## Bayesian Regression

David S. Rosenberg

Bloomberg ML EDU

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# Recap: Conditional Probability Models

# Parametric Family of Conditional Densities

• A parametric family of conditional densities is a set

 $\{p(y \mid x, \theta) : \theta \in \Theta\},\$ 

- where  $p(y | x, \theta)$  is a density on **outcome space**  $\mathcal{Y}$  for each x in **input space**  $\mathcal{X}$ , and
- $\theta$  is a **parameter** in a [finite dimensional] **parameter space**  $\Theta$ .
- This is the common starting point for a treatment of classical or Bayesian statistics.

- In this lecture, whenever we say "density", we could replace it with "mass function."
- Corresponding integrals would be replaced by summations.
- (In more advanced, measure-theoretic treatments, they are each considered densities w.r.t. different base measures.)

• A parametric family of conditional densities:

 $\{p(y \mid x, \theta) : \theta \in \Theta\}$ 

- Assume that  $p(y | x, \theta)$  governs the world we are observing, for some  $\theta \in \Theta$ .
- If we knew the right  $\theta\in\Theta,$  there would be no need for statistics.
- Instead of  $\theta$ , we have data  $\mathcal{D}$ ... how is it generated?

- **Data:** Suppose we have *n* inputs  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$ .
  - For now, x can be chosen randomly, by hand, or adversarially.
  - Our entire development will consider x's fixed and known.
- For each input  $x_i$ , we observe  $y_i$  sampled randomly from  $p(y | x_i, \theta)$ .
- We assume the outcomes  $y_1, \ldots, y_n$  are independent. (Once we know the x's.)

### Likelihood Function

- **Data:**  $\mathcal{D} = (y_1, ..., y_n)$
- $\bullet\,$  The probability density for our data  ${\mathcal D}$  is

$$p(\mathcal{D} | x_1, \ldots, x_n, \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | x_i, \theta).$$

• For fixed  $\mathcal{D}$ , the function  $\theta \mapsto p(\mathcal{D} \mid x, \theta)$  is the likelihood function:

 $L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta)$ 

• The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) for  $\theta$  in the model  $\{p(y | x, \theta) | \theta \in \Theta\}$  is

$$\hat{\theta}_{\mathsf{MLE}} = \underset{\substack{\theta \in \Theta}}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta).$$

## Example: Gaussian Linear Regression

- Input space  $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$  Outcome space  $\mathfrak{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- Family of conditional probability densities:

$$y \mid x, w \sim \mathcal{N}\left(w^{T}x, \sigma^{2}\right)$$
,

for some known  $\sigma^2>0.$ 

- Parameter space?  $R^d$ .
- **Data:**  $\mathcal{D} = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)$
- Assume  $y_i$ 's are conditionally independent, given  $x_i$ 's and w.

#### Gaussian Likelihood and MLE

• The likelihood of  $w \in \mathbf{R}^d$  for the data  $\mathcal{D}$  is given by the likelihood function:

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(w) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i | x_i, w) \quad \text{by conditional independence.}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - w^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \right]$$

 $\bullet$  You should see in your  $head^1$  that the  $\mathsf{MLE}$  is

$$\hat{w}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} L_{\mathcal{D}}(w)$$
$$= \arg \min_{w \in \mathbf{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - w^T x_i)^2.$$

<sup>1</sup>See https://davidrosenberg.github.io/ml2015/docs/8.Lab.glm.pdf, slide 5.

# Bayesian Conditional Probability Models

### Bayesian Conditional Models

- Input space  $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$  Outcome space  $\mathfrak{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- Two components to Bayesian conditional model:
  - A parametric family of conditional densities:

 $\{p(y \mid x, \theta) : \theta \in \Theta\}$ 

- A prior distribution for  $\theta \in \Theta$ .
- Prior distribution:  $p(\theta)$  on  $\theta \in \Theta$

• The posterior distribution for  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  is

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x_1, \dots, x_n) \propto p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) p(\theta)$$
$$= \underbrace{L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta)}_{\text{likelihood prior}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}}$$

#### Gaussian Example: Priors and Posteriors

• Choose a Gaussian prior distribution p(w) on  $\mathbf{R}^d$ :

 $w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0)$ 

for some covariance matrix  $\Sigma_0 \succ 0$  (i.e.  $\Sigma_0$  is spd).

Posterior distribution

$$p(w \mid \mathcal{D}, x_1, \dots, x_n) = p(w \mid \mathcal{D}, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\propto L_{\mathcal{D}}(w)p(w)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - w^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \right] \text{ (likelihood)}$$

$$\times |2\pi\Sigma_0|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}w^T\Sigma_0^{-1}w\right) \text{ (prior)}$$

### Predictive Distributions

• We have a parametric family of conditional densities:

 $\{p(y \mid x, \theta) : \theta \in \Theta\}$ 

- Each  $p(y | x, \theta)$  is a conditional density, but also a prediction function:
  - For  $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ , the action produced is a probability density on y.
- In Bayesian statistics we have two distributions on  $\Theta$ :
  - the prior distribution  $p(\theta)$
  - the posterior distribution  $p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .
- Each distribution on  $\Theta$  induces a distributions over prediction functions.
- For any give x, this gives a single distribution on y.
- This distribution is called a predictive distribution.
- So we can have a prior predictive distribution and a posterior predictive distribution.

### Gaussian Regression Example

## Example in 1-Dimension: Setup

- Input space  $\mathfrak{X} = [-1,1]$  Output space  $\mathfrak{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- Given x, the world generates y as

$$y = w_0 + w_1 x + \varepsilon,$$

where  $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.2^2)$ .

• Written another way, the conditional probability model is

$$y \mid x, w_0, w_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(w_0 + w_1 x, 0.2^2).$$

- What's the parameter space?  $\mathbf{R}^2$ .
- Prior distribution:  $w = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$

#### Example in 1-Dimension: Prior Situation

• Prior distribution:  $w = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \frac{1}{2}I\right)$  (Illustrated on left)



• On right,  $y(x) = \mathbb{E}[y | x, w] = w_0 + w_1 x$ , for randomly chosen  $w \sim p(w) = \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$ .

Bishop's PRML Fig 3.7

# Example in 1-Dimension: 1 Observation



- On left: posterior distribution; white '+' indicates true parameters
- On right: blue circle indicates the training observation

Bishop's PRML Fig 3.7

## Example in 1-Dimension: 2 and 20 Observations



Bishop's PRML Fig 3.7

## Gaussian Regression Continued

### Closed Form for Posterior

• Model:

$$w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0)$$
  
  $y_i \mid x, w$  i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}(w^T x_i, \sigma^2)$ 

- Design matrix X Response column vector y
- Posterior distribution is a Gaussian distribution:

$$w \mid \mathcal{D} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{P}, \Sigma_{P})$$
  

$$\mu_{P} = (X^{T}X + \sigma^{2}\Sigma_{0}^{-1})^{-1}X^{T}y$$
  

$$\Sigma_{P} = (\sigma^{-2}X^{T}X + \Sigma_{0}^{-1})^{-1}$$

• Posterior Variance  $\Sigma_P$  gives us a natural uncertainty measure.

See Rasmussen and Williams' Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning, Ch 2.1. http://www.gaussianprocess.org/gpml/chapters/RW2.pdf

#### Closed Form for Posterior

• Posterior distribution is a Gaussian distribution:

$$w \mid \mathcal{D} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{P}, \Sigma_{P})$$
  

$$\mu_{P} = (X^{T}X + \sigma^{2}\Sigma_{0}^{-1})^{-1}X^{T}y$$
  

$$\Sigma_{P} = (\sigma^{-2}X^{T}X + \Sigma_{0}^{-1})^{-1}$$

• The MAP estimator and the posterior mean are given by

$$\mu_P = \left(X^T X + \sigma^2 \Sigma_0^{-1}\right)^{-1} X^T y$$

• For the prior variance  $\Sigma_0 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda} I$ , we get

$$\mu_P = \left(X^T X + \lambda I\right)^{-1} X^T y,$$

which is of course the ridge regression solution.

### Posterior Variance vs. Traditional Uncertainty

- Traditional regression: OLS estimator (also the MLE) is a random variable why?
  - $\bullet\,$  Because estimator is a function of data  ${\mathfrak D}$  and data is random.
- Common assumption: data are iid with Gaussian noise:  $y = w^T x + \varepsilon$ , with  $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ .
- Then OLS estimator  $\hat{w}$  has a sampling distribution that is Gaussian with mean w and

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{w}) = \left(\sigma^{-2} X^{\mathsf{T}} X\right)^{-1}$$

• By comparison, the posterior variance is

$$\Sigma_P = \left(\sigma^{-2}X^TX + \Sigma_0^{-1}\right)^{-1}.$$

- When we take  $\Sigma_0^{-1} = 0$ , we get back  $Cov(\hat{\theta})$  (i.e. like our prior variance goes to  $\infty$ . )
- $\Sigma_P$  is "smaller" than  $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{w})$  because we're using a "more informative" prior.

### Posterior Mean and Posterior Mode (MAP)

• Posterior density for  $\Sigma_0 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda} I$ :



• To find MAP, sufficient to minimize the negative log posterior:

$$\hat{w}_{\mathsf{MAP}} = \underset{w \in \mathbf{R}^{d}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \begin{bmatrix} -\log p(w \mid \mathcal{D}) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \underset{w \in \mathbf{R}^{d}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - w^{T} x_{i})^{2}}_{\operatorname{log-likelihood}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|w\|^{2}}_{\operatorname{log-prior}}$$

• Which is the ridge regression objective.

- Given a new input point  $x_{new}$ , how to predict  $y_{new}$ ?
- Predictive distribution

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, w, \mathcal{D}) p(w | \mathcal{D}) dw$$
$$= \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, w) p(w | \mathcal{D}) dw$$

• For Gaussian regression, predictive distribution has closed form.

#### Closed Form for Predictive Distribution

• Model:

$$w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0)$$
  
  $y_i \mid x, w$  i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}(w^T x_i, \sigma^2)$ 

• Predictive Distribution

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, w) p(w | \mathcal{D}) dw.$$

Averages over prediction for each w, weighted by posterior distribution.
Closed form:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} y_{new} \mid x_{new}, \mathcal{D} & \sim & \mathcal{N}(\eta_{new}, \sigma_{new}) \\ \eta_{new} & = & \mu_P^T x_{new} \\ \sigma_{new} & = & \underbrace{x_{new}^T \Sigma_P x_{new}}_{\text{from variance in } w} + \underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\text{inherent variance in } y} \end{array}$$

## Predictive Distributions

• With predictive distributions, can give mean prediction with error bands:



Rasmussen and Williams' Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning, Fig.2.1(b)