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Introduction to Statistical Machine Learning



### Cheng Soon Ong & Christian Walder

Introduction to Statistical Machine Learning

Machine Learning Research Group
Data61 | CSIRO
and
College of Engineering and Computer Science
The Australian National University

Canberra February – June 2019

(Many figures from C. M. Bishop, "Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning")

### Part IV

Linear Regression 2

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## Linear Regression

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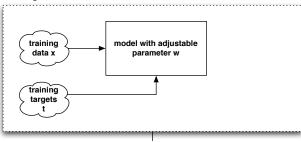
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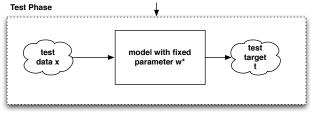
- Basis functions
- Maximum Likelihood with Gaussian Noise
- Regularisation

## Training and Testing

#### **Training Phase**



### fix the most appropriate w\*



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Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive

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$$\mathsf{posterior} = \frac{\mathsf{likelihood} \times \mathsf{prior}}{\mathsf{normalisation}} \qquad p(\mathbf{w} \,|\, \mathbf{t}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{t} \,|\, \mathbf{w}) \, p(\mathbf{w})}{p(\mathbf{t})}$$

where we left out the conditioning on x (always assumed), and  $\beta$ , which is assumed to be constant.

• likelihood for i.i.d. data ( $\beta$ , inverse variance of noise)

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{t} \mid \mathbf{w}) &= \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(t_n \mid y(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1}) \\ &= \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(t_n \mid \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n), \beta^{-1}) \\ &= \mathsf{const} \times \exp\{-\beta \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \Phi \mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{t} - \Phi \mathbf{w})\} \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t} \mid \Phi \mathbf{w}, \beta^{-1} \mathbf{I}) \end{aligned}$$

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Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

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Bayesian Regression

- Can we find a prior for the given likelihood which
  - makes sense for the problem at hand
  - allows us to find a posterior in a 'nice' form

An answer to the second question:

### Definition (Conjugate Prior)

A class of prior probability distributions p(w) is conjugate to a class of likelihood functions p(x|w) if the resulting posterior distributions  $p(w \mid x)$  are in the same family as p(w).

## Examples of Conjugate Prior Distributions

Table: Discrete likelihood distributions

Likelihood	Conjugate Prior
Bernoulli	Beta
Binomial	Beta
Poisson	Gamma
Multinomial	Dirichlet

Table: Continuous likelihood distributions

Likelihood	Conjugate Prior
Uniform	Pareto
Exponential	Gamma
Normal	Normal
Multivariate normal	Multivariate normal

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Bayesian Regression

Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Introduction to Statistical

Bayesian Regression

Posterior

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive
Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Limitations of Linear Basis Function Models

 Example: The Gaussian family is conjugate to itself with respect to a Gaussian likelihood function: if the likelihood function is Gaussian, choosing a Gaussian prior will ensure that the posterior distribution is also Gaussian.

 Given a marginal distribution for x and a conditional Gaussian distribution for y given x in the form

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$$
$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{A}x + \mathbf{b}, \boldsymbol{L}^{-1})$$

we get

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{T})$$
$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{\Sigma} \{\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}\}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$$

where 
$$\Sigma = (\Lambda + A^T L A)^{-1}$$
.



Review

Bayesian Regression

Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

roof of the Predictive listribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Limitations of Linear Basis Function Models

 $\bullet$  Choose a Gaussian prior with mean  $\boldsymbol{m}_0$  and covariance  $\boldsymbol{S}_0$ 

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

• After having seen N training data pairs  $(\mathbf{x}_n, t_n)$ , the posterior for the given likelihood is now

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

where

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

- The posterior is Gaussian, therefore mode = mean.
- The maximum posterior weight vector  $\mathbf{w}_{MAP} = \mathbf{m}_{N}$ .
- Assume infinitely broad prior  $S_0 = \alpha^{-1}I$  with  $\alpha \to 0$ , the mean reduces to the maximum likelihood  $\mathbf{w}_{ML}$ .

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- If we have not yet seen any data point (N=0), the posterior is equal to the prior.
- Sequential arrival of data points: Each posterior distribution calculated after the arrival of a data point and target value, acts as the prior distribution for the subsequent data point.
- Nicely fits a sequential learning framework.



Review

Bayesian Regression

Posterior

Predictive Distribution

rooj oj tne Predictive Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Limitations of Linear Basis Function Models

• Special simplified prior in the remainder,  $\mathbf{m}_0 = 0$  and  $\mathbf{S}_0 = \alpha^{-1} \mathbf{I}$ .

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid \alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} \mid 0, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I})$$

• The parameters of the posterior distribution  $p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{t}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{m}_N, \mathbf{S}_N)$  are now

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

ullet For lpha o 0 we get

$$\mathbf{m}_N \to \mathbf{w}_{ML} = (\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi})^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{t}$$

Log of posterior is sum of log likelihood and log of prior

$$\ln p(\mathbf{w} \,|\, \mathbf{t}) = -\frac{\beta}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w}) - \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \text{const}$$



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Log of posterior is sum of log likelihood and log of prior

$$\ln p(\mathbf{w} \,|\, \mathbf{t}) = -\, eta \, \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w})}_{ ext{sum-of-squares-error}} - \frac{lpha}{2} \, \underbrace{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}_{ ext{quadr. regulariser}} + ext{const}$$

 Maximising the posterior distribution with respect to w corresponds to minimising the sum-of-squares error function with the addition of a quadratic regularisation term  $\lambda = \alpha/\beta$ .

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Posterior

- Example of a linear basis function model
- Single input x, single output t
- Linear model  $y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x$ .
- Data creation
  - Choose an  $x_n$  from the uniform distribution  $\mathcal{U}(x \mid -1, 1)$ .
  - ② Calculate  $f(x_n, \mathbf{a}) = a_0 + a_1 x_n$ , where  $a_0 = -0.3$ ,  $a_1 = 0.5$ .
  - **a** Add Gaussian noise with standard deviation  $\sigma = 0.2$ ,

$$t_n = \mathcal{N}(x_n | f(x_n, \mathbf{a}), 0.04)$$

• Set the precision of the uniform prior to  $\alpha = 2.0$ .

# Sequential Update of the Posterior



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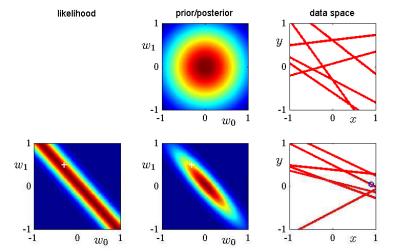
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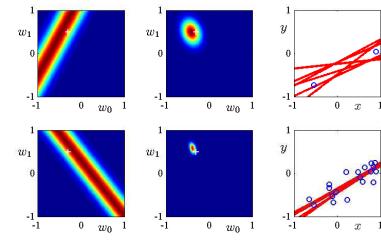
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- In the training phase, data x and targets t are provided
- In the test phase, a new data value x is given and the corresponding target value t is asked for
- Bayesian approach: Find the probability of the test target t given the test data x, the training data x and the training targets t

$$p(t | x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$$

This is the Predictive Distribution.

Predictive Distribution

 $\bullet$  Introduce the model parameter w via the sum rule

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

 The test target t depends only on the test data x and the model parameter w, but not on the training data and the training targets

$$p(t \mid \mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = p(t \mid \mathbf{w}, x)$$

 The model parameter w are learned with the training data x and the training targets t only

$$p(\mathbf{w} \mid x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$$

Predictive Distribution

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

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Review

Bayesian Regression

Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

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 How to prove the Predictive Distribution in the general form?

$$p(t \mid x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \int p(t \mid \mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) p(\mathbf{w} \mid x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{w}$$

 Convert each conditional probability on the right-hand-side into a joint probability.

$$\int p(t \mid \mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) p(\mathbf{w} \mid x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \int \frac{p(t, \mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}{p(\mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})} \frac{p(\mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}{p(x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})} d\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \int \frac{p(t, \mathbf{w}, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}{p(x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})} d\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \frac{p(t, x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}{p(x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}$$

$$= p(t \mid x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$$

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Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive
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Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

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Find the predictive distribution

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

(remember : The conditioning on the input variables x is often suppressed to simplify the notation.)

Now we know

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

• and the posterior was

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

where

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

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Sequentiai Opaate of t Posterior

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Proof of the Predictive
Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior



 If we do the convolution of the two Gaussians, we get for the predictive distribution

$$p(t \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(t \mid \mathbf{m}_N^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_N^2(\mathbf{x}))$$

where the variance  $\sigma_N^2(\mathbf{x})$  is given by

$$\sigma_N^2(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_N \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}).$$

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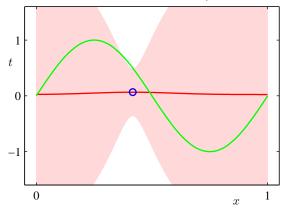
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Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Example with artificial sinusoidal data from  $\sin(2\pi x)$  (green) and added noise. Number of data points N=1.



Mean of the predictive distribution (red) and regions of one standard deviation from mean (red shaded).

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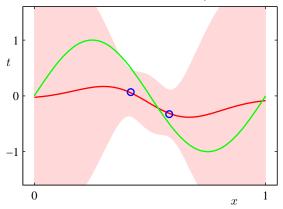
Sequential Update of the Posterior

rrealctive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive
Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Example with artificial sinusoidal data from  $\sin(2\pi x)$  (green) and added noise. Number of data points N=2.



Mean of the predictive distribution (red) and regions of one standard deviation from mean (red shaded).

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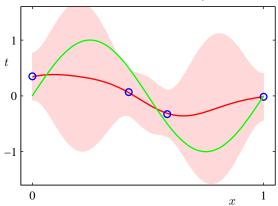
Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive
Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Example with artificial sinusoidal data from  $\sin(2\pi x)$  (green) and added noise. Number of data points N=4.



Mean of the predictive distribution (red) and regions of one standard deviation from mean (red shaded).

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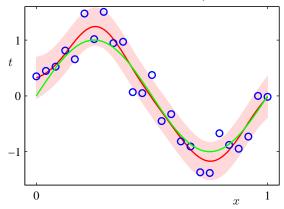
Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

roof of the Predictive Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Example with artificial sinusoidal data from  $\sin(2\pi x)$  (green) and added noise. Number of data points N=25.



Mean of the predictive distribution (red) and regions of one standard deviation from mean (red shaded).

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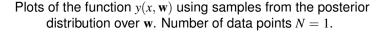
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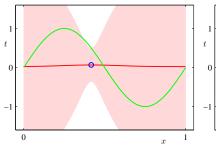
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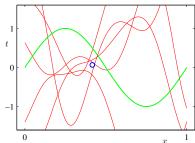


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with Simplified Prior



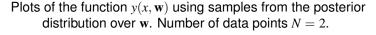


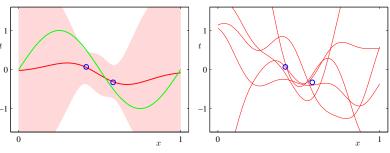


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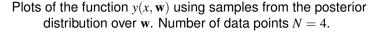


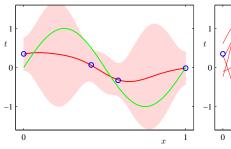
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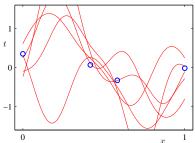














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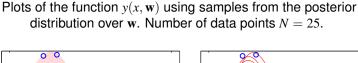
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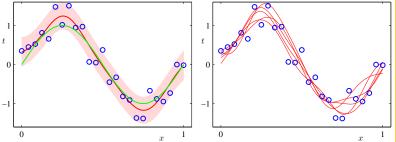
Sequential Update of the

Predictive Distribution

Proof of the Predictive

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior





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- Basis function  $\phi_i(\mathbf{x})$  are fixed before the training data set is observed.
- Curse of dimensionality: Number of basis function grows rapidly, often exponentially, with the dimensionality D.
- But typical data sets have two nice properties which can be exploited if the basis functions are not fixed:
  - Data lie close to a nonlinear manifold with intrinsic dimension much smaller than D. Need algorithms which place basis functions only where data are (e.g. radial basis function networks, support vector machines, relevance vector machines, neural networks).
  - Target variables may only depend on a few significant directions within the data manifold. Need algorithms which can exploit this property (Neural networks).



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Sequential Update of the Posterior

realctive Distribution

Distribution

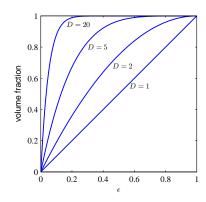
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- Linear Algebra allows us to operate in n-dimensional vector spaces using the intution from our 3-dimensional world as a vector space. No surprises as long as n is finite.
- If we add more structure to a vector space (e.g. inner product, metric), our intution gained from the 3-dimensional world around us may be wrong.
- Example: Sphere of radius r=1. What is the fraction of the volume of the sphere in a D-dimensional space which lies between radius r=1 and  $r=1-\epsilon$ ?
- Volume scales like  $r^D$ , therefore the formula for the volume of a sphere is  $V_D(r) = K_D r^D$ .

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

• Fraction of the volume of the sphere in a D-dimensional space which lies between radius r=1 and  $r=1-\epsilon$ 

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



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Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

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Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior



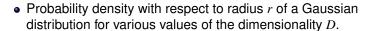
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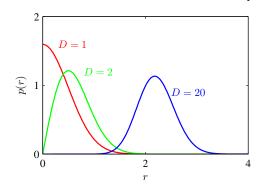
Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

roof of the Predictive Distribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior







Review

Bayesian Regression

Sequential Update of the Posterior

Predictive Distribution

istribution

Predictive Distribution with Simplified Prior

Limitations of Linear Basis Function Models

• Example: D=2; assume  $\mu=0, \Sigma=I$ 

$$\mathcal{N}(x \mid 0, I) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}x^{T}x\right\} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2})\right\}$$

Coordinate transformation

$$x_1 = r\cos(\phi)$$
  $x_2 = r\sin(\phi)$ 

Probability in the new coordinates

$$p(r, \phi | 0, I) = \mathcal{N}(r(x), \phi(x) | 0, I) | J |$$

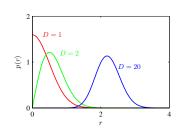
where |J|=r is the determinant of the Jacobian for the given coordinate transformation.

$$p(r, \phi \mid 0, I) = \frac{1}{2\pi} r \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}r^2\right\}$$

$$p(r, \phi \mid 0, I) = \frac{1}{2\pi} r \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}r^2\right\}$$

• Integrate over all angles  $\phi$ 

$$p(r \mid 0, I) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2\pi} r \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}r^2\right\} d\phi = r \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}r^2\right\}$$



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### Summary: Linear Regression

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Limitations of Linear

**Basis Function Models** 

- Basis functions
- Maximum likelihood with Gaussian noise
- Regularisation
- Bayesian linear regression
- Conjugate prior
- Seguential update of the posterior
- Predictive distribution
- Curse of dimensionality