

Linear Models for Regression

TTT4185 Machine Learning for Signal Processing

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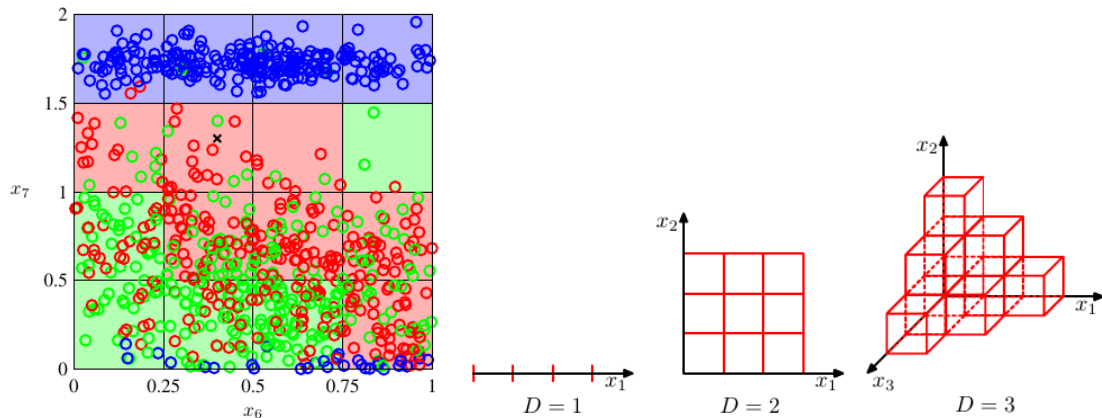
Outline

- 1 Curse of Dimensionality
 - Manifolds and Dimensionality Reduction
- 2 Basis Functions
 - Maximum Likelihood
- 3 Bias/Variance trade-off
- 4 Bayesian Model Selection

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Curse of dimensionality (non-parametric case)



Figures from Bishop

Curse of dimensionality (parametric case)

1-dimension $x \in \mathbb{R}$, third order polynomial

$$y(x, w) = w_0 + w_1x + w_2x^2 + w_3x^3$$

(4 parameters)

D -dimension $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_D\} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, third order polynomial

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

$(1 + D + D^2 + D^3 \text{ parameters})$

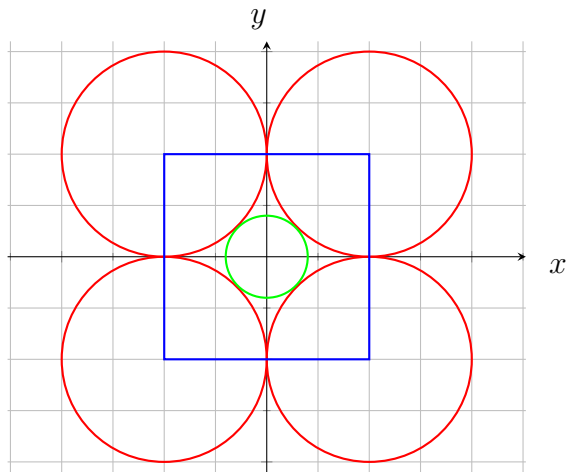
Example 28×28 images (MNIST): $D = 784$, # parameters = 482.505.745

High dimensions and intuition

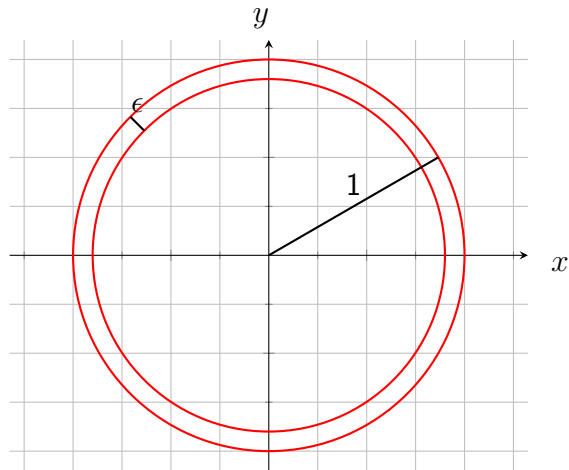
- radius of red circles = 1
- side of blue square = 2
- what is the radius of the green circle?
- what is the radius of the sphere in 3D?
- how about higher dimensions?

3Blue1Brown

<https://youtu.be/zwAD6dRSVyI>



High dimensions and intuition

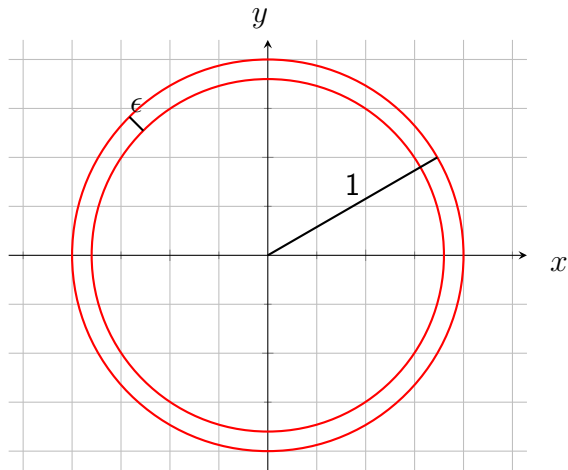


- What is ratio between the volume between the spheres and the volume of the large sphere?

$$\frac{V_D(1) - V_D(1 - \epsilon)}{V_D(1)} = \dots$$

- In D dimensions $V_D(r) = K_D r^D$
- Examples:
 - 2D: $K_2 = \pi$
 - 3D: $K_3 = \frac{4}{3}\pi$
 - ...

High dimensions and intuition



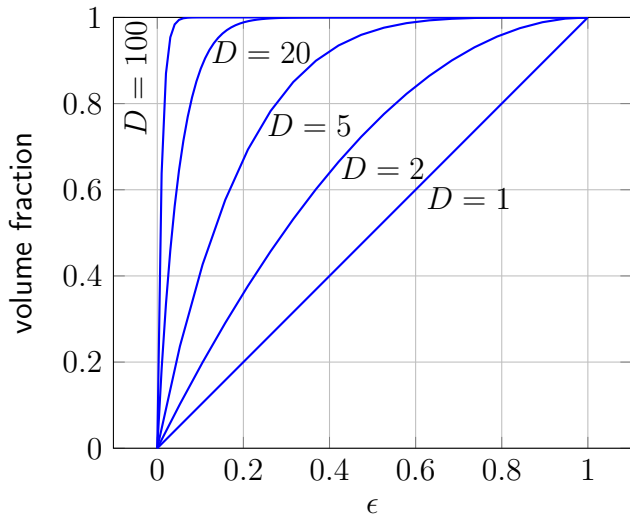
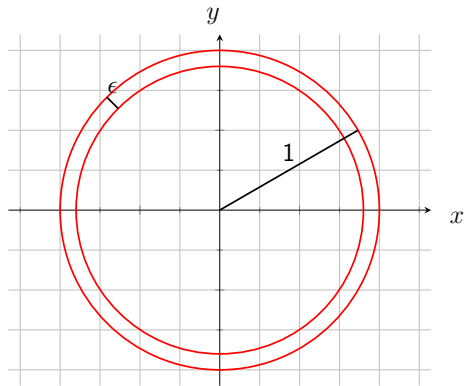
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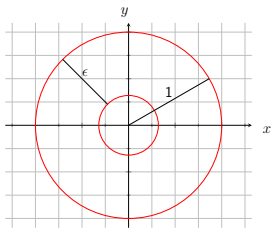
$$\begin{aligned} \dots &= \frac{K_D 1^D - K_D (1 - \epsilon)^D}{K_D 1^D} \\ &= 1 - (1 - \epsilon)^D \end{aligned}$$

High dimensions and intuition

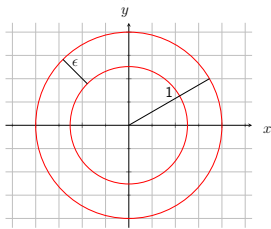


Where is 90% of the Volume?

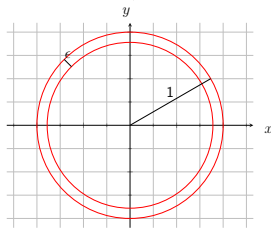
$$D = 2, \epsilon = 0.68$$



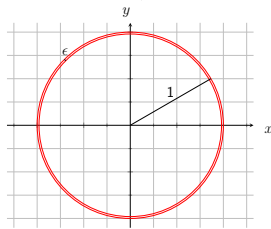
$$D = 5, \epsilon = 0.37$$



$$D = 20, \epsilon = 0.11$$



$$D = 100, \epsilon = 0.02$$



Example: Euclidean Distance

Two points in D dimensions:

$$\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_D)$$

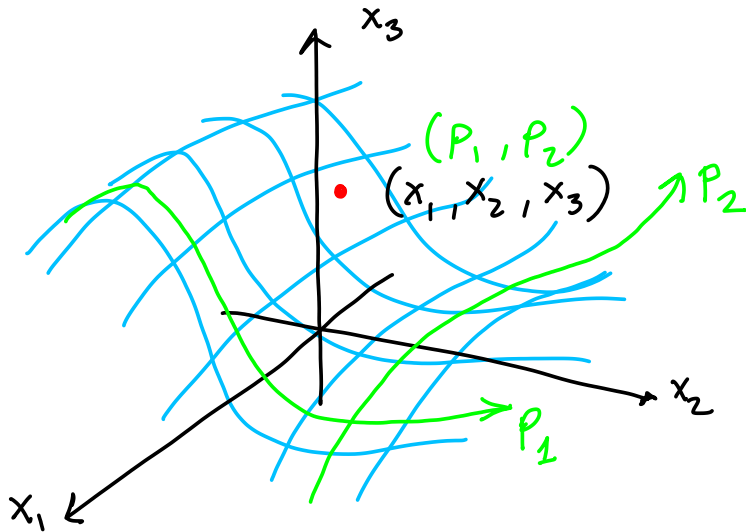
$$\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_D)$$

Euclidean square distance

$$d^2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = (a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2 + \dots + (a_D - b_D)^2$$

If $D = 1000$ it is enough that just a few coordinates differ.

Manifolds and Dimensionality Reduction

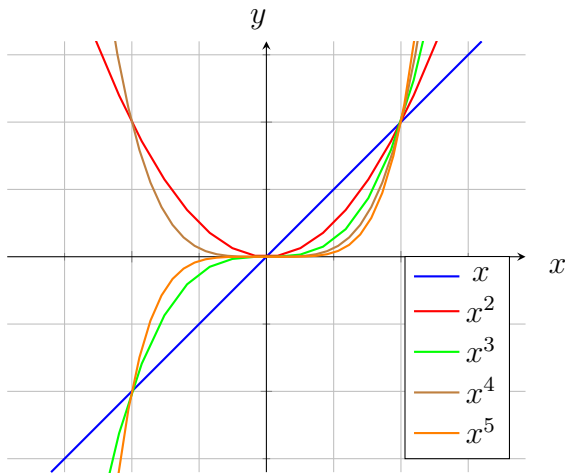


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Linear Regression with Polynomials

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1x + \cdots + w_{M-1}x^{M-1}$$



Linear Regression with Basis Functions

$$\begin{aligned}y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) &= w_0 + w_1\phi(\mathbf{x}) + \cdots + w_{M-1}\phi_{M-1}(\mathbf{x}) \\&= \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} w_j\phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})\end{aligned}$$

with:

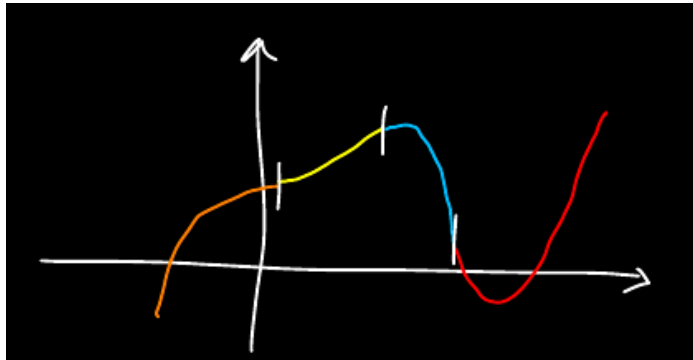
$$\phi_j(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\phi_0(\mathbf{x}) = 1, \forall \mathbf{x}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = [\phi_0(\mathbf{x}) \dots \phi_{M-1}(\mathbf{x})]^T$$

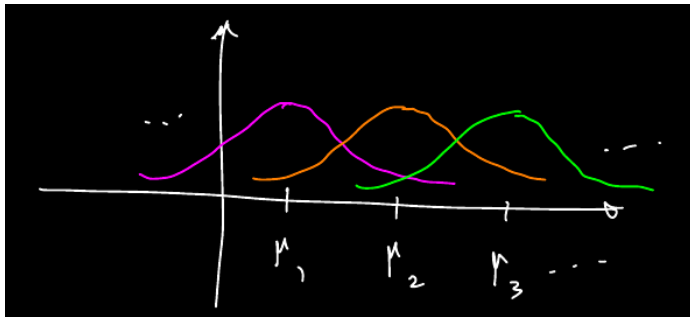
Example: Spline

- Piece-wise polynomial
- continuous up to first derivative



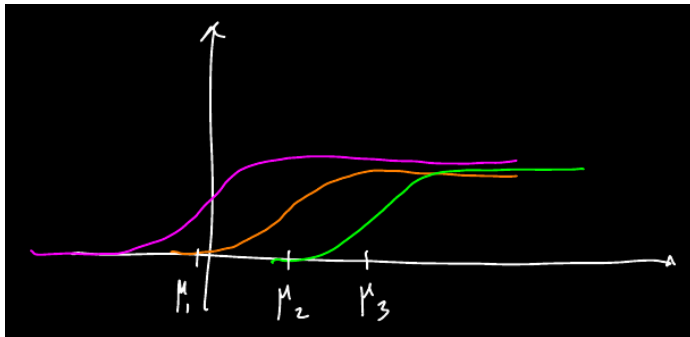
Example: Gaussian

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

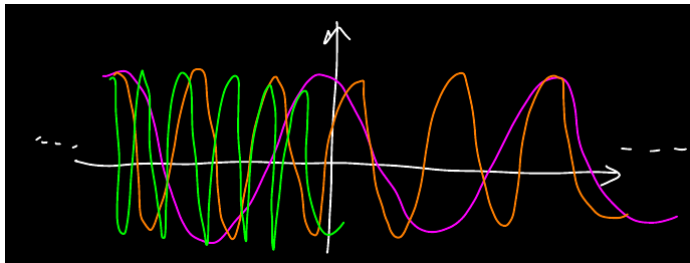


Example: Sigmoid

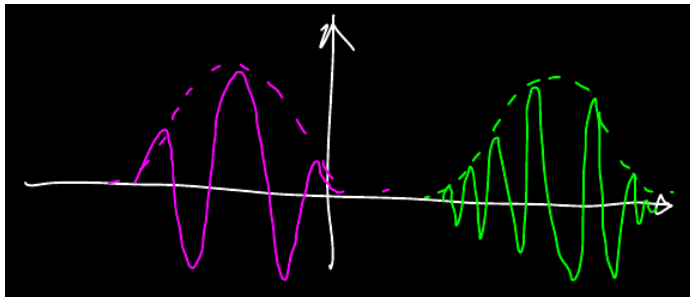
$$\phi_j(x) = \sigma\left(\frac{x - \mu_j}{s}\right), \text{ where } \sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a)}$$



Example: Fourier



Example: Wavelets



Basis Functions: Likelihood

Model:

$$\begin{aligned}t &= y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) + \epsilon \\y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) &= \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) \\p(t|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) &= \mathcal{N}(t|y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})\end{aligned}$$

Data:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X} &= \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\} \\ \mathbf{t} &= \{t_1, \dots, t_N\}\end{aligned}$$

Likelihood:

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

Basis Functions: Maximum Likelihood Solution

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ML}} = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{t},$$

by defining the **design matrix**

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

Basis Functions: Maximum Likelihood Solution

Equivalent to the linear regression solution in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$:

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ML}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{t},$$

with

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1D} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2D} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \dots & x_{ND} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Basis Functions: Maximum Likelihood Solution

Equivalent to the linear regression solution in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$:

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ML}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{t},$$

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The basis functions $\phi_j(\mathbf{x}_N)$ act as feature extraction!

Basis Functions

- equivalent to linear models using Φ instead of \mathbf{X}
- all other results hold:
 - overfitting of ML
 - regularization (MAP)
 - Bayesian models

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Bias/Variance Decomposition

- Maximum Likelihood (least squares) leads to overfitting
- limiting the complexity of the model risks to miss trends in data
- regularization helps, but we need to find value for λ

Decision theory

Under L^2 loss, best decision is conditional expectation

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}] = \int t p(t|\mathbf{x}) dt,$$

where $p(t|\mathbf{x})$ is the true (unknown) distribution

Expected Loss (theoretical distribution)

If we predict the answer with $y(\mathbf{x})$, the expected (square) loss is:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[L] &= \iint L(t, y(\mathbf{x})) p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt = \\ &= \iint \{y(\mathbf{x}) - t\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt \quad (\text{square loss})\end{aligned}$$

We can compare this to the theoretically optimal estimation $h(\mathbf{x})$

Expected Loss (theoretical distribution)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[L] &= \dots \\ &= \int \{y(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} + \quad \leftarrow \text{sub-optimal inference} \\ &\quad + \iint \{h(x) - t\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt \quad \leftarrow \text{intrinsic noise}\end{aligned}$$

Expected Loss from Data

- we do not know $p(\mathbf{x}, t)$
- we imagine we have many data sets drawn from $p(\mathbf{x}, t)$
- for every data set \mathcal{D} we obtain:
 - a model $y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})$
 - an expected loss $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[L]$
- then we can average over data sets.

Bias and Variance (single input value)

For a single value of \mathbf{x}

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [\{y(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2] &= \dots \\ &= \{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 + && (\text{bias})^2 \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [\{y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})]\}^2] && \text{variance}\end{aligned}$$

Bias and Variance (general case)

Integrating over all possible values of \mathbf{x} :

$$\text{expected loss} = (\text{bias})^2 + \text{variance} + \text{noise}$$

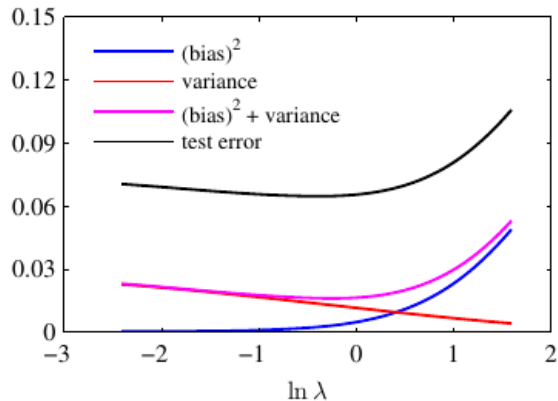
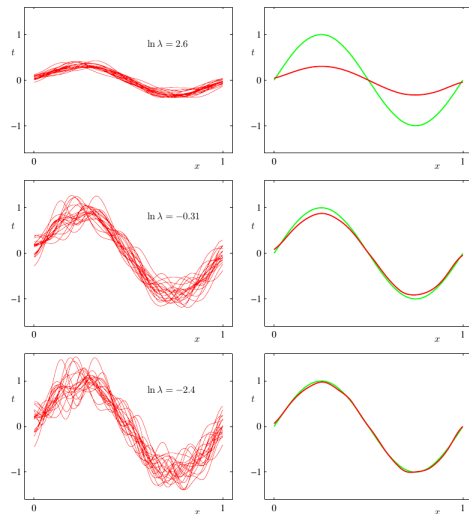
Where:

$$(\text{bias})^2 = \int \{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})] - h(\mathbf{x})\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\text{variance} = \int \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [\{y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[y(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D})]\}^2] p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$(\text{noise}) = \int \{h(\mathbf{x}) - t\}^2 p(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} dt$$

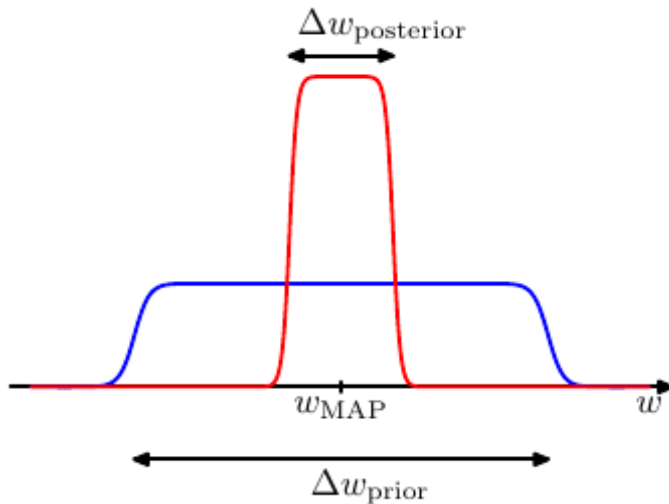
Bias/Variance Example



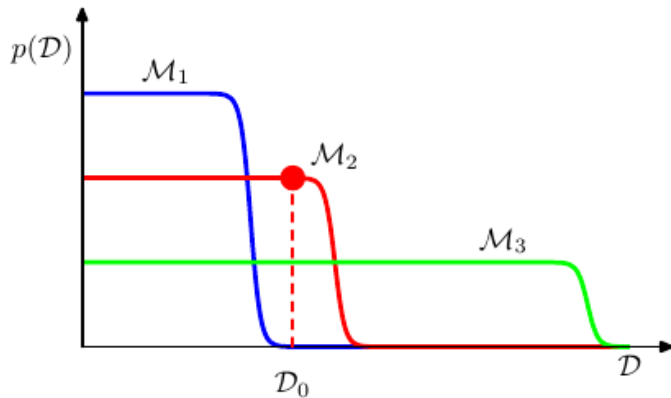
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Bayesian Model Evidence



Bayesian Model Selection



Limitation of Linear Models

- basis functions $\phi_J(\mathbf{x})$ are fixed (not trained)
- the number of basis functions grow with dimensionality of input \mathbf{x}

Solution: exploit manifold

- dimensionality reduction methods
- support vector machines
- neural networks