

Advanced Machine Learning Lecture 2

Linear Regression

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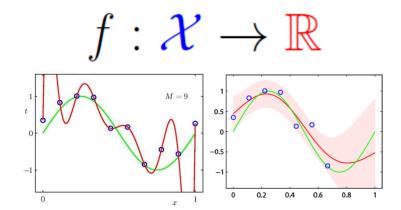
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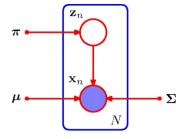
This Lecture: Advanced Machine Learning

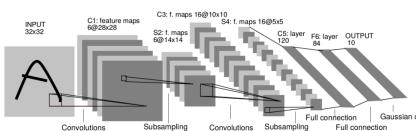
- Regression Approaches
 - > Linear Regression
 - Regularization (Ridge, Lasso)
 - Gaussian Processes



- EM and Generalizations
- Approximate Inference
- Deep Learning
 - Neural Networks
 - CNNs, RNNs, RBMs, etc.









Topics of This Lecture

- Recap: Important Concepts from ML Lecture
 - Probability Theory
 - Bayes Decision Theory
 - Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Bayesian Estimation
- A Probabilistic View on Regression
 - Least-Squares Estimation as Maximum Likelihood
 - Predictive Distribution
 - Maximum-A-Posteriori (MAP) Estimation
 - Bayesian Curve Fitting
- Discussion



Recap: The Rules of Probability

Basic rules

Sum Rule

$$p(X) = \sum_{Y} p(X, Y)$$

Product Rule

$$p(X,Y) = p(Y|X)p(X)$$

From those, we can derive

Bayes' Theorem
$$p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{p(X)}$$

where

$$p(X) = \sum_{Y} p(X|Y)p(Y)$$

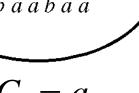


Concept 1: Priors (a priori probabilities)

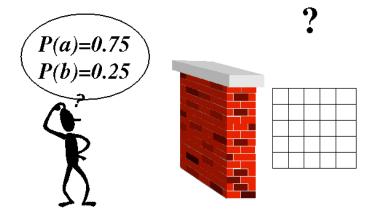
$$p(C_k)$$

- What we can tell about the probability before seeing the data.
- **Example:**





$$C_1 = a$$
$$C_2 = b$$



$$p(C_1) = 0.75$$

$$p(C_1) = 0.75$$
$$p(C_2) = 0.25$$

• In general:
$$\sum_{k} p(C_k) = 1$$

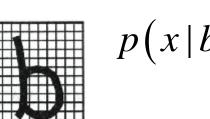


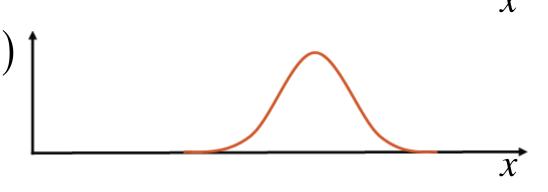
Concept 2: Conditional probabilities



- Let x be a feature vector.
- $\rightarrow x$ measures/describes certain properties of the input.
 - E.g. number of black pixels, aspect ratio, ...
- $p(x|C_k)$ describes its likelihood for class C_k .







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Concept 3: Posterior probabilities

$$p(C_k \mid x)$$

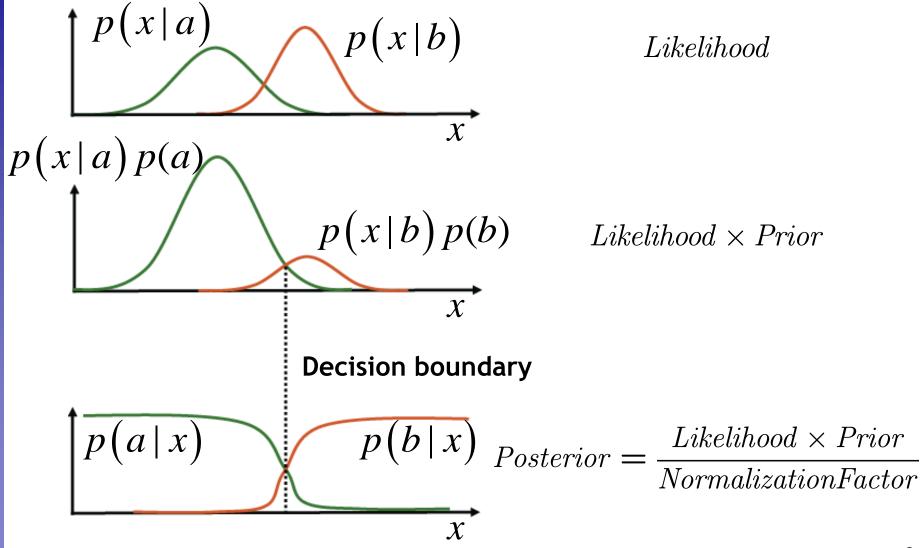
- We are typically interested in the *a posteriori* probability, i.e. the probability of class C_k given the measurement vector x.
- Bayes' Theorem:

$$p(C_k | x) = \frac{p(x | C_k) p(C_k)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x | C_k) p(C_k)}{\sum_i p(x | C_i) p(C_i)}$$

Interpretation

$$Posterior = \frac{Likelihood \times Prior}{Normalization \ Factor}$$





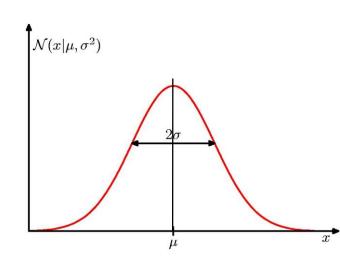
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Recap: Gaussian (or Normal) Distribution

One-dimensional case

- \blacktriangleright Mean μ
- > Variance σ^2

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



Multi-dimensional case

- ightharpoonup Mean μ
- \triangleright Covariance Σ

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}$$

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Side Note

Notation

> In many situations, it will be preferable to work with the inverse of the covariance matrix Σ :

$$oldsymbol{\Lambda} = oldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$$

- ightarrow We call Λ the precision matrix.
- We can therefore also write the Gaussian as

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

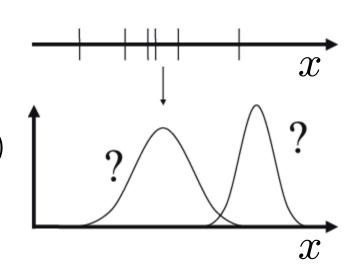
$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{-1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}$$



Recap: Parametric Methods

Given

- ullet Data $X=\{x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_N\}$
- > Parametric form of the distribution with parameters θ
- $ilde{}$ E.g. for Gaussian distrib.: $heta=(\mu,\sigma)$



Learning

 \succ Estimation of the parameters θ

• Likelihood of heta

> Probability that the data X have indeed been generated from a probability density with parameters θ

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta)$$



Recap: Maximum Likelihood Approach

- Computation of the likelihood
 - > Single data point: $p(x_n|\theta) = \mathcal{N}(x_n|\mu,\sigma^2)$
 - Assumption: all data points $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ are independent

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|\theta)$$

Log-likelihood

$$E(\theta) = -\ln L(\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(x_n | \theta)$$

- Estimation of the parameters θ (Learning)
 - Maximize the likelihood (=minimize the negative log-likelihood)
 - \Rightarrow Take the derivative and set it to zero.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} E(\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} p(x_n | \theta)}{p(x_n | \theta)} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

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Recap: Maximum Likelihood Approach

 Applying ML to estimate the parameters of a Gaussian, we obtain

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$

"sample mean"

In a similar fashion, we get

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

"sample variance"

- $\hat{\theta}=(\hat{\mu},\hat{\sigma})$ is the Maximum Likelihood estimate for the parameters of a Gaussian distribution.
- This is a very important result.
- Unfortunately, it is biased...



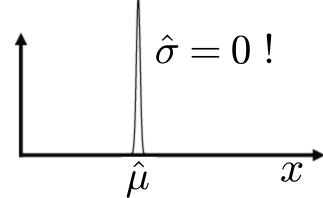
Recap: Maximum Likelihood - Limitations

- Maximum Likelihood has several significant limitations
 - > It systematically underestimates the variance of the distribution!
 - E.g. consider the case

$$N = 1, X = \{x_1\}$$

 \overline{x}

⇒ Maximum-likelihood estimate:



- We say ML overfits to the observed data.
- We will still often use ML, but it is important to know about this effect.



Recap: Deeper Reason

- Maximum Likelihood is a Frequentist concept
 - > In the Frequentist view, probabilities are the frequencies of random, repeatable events.
 - > These frequencies are fixed, but can be estimated more precisely when more data is available.
- This is in contrast to the Bayesian interpretation
 - In the Bayesian view, probabilities quantify the uncertainty about certain states or events.
 - This uncertainty can be revised in the light of new evidence.
- Bayesians and Frequentists do not like each other too well...

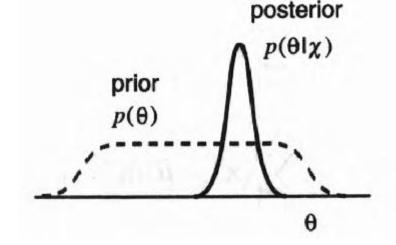




Recap: Bayesian Approach to Learning

Conceptual shift

- > Maximum Likelihood views the true parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to be unknown, but fixed.
- > In Bayesian learning, we consider θ to be a random variable.
- This allows us to use knowledge about the parameters heta
 - ightharpoonup i.e. to use a prior for heta
 - > Training data then converts this prior distribution on θ into a posterior probability density.



> The prior thus encodes knowledge we have about the type of distribution we expect to see for θ .



Recap: Bayesian Learning Approach

- Bayesian view:
 - \succ Consider the parameter vector heta as a random variable.
 - > When estimating the parameters, what we compute is

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x,\theta|X)d\theta \qquad \text{Assumption: given θ, this doesn't depend on X anymore} \\ p(x,\theta|X) = p(x|\theta,X)p(\theta|X)$$

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta$$

This is entirely determined by the parameter θ (i.e. by the parametric form of the pdf).



Recap: Bayesian Learning Approach

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta$$

$$p(\theta|X) = \frac{p(X|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)} = \frac{p(\theta)}{p(X)}L(\theta)$$

$$p(X) = \int p(X|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta = \int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$$

Inserting this above, we obtain

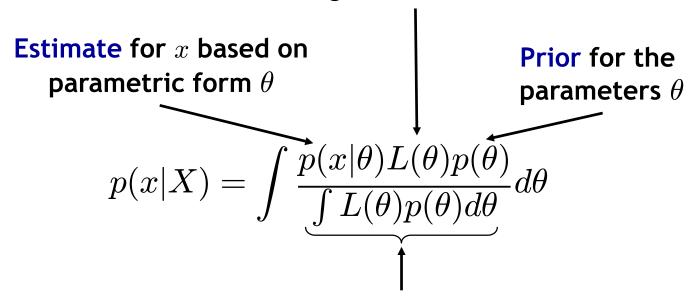
$$p(x|X) = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)}d\theta = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}d\theta$$



Recap: Bayesian Learning Approach

Discussion

Likelihood of the parametric form θ given the data set X.



Normalization: integrate over all possible values of θ

> The more uncertain we are about θ , the more we average over all possible parameter values.



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Curve Fitting Revisited

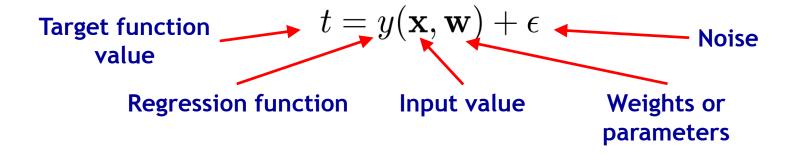
- In the last lecture, we've looked at curve fitting in terms of error minimization...
- Now: View the problem from a probabilistic perspective
 - ightharpoonup Goal is to make predictions for target variable t given new value for input variable x.
 - Basis: training set $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_N)^T$ with target values $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, ..., t_N)^T$.
 - We express our uncertainty over the value of the target variable using a probability distribution

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



Probabilistic Regression

- First assumption:
 - Our target function values t are generated by adding noise to the ideal function estimate:

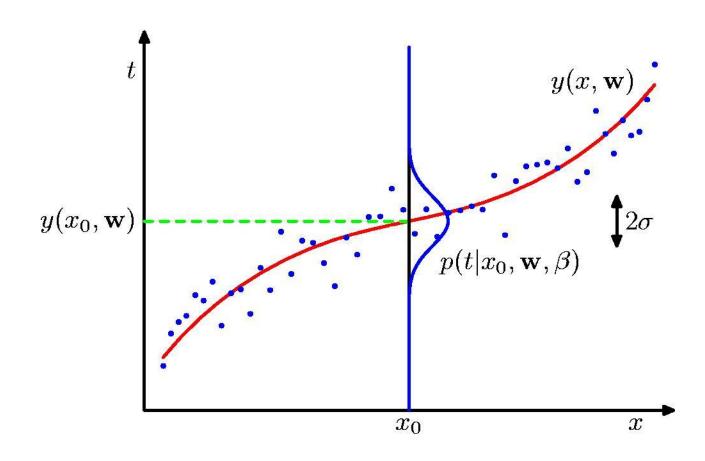


- Second assumption:
 - The noise is Gaussian distributed.

$$p(t|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w},\beta) = \mathcal{N}(t|y(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}),\beta^{-1})$$
 Mean Variance (β precision)



Visualization: Gaussian Noise





Probabilistic Regression

- Given
 - Training data points:
 - Associated function values:

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$$

 $\mathbf{t} = [t_1, \dots, t_n]^T$

Conditional likelihood (assuming i.i.d. data)

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

 \Rightarrow Maximize w.r.t. w, β

Generalized linear regression function



Maximum Likelihood Regression

Simplify the log-likelihood

$$\log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \mathcal{N}(t_n|y(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

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

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[\log \left(\frac{\sqrt{\beta}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right) - \frac{\beta}{2} \left\{ y(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n \right\}^2 \right]$$

$$= -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - y(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w})\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \log \beta - \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

Sum-of-squares error

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Constants



Maximum Likelihood Regression

$$\log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - y(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) \right\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \log \beta - \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

$$= -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \log \beta - \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

Gradient w.r.t. w:

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



regression!

Maximum Likelihood Regression

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

Setting the gradient to zero:

$$0 = -\beta \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)) \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{N} t_n \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) = \left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \right] \mathbf{w}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{w} \qquad \mathbf{\Phi} = [\phi(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{ML}} = (\mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{t} \qquad \mathsf{Same as in least-squares}$$

⇒ Least-squares regression is equivalent to Maximum Likelihood under the assumption of Gaussian noise.



Role of the Precision Parameter

• Also use ML to determine the precision parameter β :

$$\log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \log \beta - \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

• Gradient w.r.t. β :

$$\nabla_{\beta} \log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2 + \frac{N}{2} \frac{1}{\beta}$$

$$\frac{1}{\beta_{\text{ML}}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2$$

⇒ The inverse of the noise precision is given by the residual variance of the target values around the regression function.



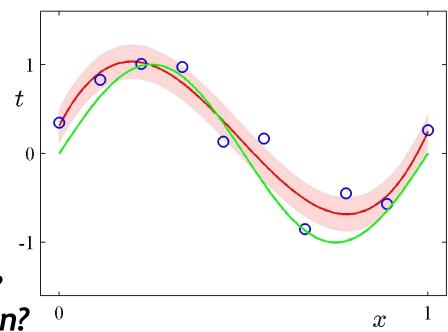
Predictive Distribution

• Having determined the parameters w and β , we can now make predictions for new values of x.

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

- This means
 - Rather than giving a point estimate, we can now also give an estimate of the estimation uncertainty.

What else can we do in the Bayesian view of regression?



MAP: A Step Towards Bayesian Estimation...

- Introduce a prior distribution over the coefficients w.
 - > For simplicity, assume a zero-mean Gaussian distribution

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

- > New hyperparameter α controls the distribution of model parameters.
- Express the posterior distribution over w.
 - Using Bayes' theorem:

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

- We can now determine w by maximizing the posterior.
- This technique is called maximum-a-posteriori (MAP).



MAP Solution

Minimize the negative logarithm

$$-\log p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}, \beta, \alpha) \propto -\log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) - \log p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)$$
$$-\log p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(\mathbf{x}_{n}, \mathbf{w}) - t_{n}\}^{2} + \text{const}$$
$$-\log p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) = \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{w} + \text{const}$$

The MAP solution is therefore the solution of

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

 \Rightarrow Maximizing the posterior distribution is equivalent to minimizing the regularized sum-of-squares error (with $\lambda = \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$).

Results of Probabilistic View on Regression

- Better understanding what linear regression means
 - Least-squares regression is equivalent to ML estimation under the assumption of Gaussian noise.
 - ⇒ We can use the predictive distribution to give an uncertainty estimate on the prediction.
 - ⇒ But: known problem with ML that it tends towards overfitting.
 - L2-regularized regression (Ridge regression) is equivalent to MAP estimation with a Gaussian prior on the parameters w.
 - \Rightarrow The prior controls the parameter values to reduce overfitting.
 - \Rightarrow This gives us a tool to explore more general priors.
- But still no full Bayesian Estimation yet
 - Should integrate over all values of w instead of just making a point estimate.



Bayesian Curve Fitting

Given

Training data points:

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$$

Associated function values:

$$\mathbf{t} = [t_1, \dots, t_n]^T$$

- > Our goal is to predict the value of t for a new point ${\bf x}$.
- Evaluate the predictive distribution

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

What we just computed for MAP

Noise distribition - again assume a Gaussian here

$$p(t|x, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(t|y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

- Assume that parameters lpha and eta are fixed and known for now.



Bayesian Curve Fitting

 Under those assumptions, the posterior distribution is a Gaussian and can be evaluated analytically:

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

where the mean and variance are given by

$$m(x) = \beta \phi(x)^T \mathbf{S} \sum_{n=1}^N \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) t_n$$

$$s(x)^2 = \beta^{-1} + \phi(x)^T \mathbf{S}\phi(x)$$

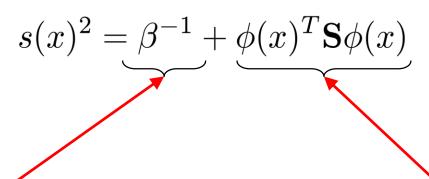
> and S is the regularized covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{S}^{-1} = \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T$$



Analyzing the result

Analyzing the variance of the predictive distribution

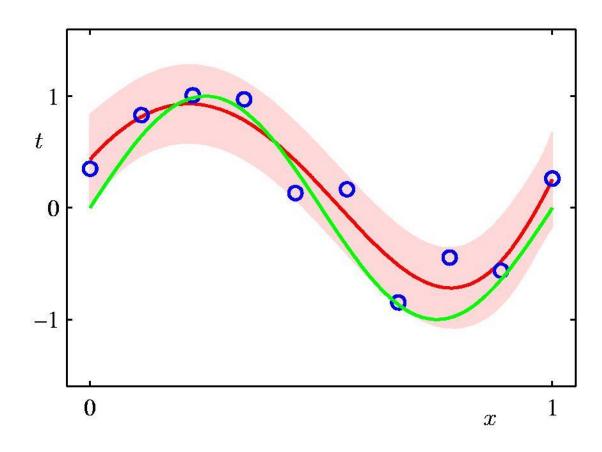


Uncertainty in the predicted value due to noise on the target variables (expressed already in ML)

Uncertainty in the parameters w (consequence of Bayesian treatment)



Bayesian Predictive Distribution



- Important difference to previous example
 - Uncertainty may vary with test point x!



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Discussion

- We now have a better understanding of regression
 - Least-squares regression: Assumption of Gaussian noise
 - ⇒ We can now also plug in different noise models and explore how they affect the error function.
 - > L2 regularization as a Gaussian prior on parameters w.
 - ⇒ We can now also use different regularizers and explore what they mean.
 - ⇒ Next lecture...
 - > General formulation with basis functions $\phi(\mathbf{x})$.
 - ⇒ We can now also use different basis functions.



Discussion

- General regression formulation
 - In principle, we can perform regression in arbitrary spaces and with many different types of basis functions
 - However, there is a caveat... Can you see what it is?
- Example: Polynomial curve fitting, $M\!=\!3$

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

- \Rightarrow Number of coefficients grows with D^{M} !
- \Rightarrow The approach becomes quickly unpractical for high dimensions.
- > This is known as the curse of dimensionality.
- We will encounter some ways to deal with this later.



References and Further Reading

 More information on linear regression can be found in Chapters 1.2.5-1.2.6 and 3.1-3.1.4 of

Christopher M. Bishop
Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning
Springer, 2006

