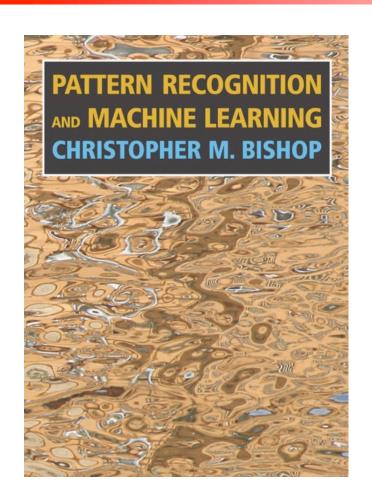
Regression: a Probabilistic View

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Office Hour: Thursday 3-4pm

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Reference



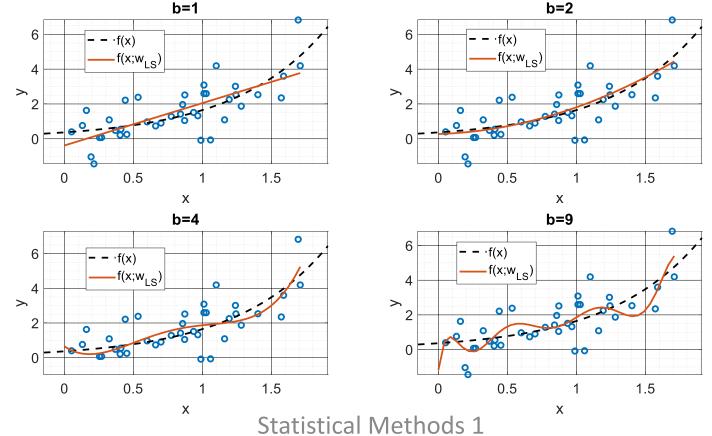
Today's class *roughly* follows Chapter 1.

Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning

Christopher Bishop, 2006

The Overfitting Issue...

- Last class, we faced a dilemma:
 - By using poly. feature, we can increase the flexibility of f(x; w).
 - The increased flexibility may also cause overfitting...



- Large b causes overfitting
 - Pick a smaller b to avoid overfitting (using CV).
- What if we want to use a larger b?
 - We want the flexibility provided by high order polynomials.
- One trick we can do is called **regularization**.

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{LS-R}} \coloneqq \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i \in D} [y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})]^2 + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w}$$

- By adding a regularization term to LS Error.
- Note: $\lambda > 0$.

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{LS-R}} \coloneqq \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i \in D} [y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})]^2 + \lambda \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

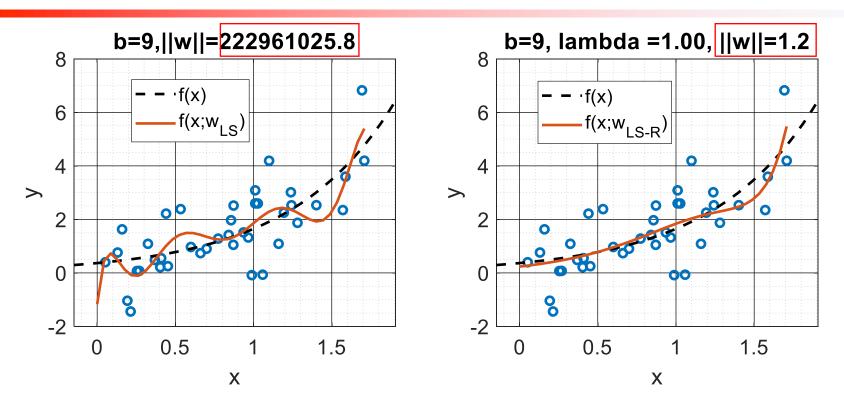
- $w^T w$ is the magnitude of w
- Regularization term discourages w taking large values.

Why does the regularization help overcome overfitting?

- Prove that if regularization term is $\lambda w^{\top} w$,
- $\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{LS-R}} \coloneqq (\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{X})\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{X})^{\mathsf{T}} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}$,
 - $I \in \mathbb{R}^{b \times b}$ is identity matrix.

- $\lim_{\lambda\to\infty} w_{\rm LS-R} = 0$.
 - $\lim_{\lambda \to \infty} f(x; \mathbf{w}_{LS-R}) = 0.$
 - As you enlarge λ , coefficients in $w_{\rm LS-R}$ get smaller and smaller.
 - As you enlarge λ , $f(x; w_{LS-R})$ get flatter and flatter.
 - Which in turn reduces the complexity of $f(x; w_{LS-R})$

Example



• $f(x; w_{LS-R})$ is much less squiggly than $f(x; w_{LS})$ See PRML, Table 1.2 for another example

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{LS-R}} \coloneqq \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i \in D} [y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})]^2 + \lambda \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$

- Regularization term does not have to be $w^T w$
- For example, $\sum_i |w_i|$, i.e. $||w||_1$ can be used too!
- $||w||_1$ and $\sqrt{w^T w}$ are called "norms".

Norms

- Norms are widely used in machine learning.
- a generalization of the concept "length" in Euclidean spac.
 - $\sqrt{w^T w}$ is the Euclidian distance from w to the origin.
- To become a norm, a function t must satisfy
 - If t(x) = 0, then x = 0
 - $t(x) + t(y) \ge t(x + y)$, Triangle Inequality
 - $t(a \cdot x) = |a| \cdot t(x)$

Matrix cookbook, page 60, 61, 62.

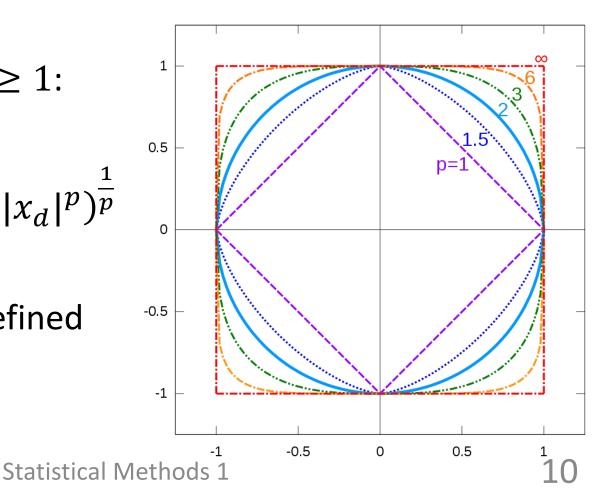
L^p norms

• An important class of norms is called L^p norm.

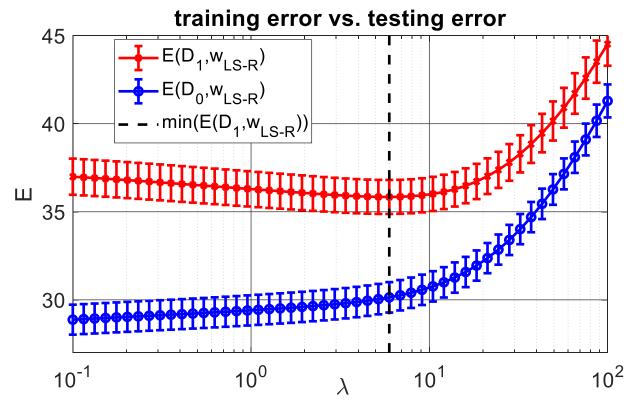
• L^p norm for a real $p \ge 1$:

•
$$||x||_p := (|x_1|^p + \cdots |x_d|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

• Right: Unit "circle" defined by different L^p norms.



λ and Generalization



 $D = D_0 \cup D_1$

 D_0 : Training set

 D_1 : Testing set

• Before the dash line, increasing λ reduces overfitting. After the dash line, increasing λ encourages underfitting.

See PRML, Figure 1.8

Problem of Regularization

- How do you choose λ ?
- If we have plenty of i.i.d. data, we may choose a λ that minimizes the validation error using CV.
- However, what if we only have limited data.

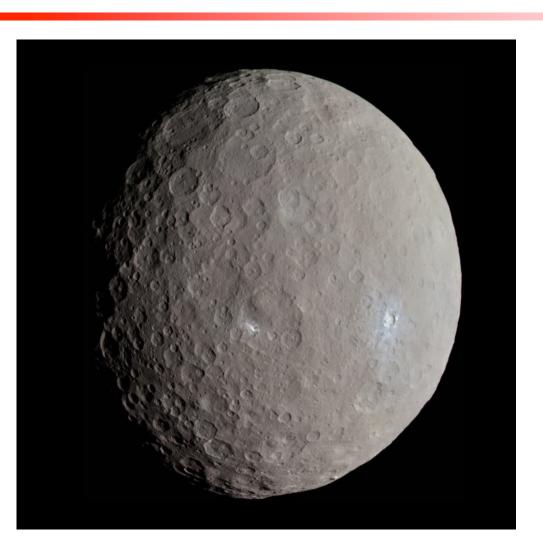
• Frequentist approach does not offer a straightforward way for tuning λ . To choose λ we need to adopt a probabilistic view of regression problem.

Inverse Problems

- Many data science problems are inverse problems.
- We have a dataset of noisy observations D
- We want to identify some latent, unobserved data generating mechanism.

- In regression, we observe y_i which is supposedly generated by
- $y_i = g(x_i) + \epsilon$, where ϵ is some noise.
- We are interested in finding the latent function g.

The Prediction of Ceres



Inverse Problems and Posterior

- The key of solving inverse problem is to inferposterior probability distributrion p(g|D).
 - The word "posterior" comes from the fact that p(g|D) is a probability obtained AFTER we observe D.
 - pp. 17, PRML
- The probability of a latent, data generating mechanism, g, given our dataset D.
- Problem: How do we obtain that posterior?

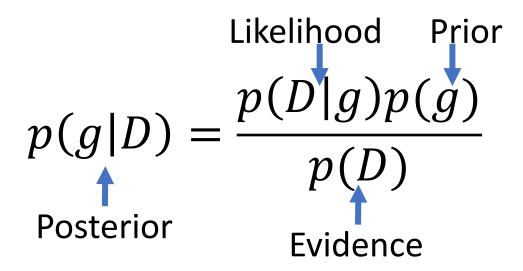
Bayes' Rule (or Law, Theorem)

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- You can calculate a conditional probability given its "inverse probability".
- This theorem plays a key role in Bayesian statistics.
- Let us see how it helps us to obtain posterior p(g|D).

Inverting the Posterior by Bayes' Rule

Using Bayes' Rule, we know



- p(g) is called prior: the belief of our data generation mechanism g BEFORE the observation.
- p(D|g) is called likelihood as it shows how likely we observe a specific dataset D given a data generator g.

Regression using Bayes' Rule

- In regression, we want to infer p(g|D), where g is the data generating function:
- $y_i = g(x_i) + \epsilon$.
- Suppose g admits a parametric form g(x) = f(x; w), we only need to consider the parameter w.
 - Once **w** is determined, f is determined.
- Task: Infer p(w|D)
- Bayes' Rule: $p(w|D) = \frac{p(D|w)p(w)}{p(D)}$

Regression using Bayes' Rule

- Task: Infer p(w|D)
- Bayes' Rule: $p(w|D) = \frac{p(D|w)p(w)}{p(D)}$
- If we assume ϵ is drawn from a Normal dist and D is IID:
- $p(D|\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i \in D} p(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i \in D} N_{y_i}(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \sigma^2)$
- To compute the Bayes' rule, we also need a prior p(w).
- For now, we just use a Normal dist., $p(\mathbf{w}) = N_{\mathbf{w}}(0, \sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2 \mathbf{I})$.

•
$$p(\mathbf{w}|D) = \frac{\prod_{i \in D} N_{y_i}(f(\mathbf{x}_i;\mathbf{w}),\sigma^2) \cdot N_{\mathbf{w}}(0,\sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2\mathbf{I})}{P(D)}$$

Maximum A Posteriori (MAP)

•
$$p(\mathbf{w}|D) = \frac{\prod_{i \in D} N_{y_i}(f(x_i;\mathbf{w}),\sigma^2) \cdot N_{\mathbf{w}}(0,\sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2 \mathbf{I})}{P(D)}$$

- How to make a prediction?
 - Find a w that is the most likely given our dataset D!
- To get a single w, we can perform a maximization of p(w|D) with respect to w.
- This procedure is called Maximum A Posteriori (MAP)

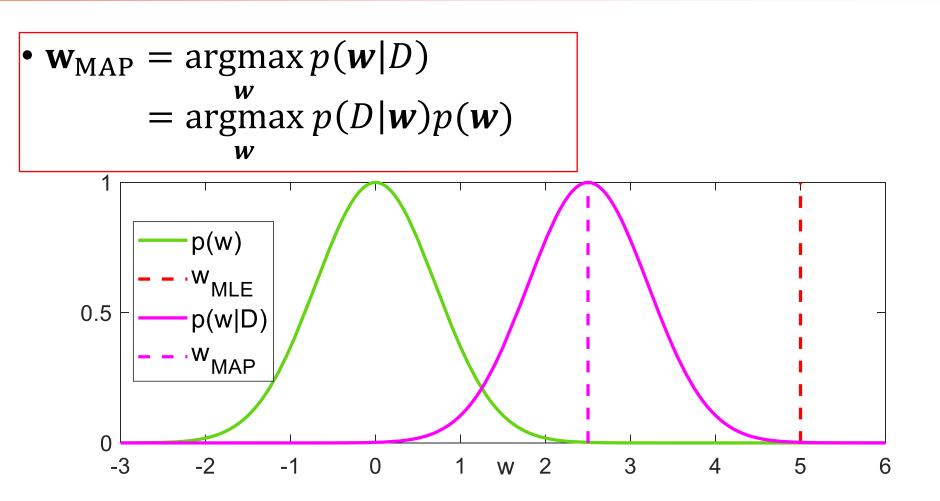
•
$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{MAP}}$$
: = $\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\mathbf{w}|D)$
= $\underset{i \in D}{\operatorname{argmax}} N_{y_i}(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \sigma^2) \cdot N_{\mathbf{w}}(0, \sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2 \mathbf{I})$

Maximum A Posteriori (MAP)

Prove,
$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{MAP}} = \mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{LS-R}}$$
 using $\lambda = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2}$.

• After getting $w_{\rm MAP}$, we can plug it in $f(x; w_{\rm MAP})$ to make predictions.

MAP vs. MLE



A Full Probabilistic Approach

- However, why settle with a single w when you already have access to p(w|D)?
- Using MAP to obtain a single w for prediction **ignores** the uncertainty information represented in p(w|D).

• If not getting a single w, how do we make prediction using a probability p(w|D)?

A Full Probabilistic Approach

- Instead of making a single prediction \hat{y} given an x.
- We can calculate the predictive distribution $p(\hat{y}|x,D)$,
 - Probability of \hat{y} given our dataset and x.
- We know
- $p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x}, D) = \int p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}|D)d\mathbf{w}$, (why?)
- Calculate $p(\hat{y}|x,D)$ as a marginalized probability.
- How can we calculate the predictive distribution?
- We can assume $p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = N_{\hat{y}}(f(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}),\sigma^2)$
- We can calculate p(w|D) up to a constant p(D)

Calculating Predictive Distribution

likelihood prio

•
$$p(\mathbf{w}|D) \propto \prod_{i \in D} N_{y_i}(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \sigma^2) \cdot N_{\mathbf{w}}(0, \sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2 \mathbf{I})$$

- $p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = N_{\hat{y}}(f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}), \sigma^2)$
- Suppose $f(x; w) = \langle w, \phi(x) \rangle$
- Prove:
- $\int p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) \cdot p(\mathbf{w}|D)d\mathbf{w} = N_{\hat{y}} \left[f(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{w}_{LS-R}), \sigma^2 + \boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x})\sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{\phi} \boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathsf{T}} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_w^2} \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) \right]$
- Where $m{\phi}$ is short for $m{\phi}(m{X})$, and $m{w}_{\rm LS-R}$ is the LS-R solution with $\lambda=\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_w^2}$.

The Predictive Distribution

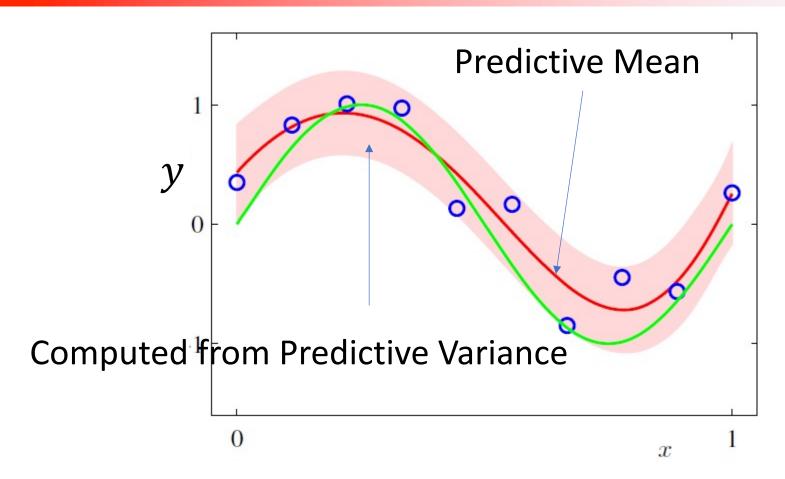
•
$$p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x}, D) = \int p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \cdot p(\mathbf{w}|D) d\mathbf{w} = N_{\hat{y}} \left[f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}_{LS-R}), \sigma^2 + \boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x}) \sigma^2 \left(\boldsymbol{\phi} \boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathsf{T}} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^2} \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) \right]$$

- The mean of $p(\hat{y}|x,D)$ is the LS-R prediction!
- The idea of regularization naturally arises from both probabilistic modelling approaches.

A Full Probabilistic Approach

- With the predictive distribution $p(\hat{y}|x,D)$, we can compute:
- Prediction: $\mathbb{E}_{p(\widehat{y}|\boldsymbol{x},D)}[\widehat{y}|\boldsymbol{x}]$,
- Prediction uncertainty: $var_{p(\hat{y}|x,D)}[\hat{y}|x]$.
- We can also use the predictive distribution to calculate other interesting expected values, as we will see later.

Example: $p(\hat{y}|x,D)$



• PRML, Figure 1.17

Conclusion

- We looked at "Regularized LS" from three different perspectives:
 - Regularized LS (Frequentist)
 - MAP (Semi-Bayesian)
 - Probabilistic Approach (Full Bayesian)

- However, we still have not incorporated an important concept, risk function, in our decision making process.
 - Recall, making wrong decisions has different consequences.
- Next, we talk about statistical decision making.
 - We will finally wrap up Chapter 1, PRML.

Homework

- Prove the statement on page 6
- Revisit: "The solution of $w_{\rm LS}$ is useless if n < d."
 - Is this statement still true for w_{LS-R} ?

- Prove the statement on page 21
- Prove the statement on page 25