Pattern Information Processing: ² Linear Models and Least-Squares

> Masashi Sugiyama (Department of Computer Science)

Contact: W8E-505 <u>sugi@cs.titech.ac.jp</u> http://sugiyama-www.cs.titech.ac.jp/~sugi/

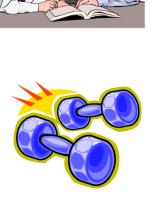
Focus of This Course

There are 3 topics in learning research.

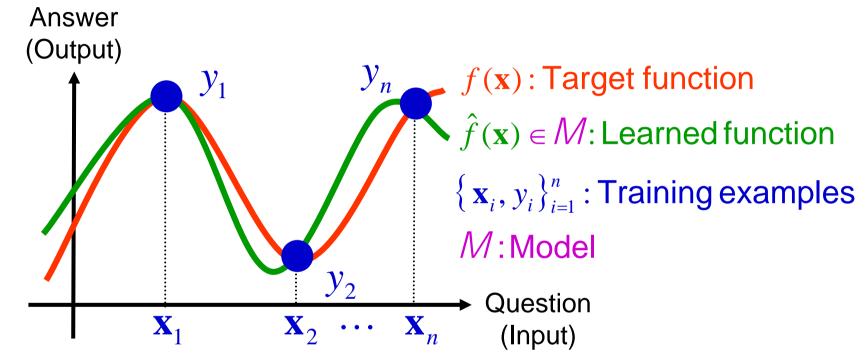
- Understanding human brains
- Developing learning machines
- Mathematically clarifying mechanism of learning
- There are 3 types of learning.
 - Supervised learning
 - Unsupervised learning
 - Reinforcement learning
- Topics of supervised learning:
 - Active learning
 - Model selection
 - Learning methods







Supervised Learning As Function Approximation



Using training examples $\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, find a function $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})$ from a model Mthat well approximates the target function $f(\mathbf{x})$.

Formal Notation and Assumptions⁵

- $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$: Input domain
- f(x) :Learning target function ($\mathcal{D} \to \mathbb{R}$)
- **x_i \in \mathcal{D}** :Training input point
- $y_i = f(x_i) + \epsilon_i$:Training output value
- imean zero, independent and identically distributed ("i.i.d.") $\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon}[\epsilon_i] = 0$ $\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon}[\epsilon_i\epsilon_j] = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & (i=j) \\ 0 & (i\neq j) \end{cases}$
- $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$: Training examples
- $\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x})$:Learned function
- M :Model

Generalization Error

- We want to obtain $\hat{f}(x)$ such that output values at unlearned test input points t can be accurately estimated.
- Suppose t follows a probability distribution with density $q(\mathbf{x})$.
- Expected test error (generalization error):

$$G = \int_{\mathcal{D}} \left(\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{t}) - f(\boldsymbol{t}) \right)^2 q(\boldsymbol{t}) d\boldsymbol{t}$$

Goal: Obtain $\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x})$ such that *G* is minimized.

Formal Description of Problems⁷

$$oldsymbol{G} = \int_{\mathcal{D}} \left(\hat{f}(oldsymbol{t}) - f(oldsymbol{t})
ight)^2 q(oldsymbol{t}) doldsymbol{t}$$

Active learning: $\min_{\{\boldsymbol{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n} G$

Model selection: $\min_{\mathcal{M}} G$

Learning methods: $\min_{\hat{f} \in \mathcal{M}} G$

Today's Plan

Models

- Linear models
- Kernel models
- Learning methods
 - Least-squares learning

Linear/Non-Linear Models

Model is a set of functions from which learning result functions are searched.

We use a family of functions $\hat{f}(x)$ parameterized by

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_b)^\top$$

 Linear model: f̂(x) is linear with respect to α (Note: not necessarily linear with respect to x)
 Non-linear model: Otherwise

Linear Models

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \alpha_i \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})$$

- $\{\varphi_i(x)\}_{i=1}^b$: Linearly independent functions • For example, when d = 1
 - Polynomial

$$1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{b-1}$$

Trigonometric polynomial

 $1, \sin x, \cos x, \dots, \sin kx, \cos kx$

$$b = 2k + 1$$

Multi-Dimensional Linear Models¹

For multidimensional input (d > 1), a product model could be used.

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i_1=1}^{c} \sum_{i_2=1}^{c} \cdots \sum_{i_d=1}^{c}$$

$$\alpha_{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_d}\varphi_{i_1}(x^{(1)})\varphi_{i_2}(x^{(2)})\cdots\varphi_{i_d}(x^{(d)})$$

$$\boldsymbol{x} = (x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(d)})^{\top}$$

The number of parameters is b = c^d, which increases exponentially w.r.t. d.
 Infeasible for large d !

Additive Models

For large d, we have to reduce the number of parameters.

Additive model:

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{c} \alpha_{i,j} \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x}^{(j)})$$

The number of parameters is only b = cd.

However, additive model is too simple so its representation capability may not be rich enough in some application.

Kernel Models

Linear model:

 $\{\varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})\}_{i=1}^b$ do not depend on $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$

Kernel model:

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

 $\mathbf{K}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x'})$:Kernel function

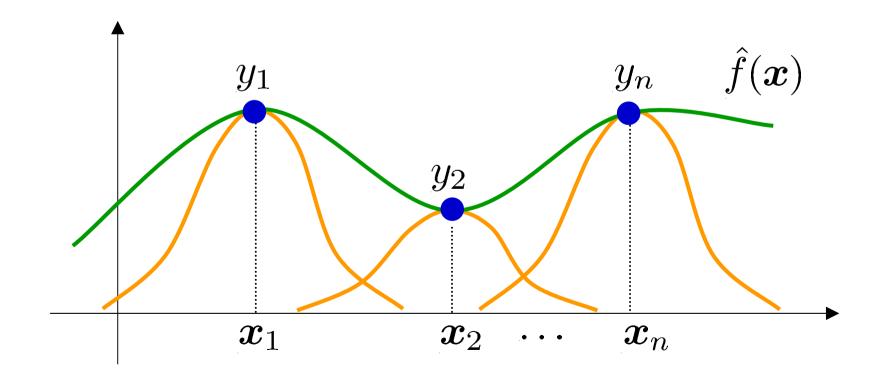
• Suppose kernel is symmetric: $K(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{x}')=K(\boldsymbol{x}',\boldsymbol{x})$

• e.g., Gaussian kernel

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}'\|^2}{2h^2}\right)$$

Kernel Models (cont.)

Put kernel functions at training input points.



Kernel Models (cont.)

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

- The number of parameters is n, which is independent of the input dimensionality d.
- Although kernel model is linear w.r.t. α , the number of parameters grows as the number of training samples increases.
- Mathematical treatment could be different from ordinary linear models (called "nonparametric models" in statistics).

Summary of Linear Models

- Linear model (product):
 - High flexibility, high complexity
- Linear model (additive):
 - Low flexibility, low complexity
- Kernel model:
 - Moderate flexibility, moderate complexity
- Good model depends on applications.
- Later in model selection, we discuss how to choose appropriate models.

Learning Methods

Linear learning methods:

Parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_b)^{\top}$ is estimated linearly w.r.t.

$$\boldsymbol{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^\top$$

Non-linear learning methods: Otherwise

¹⁸ Linear Learning for Linear Models / Kernel Models

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \alpha_i \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})$$

In linear learning methods, a learned parameter vector is given by

$$\hat{oldsymbol{lpha}} = L y$$
 L :Learning matrix

Least-Squares Learning

Learn α such that the squared error at training input points is minimized:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{lpha}}_{LS} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^b} J_{LS}(\boldsymbol{lpha})$$

$$J_{LS}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) - y_i \right)^2$$
$$= \|\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{y}\|^2$$

 $X_{i,j} = \varphi_j(x_i)$:Design matrix $(n \times b)$ In the following, we assume $\operatorname{rank}(X) = b$

How to Obtain Solutions

Extreme-value condition:

$$\nabla J_{LS}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{LS}) = 2\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}(\boldsymbol{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{LS} - \boldsymbol{y}) = 0$$
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{LS} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{y}$$

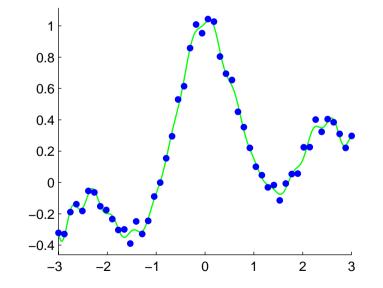
Therefore, LS is linear learning.

$$\hat{oldsymbol{lpha}}_{LS} = oldsymbol{L}_{LS} oldsymbol{y}$$
 $oldsymbol{L}_{LS} = (oldsymbol{X}^ op oldsymbol{X})^{-1} oldsymbol{X}^ op$

If you are not familiar with vector-derivatives, see e.g, "Matrix Cookbook" (http://matrixcookbook.com)

Example of LS $\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \alpha_i \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})$ Trigonometric polynomial model $1, \sin x, \cos x, \dots, \sin 15x, \cos 15x \quad (b = 31)$

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Homework

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

1. Prove that the LS solution in kernel models is given by

$$\hat{oldsymbol{lpha}}_{LS} = oldsymbol{L}_{LS}oldsymbol{y}$$
 $oldsymbol{L}_{LS} = oldsymbol{K}^{-1}$

$$K_{i,j} = K(x_i, x_j)$$
(Kernel matrix)

Homework (cont.)

2. For your own toy 1-dimensional data, perform simulations using

- Gaussian kernel models
- Least-squares learning
- and analyze the results when, e.g.,
 - Target functions
 - Number of samples
 - Noise level
 - Width of Gaussian kernel

are changed.

Deadline: beginning of next class