## LINEAR REGRESSION

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# Some of these slides were sourced and/or modified from:

Christopher Bishop, Microsoft UK



#### **Relevant Problems from Murphy**

Probability & Bayesian Inference

□ 7.4, 7.6, 7.7, **7.9** 

Please do 7.9 at least. We will discuss the solution in class.



## Linear Regression Topics

- □ What is linear regression?
- Example: polynomial curve fitting
- Other basis families
- Solving linear regression problems
- Regularized regression
- Multiple linear regression
- Bayesian linear regression



## What is Linear Regression?

- □ In classification, we seek to identify the **categorical** class  $C_k$  associate with a given input vector **x**.
- In regression, we seek to identify (or estimate) a continuous variable y associated with a given input vector x.
- □ y is called the **dependent variable**.
- **x** is called the **independent variable**.
- $\Box$  If y is a vector, we call this multiple regression.
- $\Box$  We will focus on the case where y is a scalar.
- Notation:
  - y will denote the continuous model of the dependent variable
  - t will denote discrete noisy observations of the dependent variable (sometimes called the target variable).



## Where is the Linear in Linear Regression?

#### Probability & Bayesian Inference

In regression we assume that y is a function of x. The exact nature of this function is governed by an unknown parameter vector w:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$$

The regression is linear if y is linear in w. In other words, we can express y as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}^{t} \phi \left( \mathbf{x} \right)$$

where

$$\phiig({f x}ig)$$
 is some (potentially nonlinear) function of  ${f x}.$ 



#### Linear Basis Function Models

Probability & Bayesian Inference

Generally

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$$

 $\square$  where  $\phi_j(\mathbf{x})$  are known as basis functions.

- □ Typically,  $\Phi_0(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ , so that  $W_0$  acts as a bias.
- □ In the simplest case, we use linear basis functions :  $\Phi_d(\mathbf{x}) = x_d$ .



## Linear Regression Topics

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#### **Example:** Polynomial Bases

Probability & Bayesian Inference

Polynomial basis functions:

$$\phi_j(x) = x^j.$$

□These are global

a small change in x affects all basis functions.

A small change in a basis function affects y for all x.





#### **Example: Polynomial Curve Fitting**

Probability & Bayesian Inference





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#### Sum-of-Squares Error Function

#### Probability & Bayesian Inference



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



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#### 1<sup>st</sup> Order Polynomial

Probability & Bayesian Inference





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## 3<sup>rd</sup> Order Polynomial

Probability & Bayesian Inference





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## 9<sup>th</sup> Order Polynomial

Probability & Bayesian Inference





#### Penalize large coefficient values

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



Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### 9<sup>th</sup> Order Polynomial





Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### 9<sup>th</sup> Order Polynomial





Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### 9<sup>th</sup> Order Polynomial





- Why least squares?
- Model noise (deviation of data from model) as Gaussian i.i.d.





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#### Maximum Likelihood

λr

Probability & Bayesian Inference

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

□ We determine  $w_{ML}$  by minimizing the squared error E(w).

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

Thus least-squares regression reflects an assumption that the noise is i.i.d. Gaussian.



#### Maximum Likelihood

λr

Probability & Bayesian Inference

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 $\square$  Now given  $w_{ML}$ , we can estimate the variance of the noise:

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



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Probability & Bayesian Inference

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





### MAP: A Step towards Bayes

#### Probability & Bayesian Inference

Prior knowledge about probable values of w can be incorporated into the regression:

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

Now the posterior over w is proportional to the product of the likelihood times the prior:

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

The result is to introduce a new quadratic term in w into the error function to be minimized:

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

Thus regularized (ridge) regression reflects a 0-mean isotropic Gaussian prior on the weights.



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## Linear Regression Topics

- □ What is linear regression?
- Example: polynomial curve fitting
- Other basis families
- Solving linear regression problems
- Regularized regression
- Multiple linear regression
- Bayesian linear regression



#### **Gaussian Bases**

Gaussian basis functions:

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

#### □These are local:

- a small change in x affects only nearby basis functions.
- a small change in a basis function affects y only for nearby x.
- $\square \mu_i$  and s control location and scale (width).





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#### Maximum Likelihood and Linear Least Squares

Probability & Bayesian Inference

Assume observations from a deterministic function with added Gaussian noise:

 $t = y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) + \epsilon$  where  $p(\epsilon|\beta) = \mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0, \beta^{-1})$ 

□ which is the same as saying,

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

where

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$$



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#### Maximum Likelihood and Linear Least Squares

Probability & Bayesian Inference

Given observed inputs,  $\mathbf{X} = {\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N}$ , and targets,  $\mathbf{t} = [t_1, \dots, t_N]^T$  we obtain the likelihood function

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



#### Maximum Likelihood and Linear Least Squares

Probability & Bayesian Inference

□ Taking the logarithm, we get

$$\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w},\beta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \mathcal{N}(t_n|\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n),\beta^{-1})$$
$$= \frac{N}{2} \ln \beta - \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \beta E_D(\mathbf{w})$$

$$E_D(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2$$



### **Maximum Likelihood and Least Squares**

**Probability & Bayesian Inference** 

Computing the gradient and setting it to zero yields

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w},\beta) = \beta \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{0}.$$

□ Solving for w, we get  

$$\mathbf{w}_{ML} = \left(\Phi^{T}\Phi\right)^{-1}\Phi^{T}\mathbf{t}$$
The Moore-Penrose  
pseudo-inverse,  $\Phi^{\dagger}$ .

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



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#### **Regularized Least Squares**

Probability & Bayesian Inference

Consider the error function:

$$E_D(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda E_W(\mathbf{w})$$

Data term + Regularization term

 $\lambda$  is called the regularization coefficient.

With the sum-of-squares error function and a quadratic regularizer, we get

$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \{t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)\}^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{w}$$

□ which is minimized by

 $\mathbf{w} = \left(\lambda \mathbf{I} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Phi}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{t}.$ 

Thus the name 'ridge regression'





#### **Application: Colour Restoration**

Probability & Bayesian Inference





## Application: Colour Restoration

#### Probability & Bayesian Inference

Original Image

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#### Red and Blue Channels Only



**Predicted Image** 







#### **Regularized Least Squares**

Probability & Bayesian Inference

□ A more general regularizer:



Lasso

Quadratic

(Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator)



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#### **Regularized Least Squares**

Probability & Bayesian Inference

Lasso generates sparse solutions.





## Solving Regularized Systems

- Quadratic regularization has the advantage that the solution is closed form.
- Non-quadratic regularizers generally do not have closed form solutions
- Lasso can be framed as minimizing a quadratic error with linear constraints, and thus represents a convex optimization problem that can be solved by quadratic programming or other convex optimization methods.
- We will discuss quadratic programming when we cover SVMs



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Analogous to the single output case we have:

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{W}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{x}), \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I})$$
$$= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}).$$

 $\square$  Given observed inputs  $~~{\bf X}=\{{\bf x}_1,\ldots,{\bf x}_N\}$  , and targets  $~{\bf T}=[{\bf t}_1,\ldots,{\bf t}_N]^{\rm T}$ 

we obtain the log likelihood function  $\ln p(\mathbf{T}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}, \beta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t}_n | \mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n), \beta^{-1} \mathbf{I})$   $= \frac{NK}{2} \ln \left(\frac{\beta}{2\pi}\right) - \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\|\mathbf{t}_n - \mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\|^2.$ 



## Multiple Outputs

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□ Maximizing with respect to W, we obtain

$$\mathbf{W}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \left( \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi} 
ight)^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{T}.$$

 $\square$  If we consider a single target variable,  $t_k$ , we see that

$$\mathbf{w}_k = \left( \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi} 
ight)^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{t}_k = \mathbf{\Phi}^{\dagger} \mathbf{t}_k$$

 $\square$  where  $\mathbf{t}_k = [t_{1k}, \dots, t_{Nk}]^T$ , which is identical with the single output case.



### Some Useful MATLAB Functions

Probability & Bayesian Inference

polyfit

Least-squares fit of a polynomial of specified order to given data

regress

More general function that computes linear weights for least-squares fit



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#### Rev. Thomas Bayes, 1702 - 1761

- In least-squares, we determine the weights w that minimize the least squared error between the model and the training data.
- This can result in overlearning!
- Overlearning can be reduced by adding a regularizing term to the error function being minimized.
- Under specific conditions this is equivalent to a Bayesian approach, where we specify a prior distribution over the weight vector.



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Probability & Bayesian Inference

Define a conjugate prior over **w**:

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

Combining this with the likelihood function and matching terms, we obtain

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

where

$$egin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{m}_N &=& \mathbf{S}_N \left( \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 + eta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{t} 
ight) \ \mathbf{S}_N^{-1} &=& \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + eta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi}. \end{array}$$



Probability & Bayesian Inference

□ A common choice for the prior is

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

□for which

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$$\mathbf{m}_N = eta \mathbf{S}_N \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{t} \ \mathbf{S}_N^{-1} = eta \mathbf{I} + eta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi}.$$

Thus  $m_N$  represents the ridge regression solution with  $\lambda = \alpha / \beta$ 

□Next we consider an example ...



Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### Example: fitting a straight line

0 data points observed





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Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### 1 data point observed





Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### 2 data points observed





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Probability & Bayesian Inference

#### 20 data points observed





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### **Bayesian Prediction**

- In least-squares, or regularized least-squares, we determine specific weights w that allow us to predict a specific value y(x,w) for every observed input x.
- However, our estimate of the weight vector w will never be perfect! This will introduce error into our prediction.
- In Bayesian prediction, we model the posterior distribution over our predictions, taking into account our uncertainty in model parameters.



 $\square$  Predict *t* for new values of **x** by integrating over **w**:

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

where

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



# Example: Sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions, 1 data point

Notice how much bigger our uncertainty is relative to the ML method!!

Samples of y(x,w)





Probability & Bayesian Inference

Example: Sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions,
 2 data points





Probability & Bayesian Inference

 Example: Sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions, 4 data points





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Example: Sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions,
 25 data points





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