

# Bayesian Methods

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(adapted from David Rosenberg's slides)

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- Deliverable
  - Homework 4 due today
  - Homework 5 released (due on April 15)
  - Project proposal due tomorrow
    - Make sure each group has a corresponding member
- Codalab
  - Optional but bonus points if you provide a worksheet for reproducibility
  - Tutorial this Thursday during the instructor's office hour

# Introduction

## Recap: typical steps in data science problems

Many problem domains can be formalized as follows:

- 1 Observe input  $x$ .
- 2 Take action  $a$ .
- 3 Observe outcome  $y$ .
- 4 Evaluate action in relation to the outcome (via a loss function  $\ell(a, y)$ )

The Three Spaces:

- Input space:  $\mathcal{X}$
- Action space:  $\mathcal{A}$
- Outcome space:  $\mathcal{Y}$

# Some Formalization

## The Spaces

- $\mathcal{X}$ : input space
- $\mathcal{Y}$ : outcome space
- $\mathcal{A}$ : action space

## Prediction Function (or “decision function”)

A **prediction function** (or **decision function**) gets input  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and produces an action  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  :

$$\begin{aligned}\delta: \mathcal{X} &\rightarrow \mathcal{A} \\ x &\mapsto f(x)\end{aligned}$$

## Loss Function

A **loss function** evaluates an action in the context of the outcome  $y$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\ell: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{Y} &\rightarrow \mathbf{R} \\ (a, y) &\mapsto \ell(a, y)\end{aligned}$$

- Observe data  $\mathcal{D} = \{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$
- Assume that data is generated by a family of parametric distributions

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

- where  $p(y \mid \theta)$  is a density on a **sample space**  $\mathcal{Y}$ , and
  - $\theta$  is a **parameter** in a finite dimensional **parameter space**  $\Theta$ .
- Assume that data is drawn i.i.d. from  $p(y \mid \theta)$ .
- The **decision-making** problem: Infer properties of  $p(y \mid \theta)$  given some observed data

# Today's lecture

- How to make decisions given unknown nature/world and limited data?
  - The frequentist approach
  - The Bayesian approach
- Apply the Bayesian approach to conditional models (classification)
  - Learning and prediction



# Frequentist Decision Theory

# Frequentist or “Classical” Statistics

## Key idea:

- There exists a **true but unknown** parameter  $\theta^*$ .
- We can obtain its estimate  $\hat{\theta}$  from a **sample**  $\mathcal{D} \sim p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta^*)$  using some **point estimator**  $\delta$ .
  - In general,  $\delta: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  is a decision procedure based on data.

**Task:** estimate  $\theta$  given i.i.d. samples from  $p(y \mid \theta)$  where  $\theta \in \Theta$ .

How do we choose the best estimator?

$$\text{Frequentist risk: } R(\theta^*, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta^*)} L(\theta^*, \delta(\mathcal{D})) \quad (1)$$

But we don't know  $\theta^*$ ...

# Desirable Properties of Estimators

Heuristics for selecting a good estimator:

- **Consistent:** As data size  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , we get  $\hat{\theta} \rightarrow \theta^*$ .
  - What assumptions are we making here?
- **Unbiased:** our estimate is correct in expectation.

$$\bar{\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta^*)} [\hat{\theta}] = \theta^* \quad (2)$$

$$\text{bias}(\hat{\theta}) = \bar{\theta} - \theta^* \quad (3)$$

- **Minimum variance:**

$$\text{var}(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta^*)} \left[ (\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta})^2 \right] \quad (4)$$

# The bias-variance tradeoff

Do we always want an unbiased estimator?

Let's decompose the square loss. (expectations are over  $p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta^*)$ )

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ (\hat{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ (\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta} + \bar{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \right] \quad (5)$$

$$= \mathbb{E} \left[ (\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta})^2 \right] + 2(\bar{\theta} - \theta^*) \mathbb{E} \left[ (\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta}) \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[ (\bar{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \right] \quad (6)$$

$$= \mathbb{E} \left[ (\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta})^2 \right] + (\bar{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \quad (7)$$

$$= \text{var}(\hat{\theta}) + \text{bias}^2(\hat{\theta}) \quad (8)$$

= 0 because  $\bar{\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}]$

## Example: ridge regression

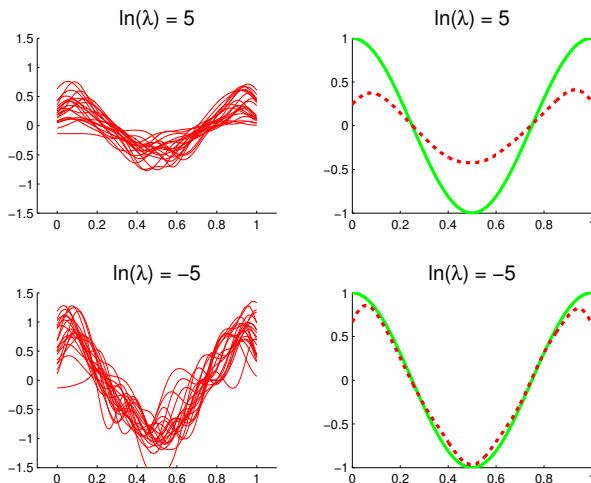


Figure 6.5 from "Machine Learning: a Probabilistic Perspective", K. Murphy.

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

## Definition

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

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta), \quad (9)$$

$$\text{where } L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p(\mathcal{D} | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | \theta) \quad (10)$$

- MLE is consistent but can be biased.
- **Method of moments** is another general approach one learns about in statistics.

## Example: Coin Flipping

**Task:** model a biased coin.

- Parametric family of mass functions:

$$p(\text{Heads} \mid \theta) = \theta,$$

for  $\theta \in \Theta = (0, 1)$ .

- Note that every  $\theta \in \Theta$  gives us a different probability model for a coin.

## Coin Flipping: Likelihood function

- Data  $\mathcal{D} = (H, H, T, T, T, T, T, H, \dots, T)$ 
  - $n_h$ : number of heads
  - $n_t$ : number of tails
- Assume these were i.i.d. flips.
- **Likelihood function** for data  $\mathcal{D}$ :

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{n_h} (1 - \theta)^{n_t} \quad (11)$$



# Coin Flipping: MLE

- As usual, easier to maximize the log-likelihood function:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \log L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) \quad (12)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} [n_h \log \theta + n_t \log(1 - \theta)] \quad (13)$$

- First order condition:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ell = \frac{n_h}{\theta} - \frac{n_t}{1 - \theta} = 0 \quad (14)$$

$$\iff \theta = \frac{n_h}{n_h + n_t}. \quad (15)$$

- So  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}$  is the empirical fraction of heads.

Challenges in statistical inference:

- Unknown data generating process defined by  $\theta$
- Cannot observe all data
- Want to infer properties of  $\theta$  (and make decisions/predictions)

Frequentist approach:

- **Point estimator** based on a data sample
- Compare estimators by **expected loss over all possible data samples**—impossible
- Other metrics: consistency, unbiasedness, variance etc.
- A common estimator: MLE

Next, the Bayesian approach.

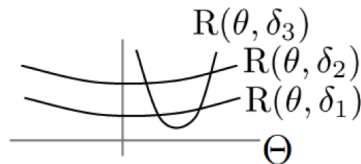
# Bayesian Decision Theory

# Bayesian twist of the frequentist risk

**Task** Design a measure to evaluate some estimator  $\delta$ .

**Problem** cannot compute the risk without knowing  $\theta^*$ .

$$R(\theta^*, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta^*)} L(\theta^*, \delta(\mathcal{D})) \quad (16)$$



**Solution** introduce the prior  $p(\theta^*)$ .

$$\text{Bayes risk : } R_B(\delta) = \int R(\theta^*, \delta) p(\theta^*) d\theta^* \quad (17)$$

**Note** Bayes risk is a frequentist concept because it still averages over the data  $p(\mathcal{D} | \theta^*)$ .

# The Bayesian approach

## Key idea:

- The true  $\theta$  is never known but we have **belief** about it (no more  $\theta^*$ )
- As we observe more data, we can update our beliefs (no expectation over unseen data)

## Key concepts:

**Prior**  $p(\theta)$ , our belief before seeing any data.

**Likelihood**  $p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)$ .

**Marginal likelihood**  $p(\mathcal{D}) = \int p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)p(\theta)d\theta$  (also called evidence)

**Posterior probability**  $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$ , our updated belief after seeing  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Predictive probability**  $p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y_{\text{new}} | \theta)p(\theta)d\theta$ .

# Expressing the Posterior Distribution

- By Bayes rule, can write the posterior distribution as

$$p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}.$$

- Let's consider both sides as functions of  $\theta$ , for fixed  $\mathcal{D}$ .
- Then both sides are densities on  $\Theta$  and we can write

$$\underbrace{p(\theta | \mathcal{D})}_{\text{posterior}} \propto \underbrace{p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}}.$$

- Where  $\propto$  means we've dropped factors independent of  $\theta$ .

## Posterior risk

Bayesian interpretation of the risk: **posterior expected loss**.

$$\text{posterior risk: } r(a \mid \mathcal{D}, p(\theta)) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}_{p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})} [L(\theta, a)] \quad \text{where } a = \delta(\mathcal{D}) \quad (18)$$

- Conditioned on observed data and the prior, which are known.
- Average over the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .

How to make decisions?

$$\text{Bayes action: } \delta^*(\mathcal{D}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \arg \min_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{E}_{p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})} [L(\theta, a)] \quad (19)$$

- No need to choose an estimator.
- What might be the practical issue here?

# Coin Flipping: Bayesian Model

- Parametric family of mass functions:

$$p(\text{Heads} \mid \theta) = \theta,$$

for  $\theta \in \Theta = (0, 1)$ .

- Need a prior distribution  $p(\theta)$  on  $\Theta = (0, 1)$ .
- Likelihood  $p(x \mid \theta)$  is [Bernoulli](#).
- A distribution from the [Beta](#) family will do the trick...



# Coin Flipping: Beta Prior

$$\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta) \quad (20)$$

$$p(\theta) \propto \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1} \quad (21)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\theta] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \quad (22)$$

Think of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  as our initial counts of head ( $h$ ) and tails ( $t$ ) before seeing any data.

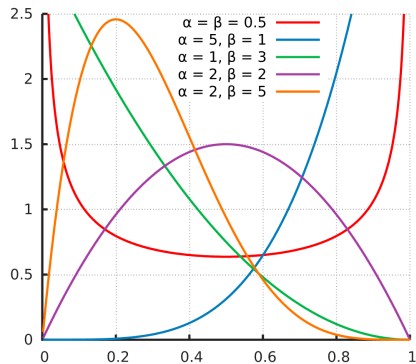


Figure by Horas based on the work of Krishnavedala (Own work) [Public domain], via Wikimedia Commons  
[http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Beta\\_distribution\\_pdf.svg](http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Beta_distribution_pdf.svg).

# Coin Flipping: Posterior

- Prior:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \text{Beta}(h, t) \\ p(\theta) &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

- Likelihood function

$$L(\theta) = p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{n_h} (1-\theta)^{n_t}$$

- Posterior density:

$$\begin{aligned}p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) &\propto p(\theta)p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) \\ &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1} \times \theta^{n_h} (1-\theta)^{n_t} \\ &= \theta^{h-1+n_h} (1-\theta)^{t-1+n_t}\end{aligned}$$

What is the posterior distribution?

# Posterior is Beta

- Prior:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \text{Beta}(h, t) \\ p(\theta) &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

- Posterior density:

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto \theta^{h-1+n_h} (1-\theta)^{t-1+n_t}$$

- Posterior is in the beta family:

$$\theta \mid \mathcal{D} \sim \text{Beta}(h + n_h, t + n_t)$$

- Interpretation:

- Prior initializes our counts with  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- Posterior increments counts by observed  $n_h$  and  $n_t$ .

# Conjugate Priors

Interesting that posterior is in the same distribution family as prior.

## Definition

A family of priors  $\pi$  is **conjugate to** a parametric model  $P$  (the likelihood) if the posterior is in the same family  $\pi$ .

Examples:

- The beta family is conjugate to the coin-flipping (i.e. Bernoulli) model.
- The family of all probability distributions is conjugate to any parametric model. [Trivially]

Why use conjugate priors? Mainly for **computational convenience**.

# Compute the posterior in Coin Flipping

**Likelihood**  $p(\text{Heads} \mid \theta) = \theta$  for  $\theta \in \Theta = [0, 1]$ .

**Prior**  $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(2, 2)$ .

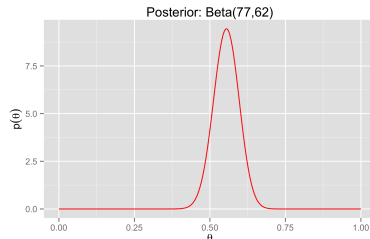
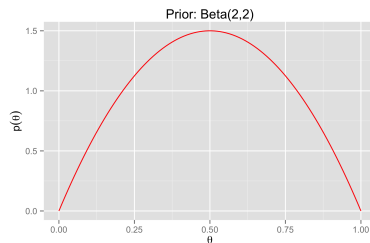
**Data**  $\mathcal{D} = \{H, H, T, \dots, T\}$ , 75 heads, 60 tails

**Posterior**  $\theta \mid \mathcal{D} \sim \text{Beta}(77, 62)$

**MLE**  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{75}{75+60} \approx 0.556$

- When might the MLE estimate be bad?

Given the posterior, what would be a good estimate of the value  $\theta$ ?



# Bayesian point estimation

## Setup:

- Data  $\mathcal{D}$  generated by  $p(y \mid \theta)$ , for unknown  $\theta \in \Theta$ .
- Want to produce a point estimate for  $\theta$ .

## Approach:

- 1 Choose a loss function, e.g., square loss  $L(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = (\theta - \hat{\theta})^2$ .
- 2 Find an action **minimizing the expected risk w.r.t. posterior**—Bayes action.

## Bayesian Point Estimation: Square Loss

- Find **action**  $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$  that minimizes **posterior risk**

$$r(\hat{\theta}) = \int (\theta - \hat{\theta})^2 p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta. \quad (23)$$

- Differentiate:

$$\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = - \int 2(\theta - \hat{\theta}) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \quad (24)$$

$$= -2 \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta} \underbrace{\int p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta}_{=1} \quad (25)$$

$$= -2 \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta} \quad (26)$$

- Set to zero:

$$\hat{\theta} = \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta = \mathbb{E}[\theta | \mathcal{D}] \quad \text{posterior mean} \quad (27)$$

# Bayesian Point Estimation: Absolute Loss

- Posterior risk:

$$r(\hat{\theta}) = \int |\theta - \hat{\theta}| p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta. \quad (28)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}} (\hat{\theta} - \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta + \int_{\hat{\theta}}^{\infty} (\theta - \hat{\theta}) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \quad (29)$$

- Differentiate:

$$\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}} p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta - \int_{\hat{\theta}}^{\infty} p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \quad (30)$$

- Set to zero:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}} p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta = \int_{\hat{\theta}}^{\infty} p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \quad \text{and they sum to one} \quad (31)$$

$$\implies \hat{\theta} \text{ split the area under the curve evenly: } \text{posterior median} \quad (32)$$



## Bayesian Point Estimation: Zero-One Loss

- Suppose  $\Theta$  is discrete (e.g.  $\Theta = \{\text{english}, \text{french}\}$ )
- **Zero-one loss:**  $\ell(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = 1(\theta \neq \hat{\theta})$
- **Posterior risk:**

$$\begin{aligned}r(\hat{\theta}) &= \mathbb{E} \left[ 1(\theta \neq \hat{\theta}) \mid \mathcal{D} \right] \\&= \mathbb{P}(\theta \neq \hat{\theta} \mid \mathcal{D}) \\&= 1 - \mathbb{P}(\theta = \hat{\theta} \mid \mathcal{D}) \\&= 1 - p(\hat{\theta} \mid \mathcal{D})\end{aligned}$$

- **Bayes action** is

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$$

- This  $\hat{\theta}$  is called the **maximum a posteriori (MAP)** estimate.
- The MAP estimate is the **mode** of the posterior distribution.

# Review: the Bayesian method

## ① Define the model:

- Choose a parametric family of densities—**likelihood**:

$$\{p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) \mid \theta \in \Theta\}.$$

- Choose a distribution  $p(\theta)$  on  $\Theta$ —**prior distribution**.

## ② After observing data $\mathcal{D}$ , compute the **posterior distribution** $p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$ .

## ③ Choose **action** based on $p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$ and the loss function.

# Frequentist vs Bayesian

	Frequentist	Bayesian
Evaluate a decision	$L(\theta, \delta(\cdot))$	$L(\theta, \delta(\cdot))$
Handle unknown state of nature ( $\theta$ )	$\theta^*$	$\theta$ is a variable—prior, posterior
Make decisions	average over (observed and un-observed) data	average over $\theta$
Topics of interests	properties of an estimator (e.g., consistent, unbiased)	compute various quantities, e.g., posterior, marginal etc.
History	dominated during the 20th century	dominated before the 20th century

## Bayesian Conditional Models

# Learning as density estimation

- Setup
- Observe data  $\mathcal{D} = \{y^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^N$  assuming  $x^{(n)}$ 's are fixed.
  - Choose a family of parametric distributions:

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

- Learning
- Maximum likelihood estimation:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\mathcal{D} | \theta, x) \quad (33)$$

- Assume  $y^{(n)}$ 's are independent conditioned on  $x^{(n)}$ .
- **Exercise:** MLE corresponds to ERM with negative log-likelihood loss.

## Prediction

$$p(y | x, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}) \quad (34)$$

# Example: Gaussian linear regression

## Model

$$p(y \mid x, \theta) = \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x, \sigma^2) \quad \text{Assuming known } \sigma^2. \quad (35)$$

## Likelihood

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(y^{(n)} \mid x^{(n)}, \theta) \quad (36)$$

$$= \prod_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y^{(n)} - \theta^T x^{(n)})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (37)$$

## Solution

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \mathbf{R}^d} L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) \quad (38)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta \in \mathbf{R}^d} \sum_{n=1}^N \left(y^{(n)} - \theta^T x^{(n)}\right)^2 \quad \text{squared loss} \quad (39)$$

## Regularization via prior

- We want **small weights** to avoid overfitting. What would be a good prior?

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2 I_d) \qquad \text{Why Gaussian?} \qquad (40)$$

- Posterior distribution is also a Gaussian distribution:

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2 I_d) \mathcal{N}(X\theta, \sigma^2 I_N) \qquad (41)$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(\mu_P, \Sigma_P) \qquad (42)$$

$$\mu_P = \left( X^T X + \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2} I_d \right)^{-1} X^T y \qquad (43)$$

$$\Sigma_P = \left( \sigma^{-2} X^T X + \tau^{-2} I_d \right)^{-1} \qquad (44)$$

- See **Rosenberg's notes** on multivariate Gaussian.

## MAP (instead of MLE)

- Instead of maximizing the likelihood, let's maximize the posterior distribution to incorporate the prior.

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau^2}\|\theta\|^2\right)}_{\text{prior}} \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}_{\text{likelihood}} \quad (45)$$

- To find MAP, sufficient to minimize the negative log posterior (**Exercise**):

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} [-\log p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})] \quad (46)$$

$$= \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}_{\text{log-likelihood}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|\theta\|^2}_{\text{log-prior}} \quad \lambda \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2} \quad (47)$$

- How does the prior control the regularization strength?



# The Bayesian approach

- In Bayesian setting, **there is no selection** from hypothesis space, e.g.,  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}$ .
- We chose a parametric family of conditional densities

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

and a prior distribution  $p(\theta)$  on this set.

- Having set our Bayesian model, there are no more decisions to make – just **computation**...
  - posterior distribution
  - predictive distribution

- The **prior distribution**  $p(\theta)$  represents our beliefs about  $\theta$  before seeing  $\mathcal{D}$ .
- The **posterior distribution** for  $\theta$  is

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x) &\propto p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta, x) p(\theta) \\ &= \underbrace{L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}} \end{aligned}$$

- Posterior represents the updated beliefs after seeing  $\mathcal{D}$ .

# Bayesian linear regression

Let's derive ridge regression from a Bayesian perspective.

- Gaussian prior:

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0) \quad (48)$$

- Posterior distribution is also Gaussian:

$$\theta | \mathcal{D} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_P, \Sigma_P) \quad (49)$$

$$\mu_P = (X^T X + \sigma^2 \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1} X^T y \quad (50)$$

$$\Sigma_P = (\sigma^{-2} X^T X + \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1} \quad (51)$$

- What are reasonable point estimates of  $\theta$ ? **Posterior mode (MAP)** and **posterior mean**:

$$\hat{\theta} = \mu_P = (X^T X + \sigma^2 \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1} X^T y \quad \text{familiar?} \quad (52)$$

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

$$\hat{\theta} = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y \quad \text{ridge regression} \quad (53)$$

## Example in 1-Dimension: Setup

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

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

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

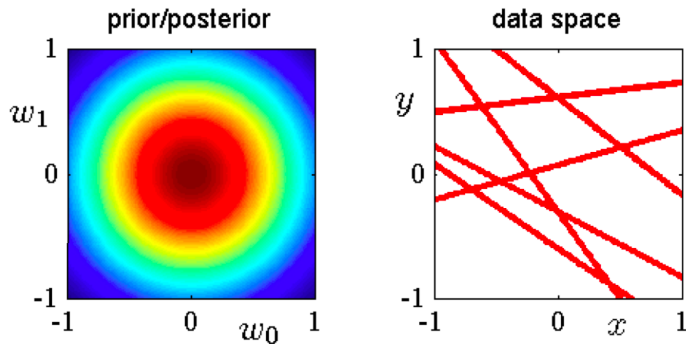
- Written another way, the **conditional probability model** is

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

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

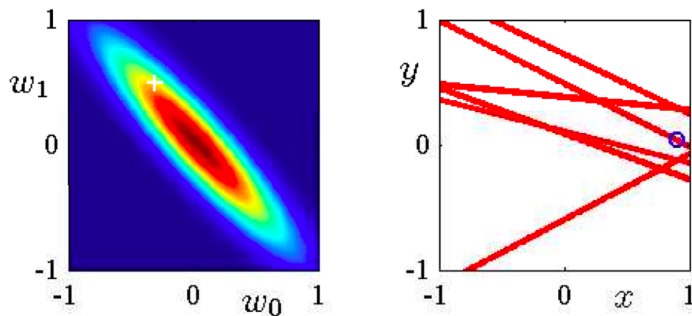
## Example in 1-Dimension: Prior Situation

- **Prior distribution:**  $w = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$



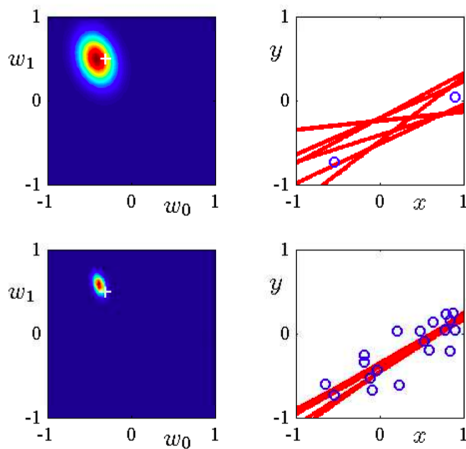
- On right,  $y = \mathbb{E}[y | x, w] = w_0 + w_1 x$ , for randomly chosen  $w \sim p(w) = \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$ .

## Example in 1-Dimension: 1 Observation



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

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



- Task: find a function in a hypothesis space that map  $x$  to a distribution of  $y$ :

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

- In frequentist approach, we choose  $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$ , and predict

$$p(y | x, \hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})).$$

- In Bayesian statistics we have two distributions on  $\Theta$ :
  - the prior distribution  $p(\theta)$
  - the posterior distribution  $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$ .
- Next, **prediction** by integrating over  $\Theta$  w.r.t.  $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$ .



# The Predictive Distribution

- Without any data, the **prior predictive distribution** is given by

$$p(y | x) = \int p(y | x; \theta) p(\theta) d\theta.$$

- This is an average of all conditional densities in our family, weighted by the **prior**.
- Once we see data  $\mathcal{D}$ , the **posterior predictive distribution** is given by

$$p(y | x, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y | x; \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta.$$

- This is an average of all conditional densities in our family, weighted by the **posterior**.

## What if we don't want a full distribution on $y$ ?

- Once we have a predictive distribution  $p(y \mid x, \mathcal{D})$ ,
  - we can easily generate single point predictions.
- $x \mapsto \mathbb{E}[y \mid x, \mathcal{D}]$ , to minimize expected square error.
- $x \mapsto \text{median}[y \mid x, \mathcal{D}]$ , to minimize expected absolute error
- $x \mapsto \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y \mid x, \mathcal{D})$ , to minimize expected 0/1 loss
- Each of these can be derived from  $p(y \mid x, \mathcal{D})$ .

# Bayesian linear regression: Predictive Distribution

Let's go back to Gaussian linear regression:

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0) \quad \text{prior} \quad (54)$$

$$y^{(n)} | x^{(n)}, \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x^{(n)}, \sigma^2) \quad \text{likelihood} \quad (55)$$

## Predictive Distribution

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \quad (56)$$

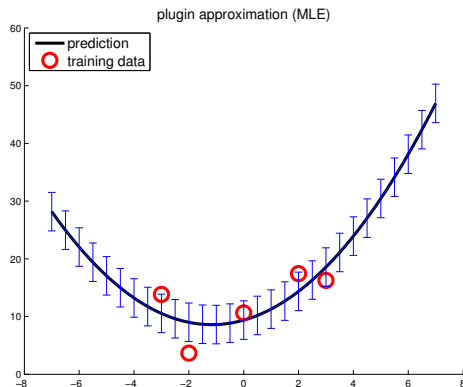
$$= \mathcal{N}(\eta_{\text{new}}, \sigma_{\text{new}}^2) \quad \text{also a Gaussian} \quad (57)$$

$$\eta_{\text{new}} = \mu_P^T x_{\text{new}} \quad \text{MAP prediction} \quad (58)$$

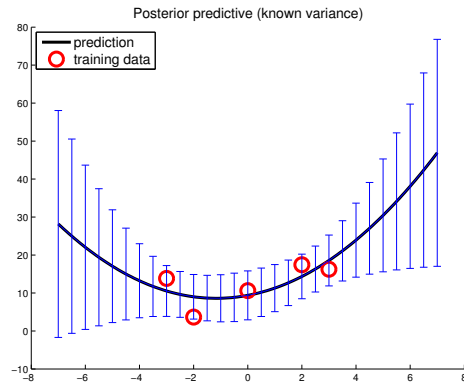
$$\sigma_{\text{new}}^2 = \underbrace{x_{\text{new}}^T \Sigma_P x_{\text{new}}}_{\text{from variance in } \theta} + \underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\text{inherent variance in } y} \quad \text{principled way to handle uncertainty} \quad (59)$$

# Prediction uncertainty

Predictive distributions allow mean prediction with error bands.



(a) MLE: constant error bars



(b) Posterior: larger error bars where training points are few

# Conclusion

## Frequentist

- Average over data (both observed and unobserved)
- No principled way to choose estimators
- Less computation

## Bayesian

- Average over parameters (subjective prior)
- Uncertainty estimation “for free”
- Computationally intensive

## Bayesian methods

- 1 Specify likelihood / model
- 2 Choose (conjugate) prior
- 3 Bayesian inference...