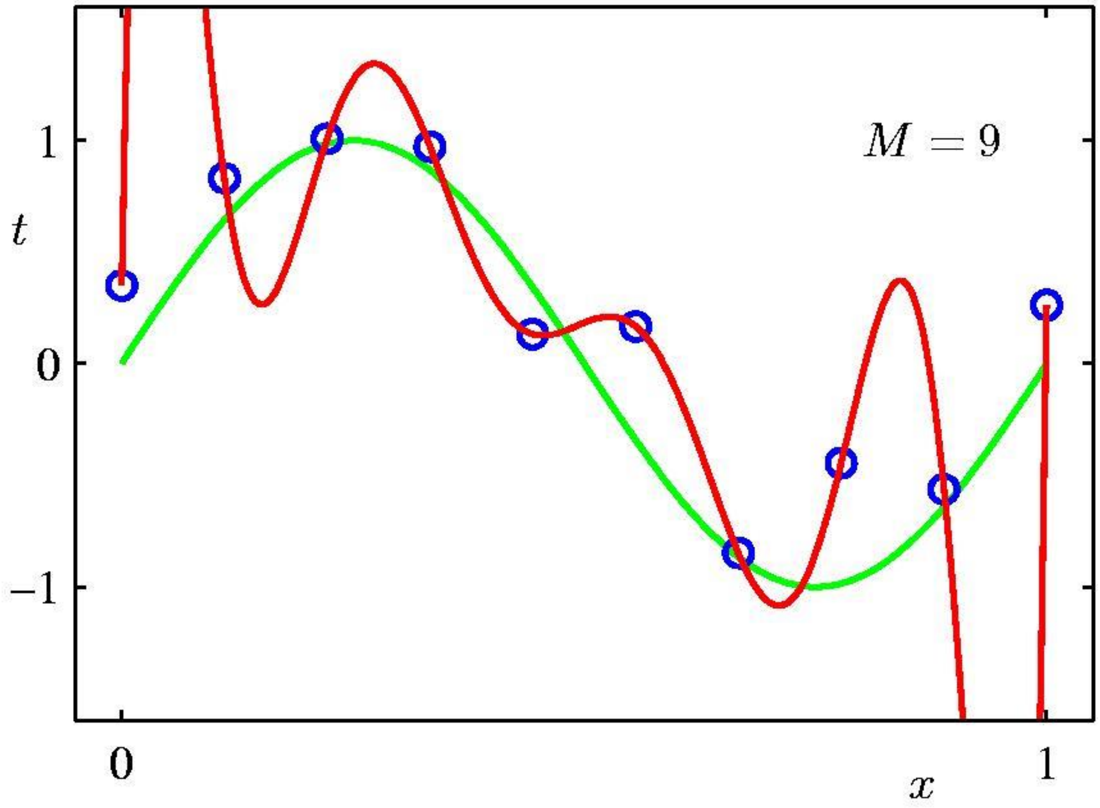
1st Order Polynomial



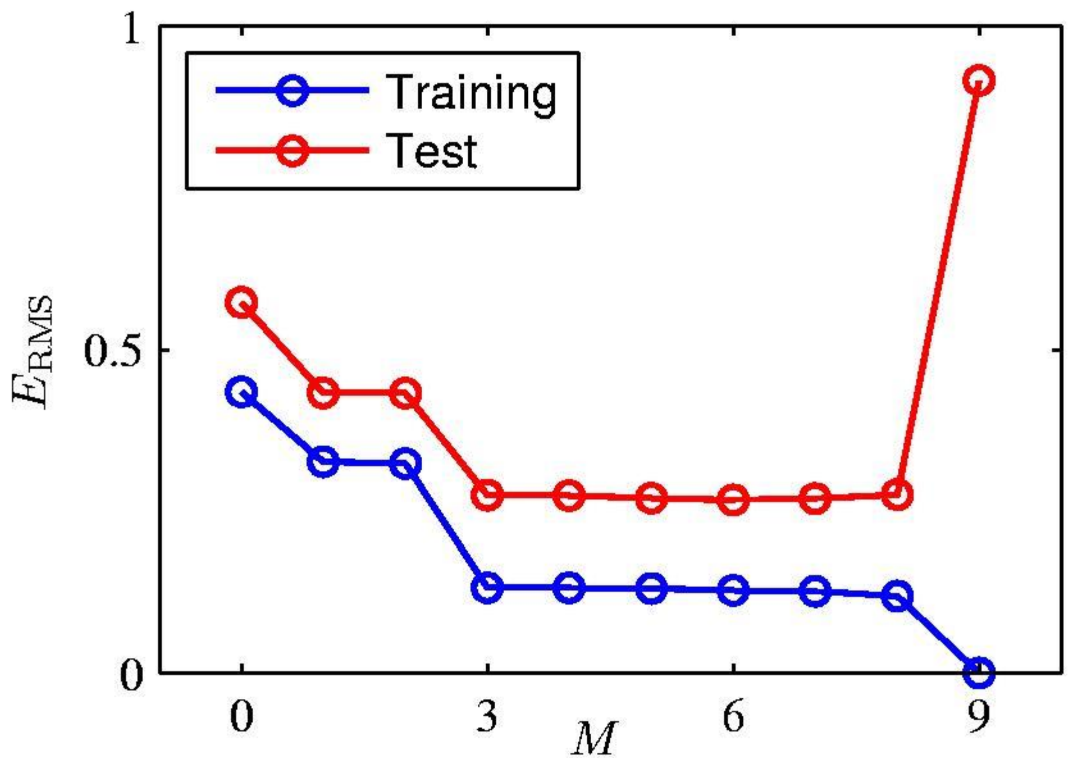
3rd Order Polynomial



9^{th} Order Polynomial



Over-fitting



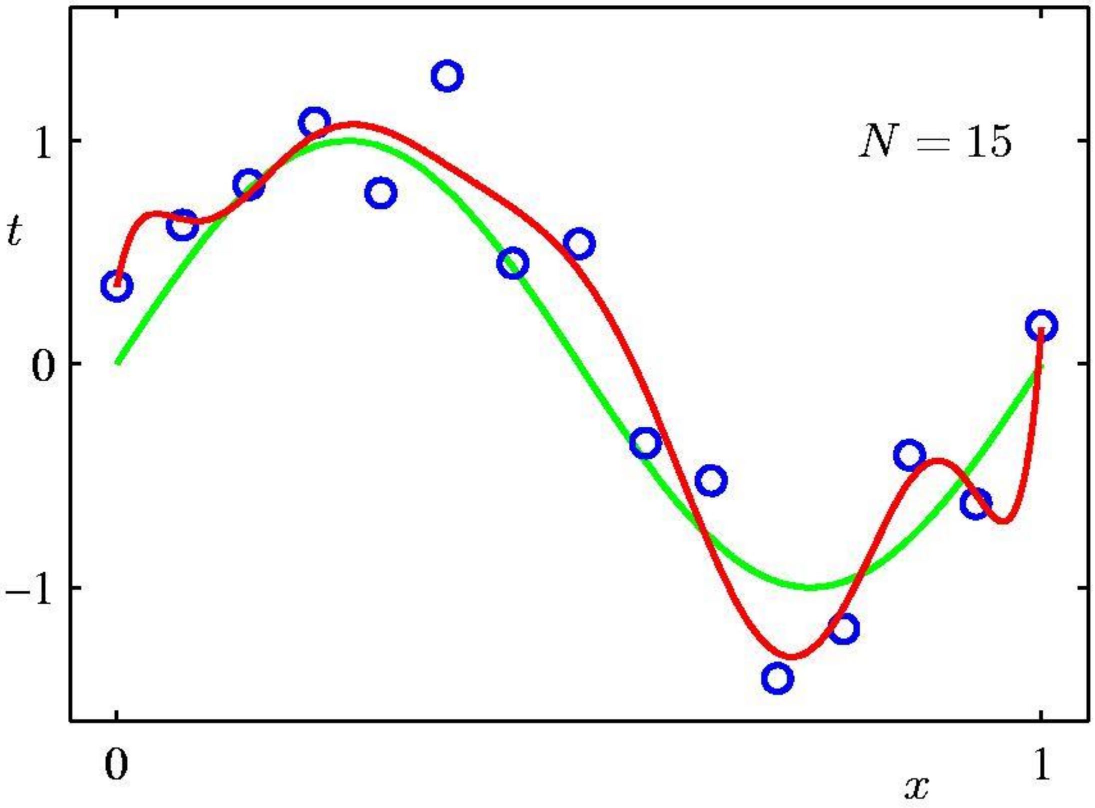
Root-Mean-Square (RMS) Error: $E_{\mathrm{RMS}} = \sqrt{2E(\mathbf{w}^\star)/N}$

Polynomial Coefficients

	$M=0$	$M=1$	$M=3$	$M=9$
$w_0^\star$	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

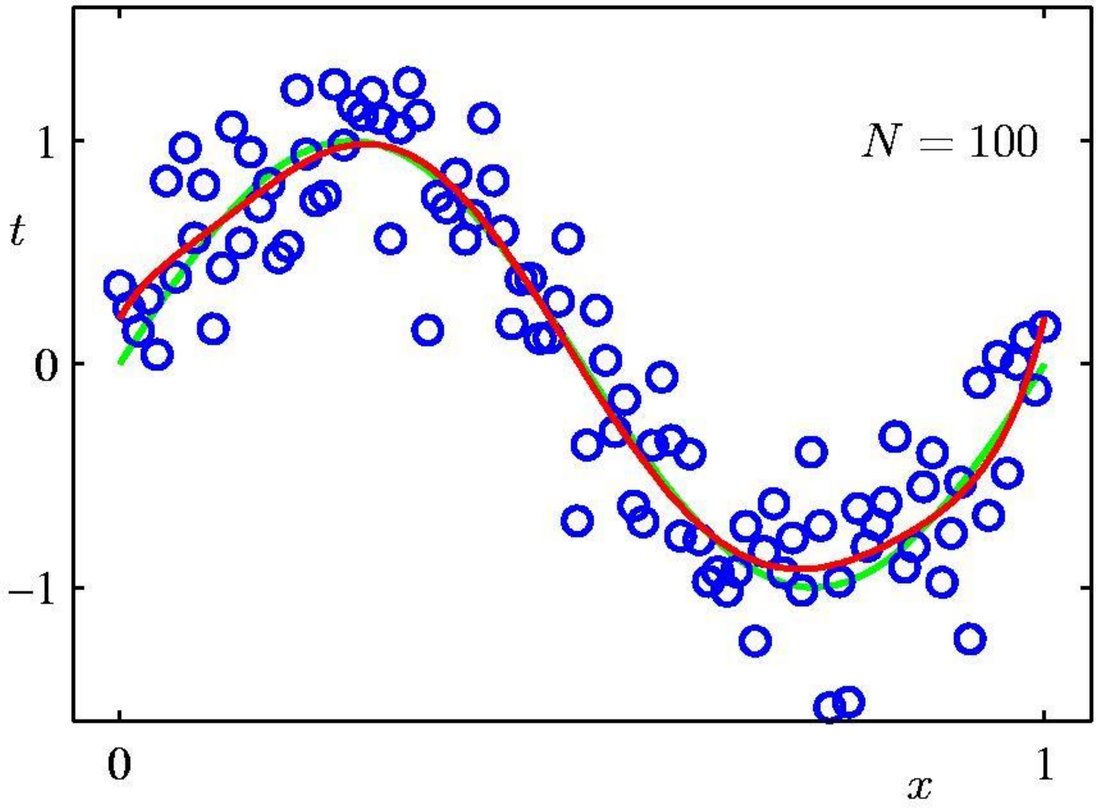
Data Set Size: $N = 15$

9th Order Polynomial



Data Set Size: $N = 100$

9th Order Polynomial



Managing model complexity

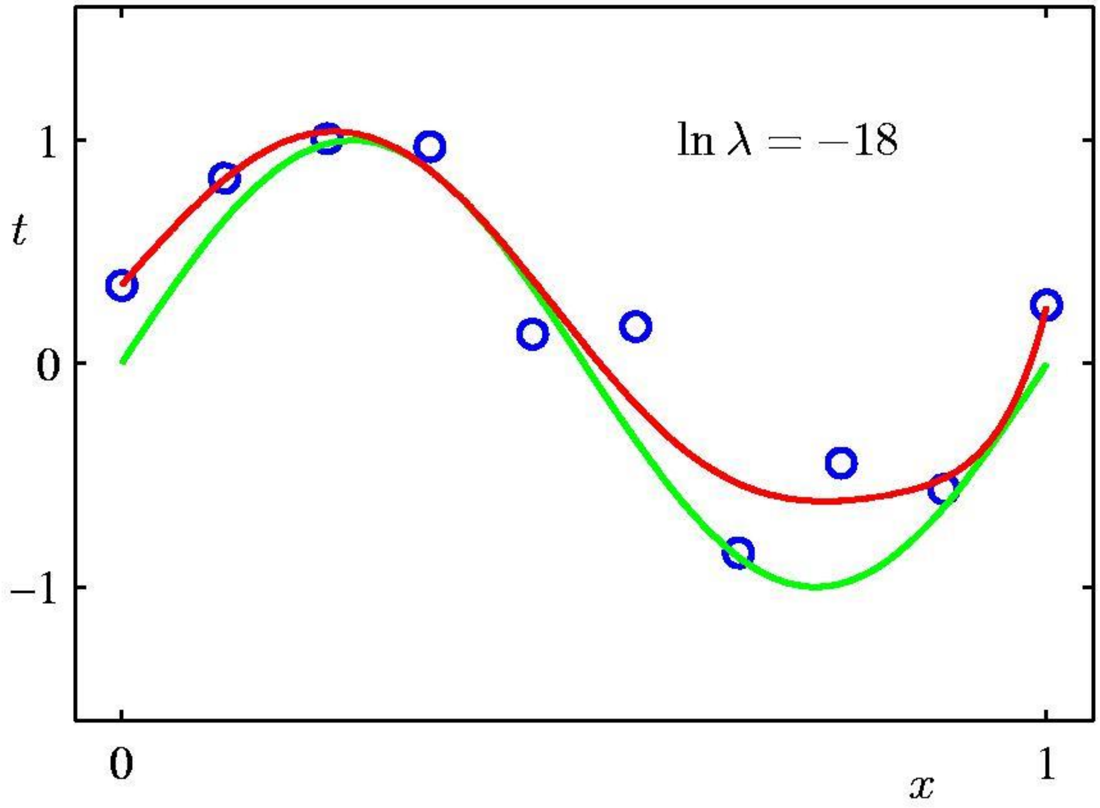
- One rough heuristic that is sometimes advocated is that the number of data points should be at least 5 or 10 times the number of adaptive parameters in the model.
- But the number of parameters is not necessarily the best measure of model complexity.
- There is something unsatisfying about having to limit the number of parameters in this way. It would be better to choose the complexity of the model according to the complexity of the problem.
- This approach is an example of **maximum likelihood**, and over-fitting is a general property of this approach.
- By adopting a **Bayesian** approach, this problem can be avoided, at the cost of additional mathematical complexity.
- Indeed, from the Bayesian perspective, there is no difficulty in employing models for which the number of parameters greatly exceeds the number of data points. The effective number of parameters adapts automatically to the size of the dataset.

Regularization

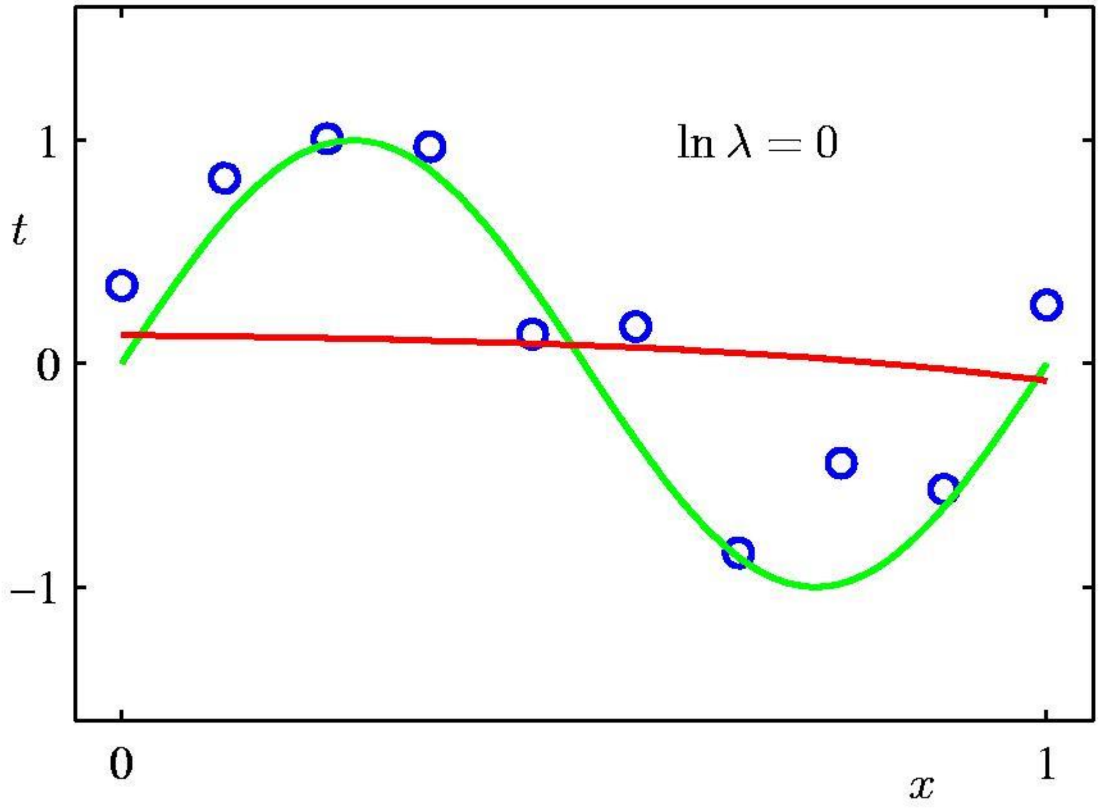
Penalize large coefficient values

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

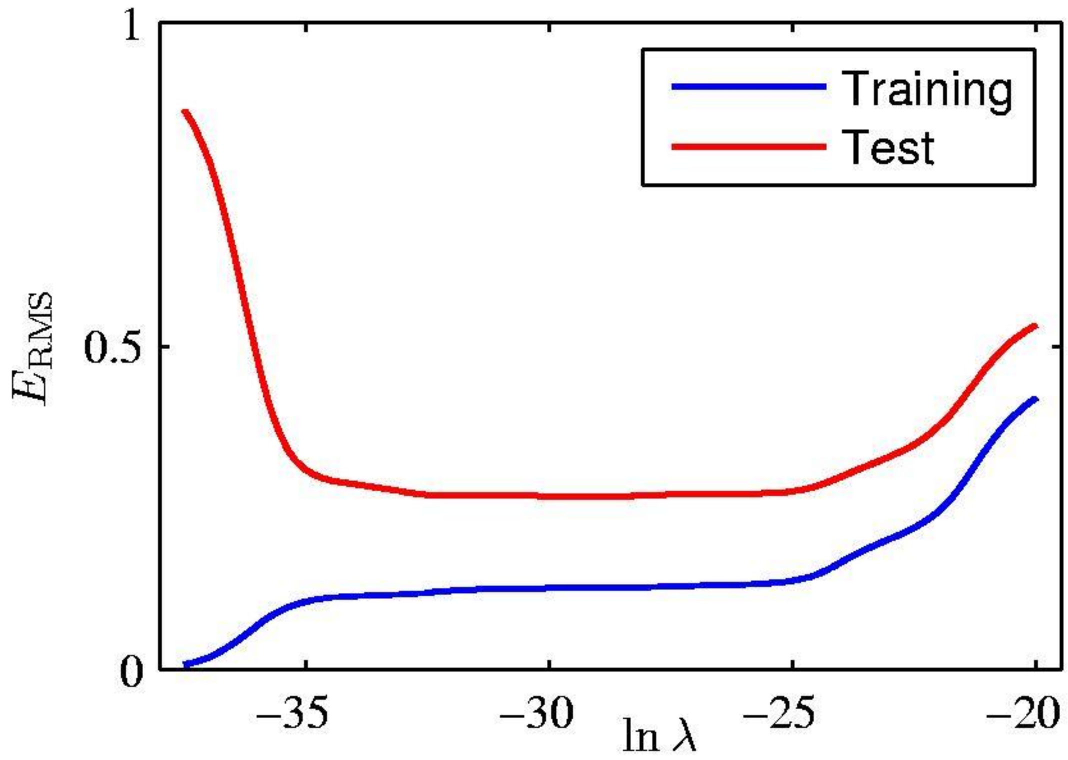
Regularization: $\ln \lambda = -18$



Regularization: $\ln \lambda = 0$



Regularization: E_{RMS} vs. $\ln \lambda$

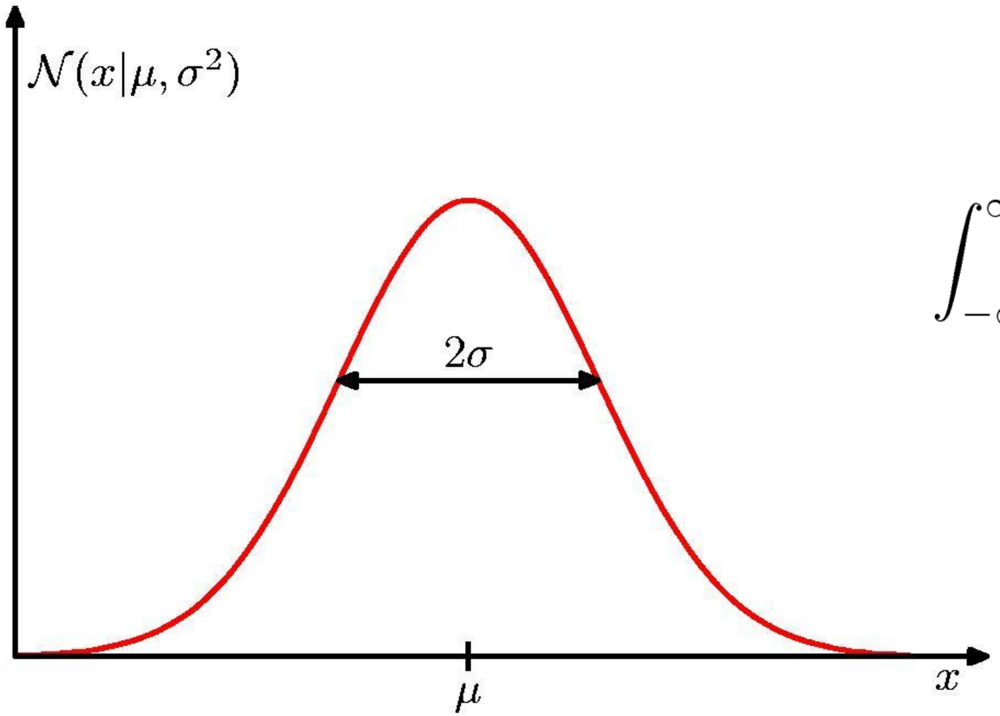


Polynomial Coefficients

	$\ln \lambda = -\infty$	$\ln \lambda = -18$	$\ln \lambda = 0$
$w_0^\star$	0.35	0.35	0.13
$w_1^\star$	232.37	4.74	-0.05
$w_2^\star$	-5321.83	-0.77	-0.06
$w_3^\star$	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

The Gaussian Distribution

$$\mathcal{N}\left(x|\mu,\sigma^2\right) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2\right\}$$



$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\sigma^2) > 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}\left(x|\mu,\sigma^2\right) \,\mathrm{d}x = 1$$

University of BRISTOL

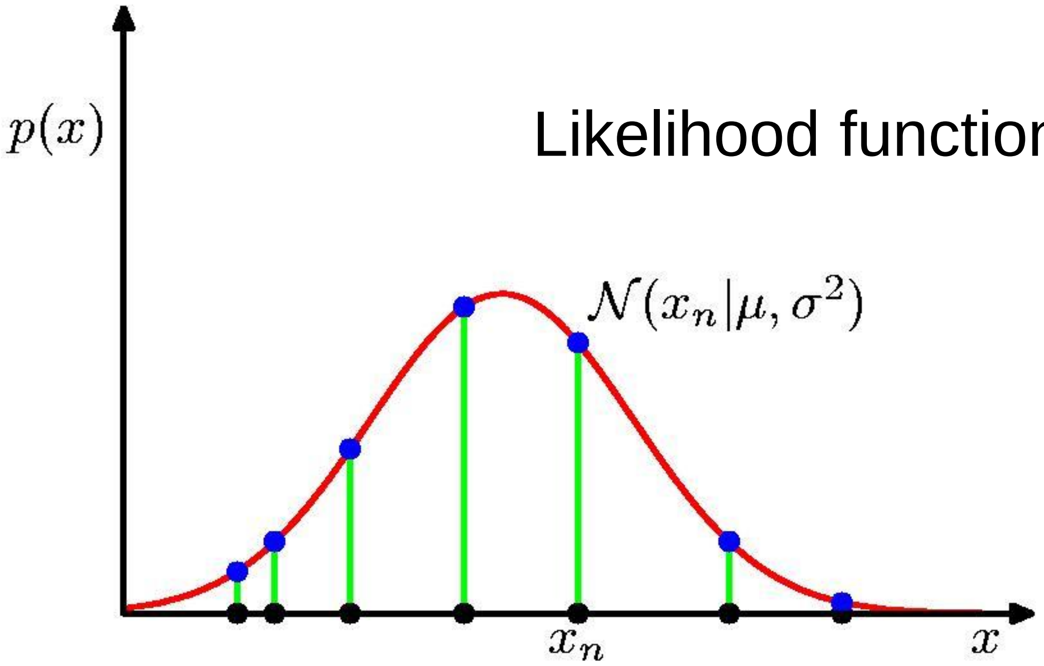
Gaussian Mean and Variance

$$\mathbb{E}[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}\left(x|\mu, \sigma^2\right) x \, \mathrm{d}x = \mu$$

$$\mathbb{E}[x^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{N}\left(x|\mu, \sigma^2\right) x^2 \, \mathrm{d}x = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$$

$$\mathrm{var}[x] = \mathbb{E}[x^2] - \mathbb{E}[x]^2 = \sigma^2$$

Gaussian Parameter Estimation



$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}\left(x_n|\mu, \sigma^2\right)$$

Maximum (Log) Likelihood

$$\ln p\left(\mathbf{x}|\mu,\sigma^2\right) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(x_n-\mu)^2 - \frac{N}{2}\ln\sigma^2 - \frac{N}{2}\ln(2\pi)$$

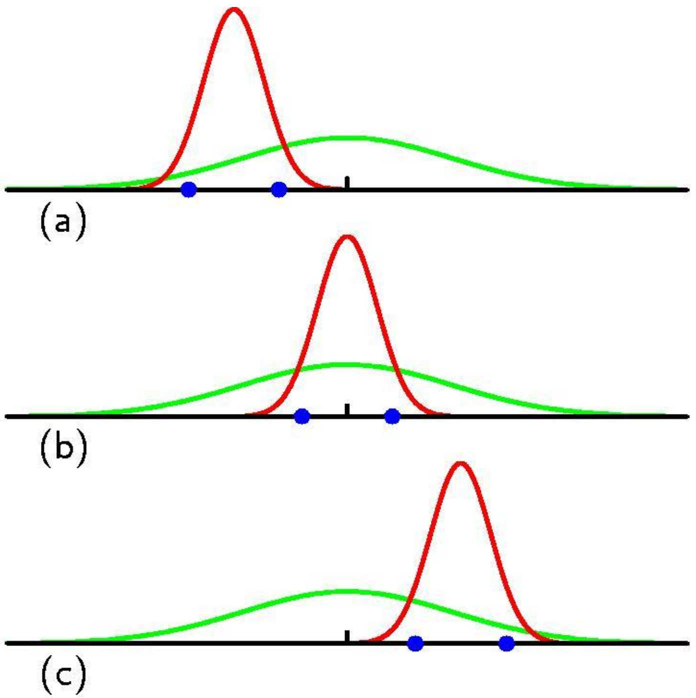
$$\mu_{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n \qquad \sigma^2_{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(x_n-\mu_{\mathrm{ML}})^2$$

Properties of μ_{ML} and σ^2_{ML}

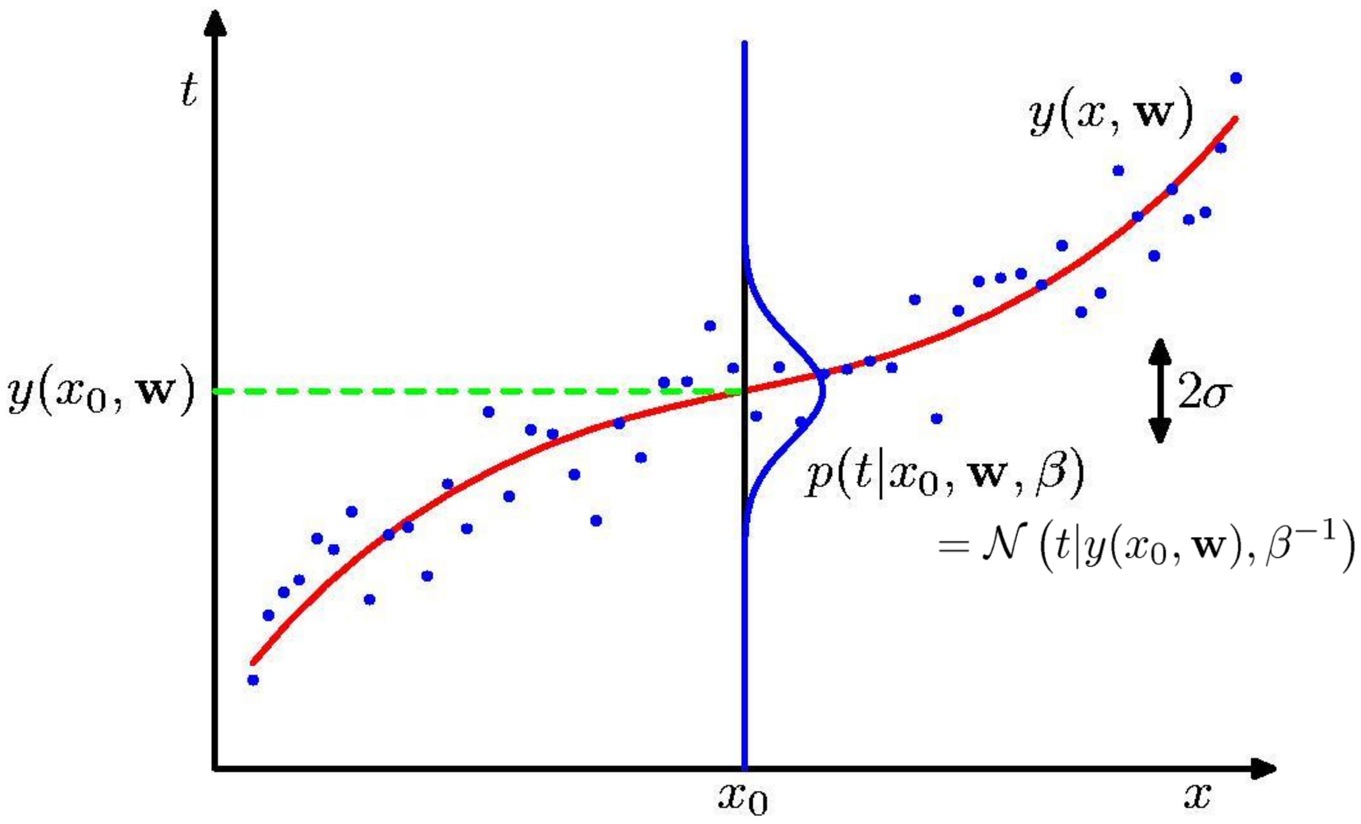
$$\mathbb{E}[\mu_{\mathrm{ML}}] = \mu$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\sigma^2_{\mathrm{ML}}] = \left(\frac{N-1}{N}\right)\sigma^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\widetilde{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{N}{N-1}\sigma^2_{\mathrm{ML}} \\ &= \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(x_n - \mu_{\mathrm{ML}})^2\end{aligned}$$



Curve Fitting Re-visited



Maximum Likelihood

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

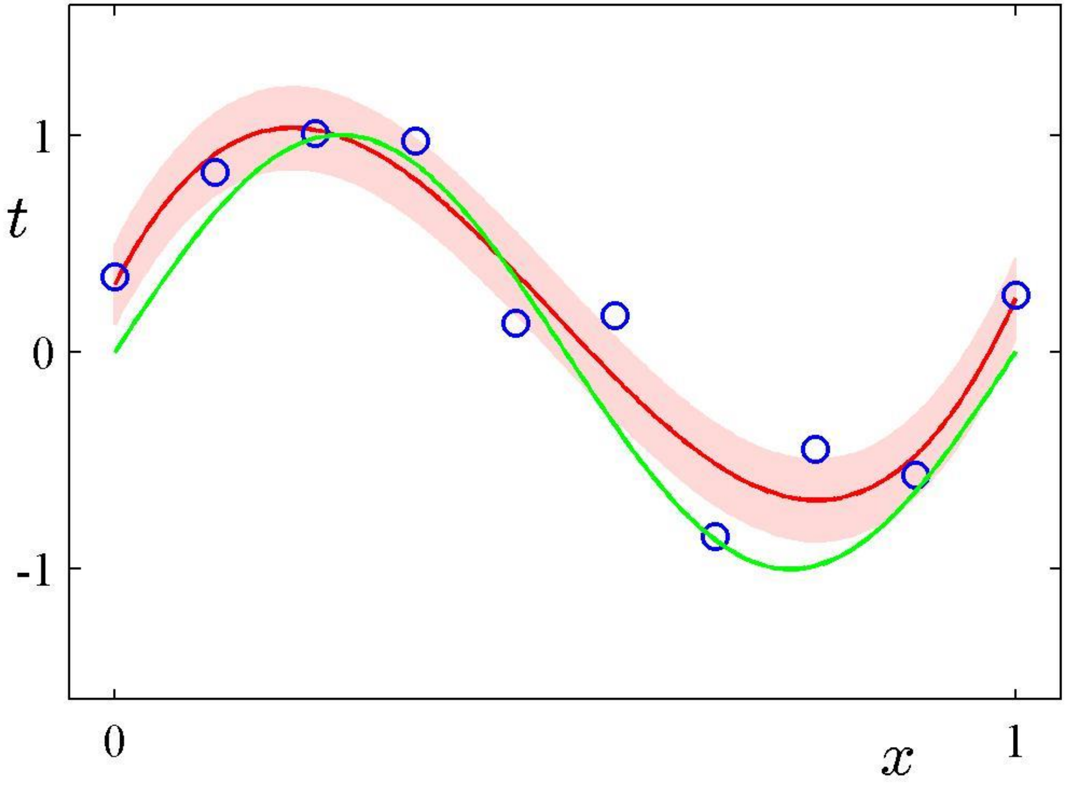
$$\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \underbrace{-\frac{\beta}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2}_{\beta E(\mathbf{w})} + \frac{N}{2}\ln\beta - \frac{N}{2}\ln(2\pi)$$

Determine $\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}}$ by minimizing sum-of-squares error, $E(\mathbf{w})$.

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

Predictive Distribution

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



MAP: A Step towards Bayes

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

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

$$\beta\widetilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\beta}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2}\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{w}$$

Determine $\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{MAP}}$ by minimizing regularized sum-of-squares error, $\widetilde{E}(\mathbf{w})$

.

Bayesian Curve Fitting

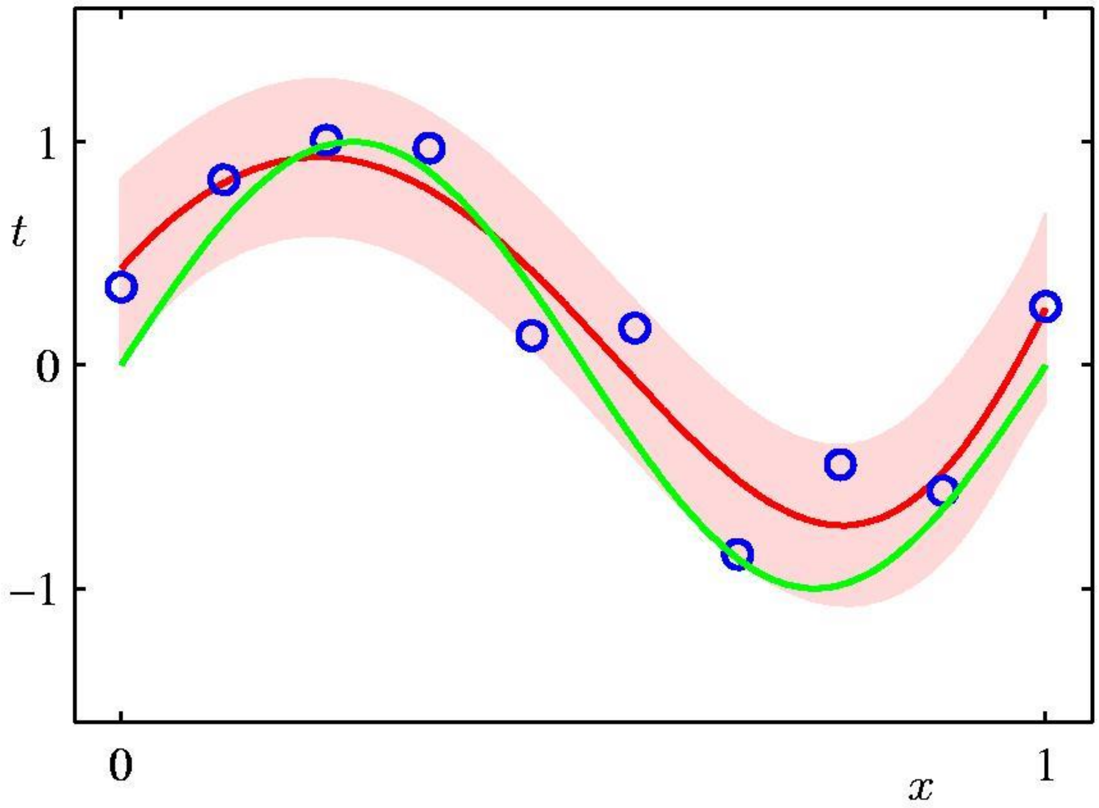
$$p(t|x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \int p(t|x, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w} = \mathcal{N}\left(t|m(x), s^2(x)\right)$$

$$m(x) = \beta \boldsymbol{\phi}(x)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{S} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_n) t_n \qquad s^2(x) = \beta^{-1} + \boldsymbol{\phi}(x)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{S} \boldsymbol{\phi}(x)$$

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1} = \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_n) \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_n)^{\mathrm{T}} \qquad \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_n) = \left(x_n^0, \ldots, x_n^M\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$$

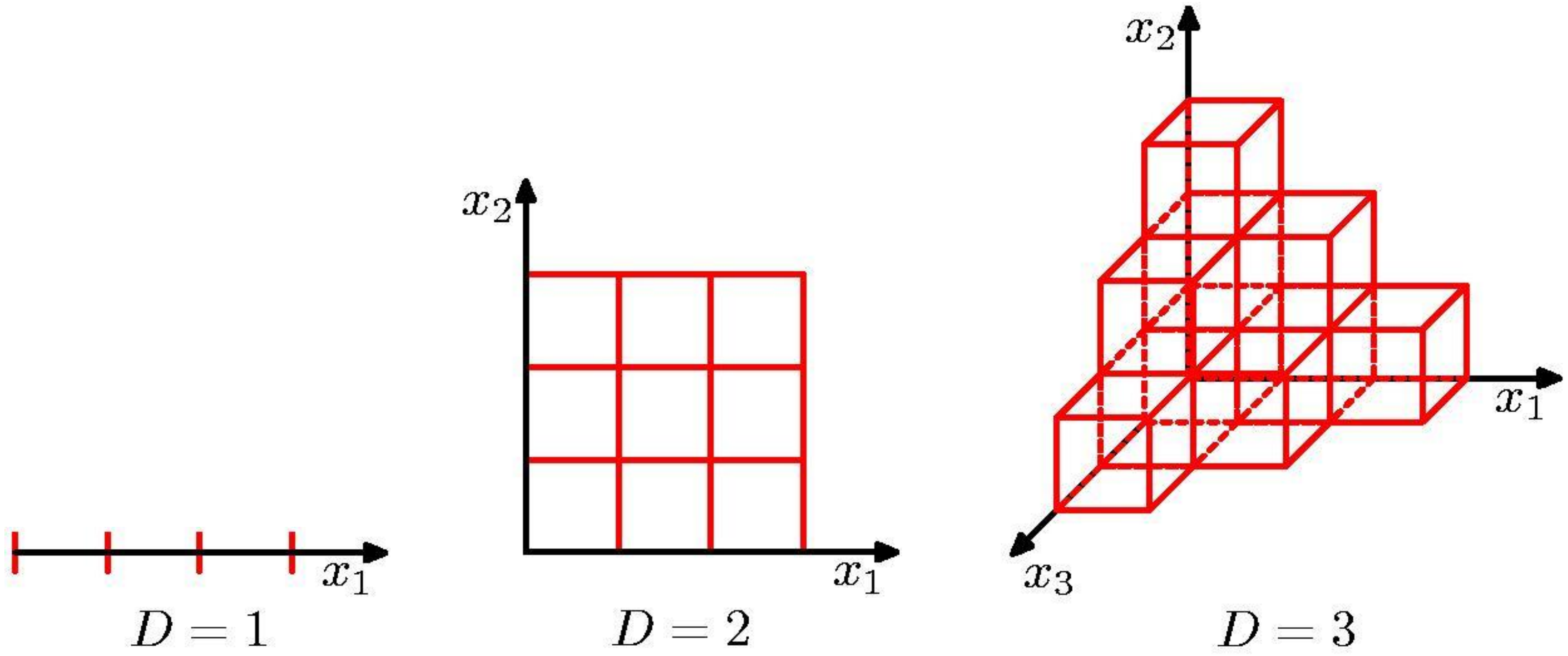
Bayesian Predictive Distribution

$$p(t|x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \mathcal{N}\left(t|m(x), s^2(x)\right)$$



University of BRISTOL

Curse of Dimensionality

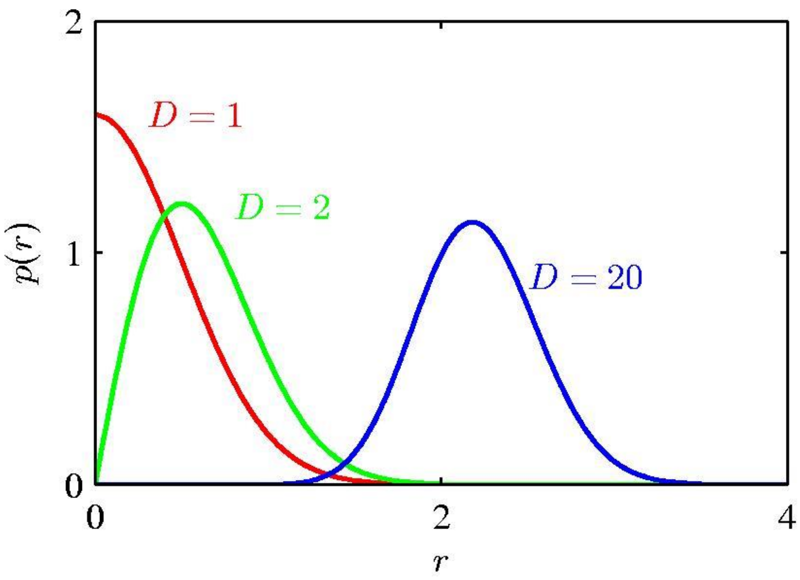


Curse of Dimensionality

Polynomial curve fitting, M = 3

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{D} w_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^{D}\sum_{j=1}^{D} w_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^{D}\sum_{j=1}^{D}\sum_{k=1}^{D} w_{ijk} x_i x_j x_k$$

Gaussian Densities in higher dimensions



Pattern analysis in high dimensions

- We can still find effective techniques in high dimensions for two reasons:
  - Real data is often confined to a region of the space having lower effective dimensionality. In particular, the directions over which important variations in the target variables occur may be so confined.
  - Real data typically exhibits some smoothness properties (at least locally) so that for the most part small changes in input variables produce small changes in the target variables. We can exploit local interpolation-like techniques to allow us to make predictions of the target variables.