

# Machine Learning (CS 181):

## 5. Bayesian Methods and Linear Regression

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## Overview: Regularization vs. Bayesian Methods

- A regularization penalty, such as ridge regression

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

is one approach to avoid over-fitting. Use a validation set to choose penalty  $\lambda > 0$ . Effective, but a bit ad hoc and inflexible.

- A Bayesian approach puts a prior on parameters, and views data  $D$  as **evidence for updating our beliefs** (get a posterior).
- By changing the prior, we change the way we learn from data.

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## Review: Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Start with a generative model of the data,  $p(D|\mathbf{w})$ . Select parameters that maximize the likelihood:

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} p(D|\mathbf{w})$$

- Taking logs and negating, equivalent to minimizing loss function  $\mathcal{L}_D(\mathbf{w}) = -\ln p(D|\mathbf{w})$ .
- For linear regression, we model the target

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i, \beta^{-1}),$$

and  $\mathbf{w}_{\text{MLE}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}$ . Will tend to over-fit.

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## Bayesian Basics

- View parameters  $\mathbf{w}$  as a random variable. Adopt a prior  $p(\mathbf{w})$ , and a generative model  $p(D|\mathbf{w})$  (the likelihood of data  $D$ )
- Use Bayes rule to update posterior based on observed data:

$$p(\mathbf{w}|D) = \frac{p(D|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})}{p(D)} \propto p(D|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}).$$

- $p(D)$  is the marginal likelihood, obtained as  $p(D) = \int_{\mathbf{w}} p(D|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})d\mathbf{w}$ .
- Can do various things with the posterior:
  - Obtain the **maximum a posteriori** estimate,  $w_{\text{MAP}}$ , which maximizes  $p(\mathbf{w}|D)$ .
  - “Full Bayes” (or **posterior predictive**), which considers the uncertainty on  $\mathbf{w}$  when making a prediction.

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# Maximum A Posteriori Estimator

- In the MAP approach, we find

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} p(\mathbf{w}|D) = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} p(D|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})$$

- Equivalent to minimizing loss function:

$$-\ln p(D|\mathbf{w}) - \ln p(\mathbf{w})$$

- A small prior corresponds to a large regularization penalty. Provides a principled approach to regularization.
- Note: MAP with uniform prior ( $\ln p(\mathbf{w}) = \text{const}$ ) is equal to MLE.

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## Posterior predictive (Full Bayes)

- In the posterior predictive approach, we work with

$$\begin{aligned} p(y|D, \mathbf{x}) &= \int_{\mathbf{w}} p(y, \mathbf{w}|D, \mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{w} \\ &= \int_{\mathbf{w}} p(y|\mathbf{w}, D, \mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{w}|D, \mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{w} \\ &= \int_{\mathbf{w}} \underbrace{p(y|\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})}_{\text{predictive distribution}} \underbrace{p(\mathbf{w}|D)}_{\text{posterior}} d\mathbf{w} \end{aligned}$$

- Tractable when posterior has simple form (**conjugate property**).
- Can also use sample-based approaches such as Markov chain Monte Carlo, or variational methods (out of scope).

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# The Prior as Data Processor

We can view Bayes rule, and the use of a prior, as providing a framework for processing data:

$$\text{prior} \rightarrow \text{data}^{(1)} \rightarrow \text{posterior} \rightarrow \text{data}^{(2)} \rightarrow \text{posterior} \rightarrow \dots$$

The posterior carries forward our current belief, ready to be used to “process” more data.

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## Example (Warm-up)

- Sample  $x_i \in \{Cherry, Lime\}$ , candy from an opaque bag.

- Generative model:

$$p(x|\theta) = \begin{cases} \theta & \text{if } x = Lime \\ (1 - \theta) & \text{if } x = Cherry \end{cases}$$

for parameter  $\theta \in \{0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1\}$ .

■	Prior	$\theta$	0	0.25	0.5	0.75	1
		$p(\theta)$	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1

- Data are  $D = Lime, Lime, Lime, Lime, \dots$

- After 1 *Lime*,  $\theta_{MLE} = 1$ ;  $p(D|\theta = 1) = (1)^2 > p(D|\theta = 0.75) = (0.75)^2$

- $\theta_{MAP}$  is 0.5, 0.75, 1.0,; e.g., after *Lime, Lime*, we have  $p(D|\theta = 0.75)p(\theta = 0.75) = (0.75)^2(0.2) > p(D|\theta = 1)p(\theta = 1) = (1)^2(0.1)$ .

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## Bernoulli model

- Coin flip = Bernoulli distribution. '1' w.p.  $\theta$ , '0' otherwise.

$$p(x|\theta) = \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{1-x}$$

- Likelihood function:

$$p(D|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \theta^{x_i}(1 - \theta)^{1-x_i} = \theta^{n_1}(1 - \theta)^{n_0}$$

where  $n_1$  is number 1s and  $n_0$  is number 0s.

- Taking the log, we have  $n_1 \ln \theta + n_0 \ln(1 - \theta)$ . Optimizing:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\theta}[\cdot] &= \frac{n_1}{\theta} - \frac{n_0}{1 - \theta} = 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow \theta_{\text{MLE}} &= \frac{n_1}{n_0 + n_1}. \end{aligned}$$

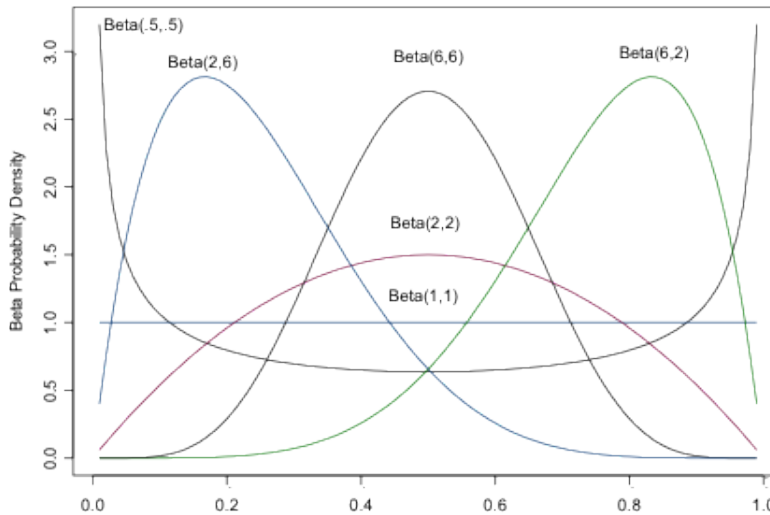
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## Bernoulli: Bayesian approach

Put a Beta prior on parameter  $\theta$ , with probability density:

$$p(\theta) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{Z} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

where  $Z$  is a normalization constant, and  $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$ .



Mean  $\mathbb{E}[\theta] = \alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$ ; more peaked as  $\alpha + \beta$  increases.

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## Beta-Bernoulli: Conjugate Pair

- Given Bernoulli likelihood and Beta prior, we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta|D) &\propto p(D|\theta)p(\theta) \\ &= \theta^{n_1} (1-\theta)^{n_0} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1} \\ &= \theta^{n_1+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n_0+\beta-1} \end{aligned}$$

- The posterior is:

$$p(\theta|D) = \text{Beta}(\theta|n_1 + \alpha, n_0 + \beta),$$

and the same form as the prior. This is the **conjugate** property.

- Beta-Bernoulli are a conjugate pair.
- Interpret  $\alpha$  as the number of **pseudocounts** of 1s seen before, and  $\beta$  as the number of **pseudocounts** of 0s seen before.

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## Bernoulli-Beta: The MAP Estimate

- The mode of the Beta distribution is:

$$\arg \max_{\theta} \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha + \beta - 2}$$

for  $\alpha > 1, \beta > 1$  (which we assume).

- Given posterior

$$p(\theta|D) = \text{Beta}(\theta|n_1 + \alpha, n_0 + \beta),$$

we have

$$\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{\alpha + n_1 - 1}{\alpha + \beta + n_1 + n_0 - 2}.$$

- For example, if data are  $D = 1, 1, 0$ , then  $\theta_{\text{MLE}} = n_1/n = 2/3$ .

Given prior  $\text{Beta}(2, 4)$ , we have  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{2+2-1}{2+4+3-2} = \frac{3}{7}$ .

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## Conjugate distributions

### Definition (Conjugate property)

$p(\theta)$  is a **conjugate prior** on parameter  $\theta$  for likelihood  $p(D|\theta)$  if posterior  $p(\theta|D)$  has the same form as the prior.

- Beta-Bernoulli form a conjugate pair.
- With a conjugate prior, we can easily use Bayes for data processing:

$$\text{prior} \rightarrow \text{data}^{(1)} \rightarrow \text{posterior} \rightarrow \text{data}^{(2)} \rightarrow \text{posterior} \rightarrow \dots$$

where the distributions on parameters are all from the same family.

- Other conjugate pair examples (all in the **exponential family**) are Gamma-Poisson, Dirichlet-Multinomial, and Normal-Normal.

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- Can also compute the posterior predictive for a new example:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x = 1|D) &= \int_{\theta} p(x = 1|\theta)p(\theta|D)d\theta \\ &= \int_{\theta} \theta \cdot p(\theta|D)d\theta = \mathbb{E}_{\theta|D}[\theta] \\ &= \frac{\alpha + n_1}{\alpha + \beta + n_1 + n_0} \end{aligned}$$

- With  $D = 1, 1, 0$  and prior  $\text{Beta}(2, 4)$ , this is

$$p(x = 1|D) = \frac{2 + 2}{2 + 4 + 3} = \frac{4}{9}$$

- Comparing with  $P(x = 1|\theta_{\text{MAP}}) = 3/7$  and  $P(x = 1|\theta_{\text{MLE}}) = 2/3$ , this is inbetween, with  $3/7 < 4/9 < 2/3$ .

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## Warm-up: Univariate Normal

- $D = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , with  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

- Generative model:

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

given parameters  $\mu, \sigma^2$ .

- Maximum likelihood estimation (known  $\sigma^2$ ):

$$\mu_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

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## MAP Estimator for Univariate Normal

- Model  $\mathcal{N}(x | \mu, \sigma^2)$ . Assume variance known, and treat  $\mu$  as a r.v.
- Conjugate pair for mean is Normal-Normal, and thus adopt  $\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(m_0, s_0^2)$ , for parameters  $m_0$  and  $s_0^2$ .
- After  $n$  examples, write posterior  $\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(m_n, s_n^2)$ . We have:

$$m_n = \frac{\sigma^2}{ns_0^2 + \sigma^2} m_0 + \frac{ns_0^2}{ns_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_{\text{MLE}} \quad (1)$$

$$s_n^2 = \left( \frac{1}{s_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \right)^{-1} \quad (2)$$

- Thus  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} = m_n$  (since mode of Normal = mean). We see:
  - As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} \rightarrow \mu_{\text{MLE}}$ ; As  $s_0 \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} \rightarrow \mu_{\text{MLE}}$ ;
  - As  $\sigma \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} \rightarrow m_0$ .

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## Figuring out the Posterior (1 of 2)

Posterior

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mu|D) &\propto p(\mu)P(D|\mu) \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\mu|m_0, s_0^2) \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{N}(x_i|\mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s_0^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(\mu - m_0)^2}{2s_0^2}\right) \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Taking logs, and collecting constant terms, we have:

$$\ln p(\mu|D) \propto \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{(\mu - m_0)^2}{s_0^2} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \right]$$

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## Figuring out the Posterior (2 of 2)

Expand, fold terms that don't depend on  $\mu$  into the constant, collect quadratic and linear terms:

$$\ln p(\mu|D) \propto \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \mu^2 \left( \frac{1}{s_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \right) - 2\mu \left( \frac{m_0}{s_0^2} + \frac{\sum x_i}{\sigma^2} \right) \right]$$

Complete the square, moving additional terms into the constant

$$\ln p(\mu|D) \propto \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{(\mu - m_n)^2}{s_n^2} \right],$$

where

$$\frac{1}{s_n^2} = \left( \frac{1}{s_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \right); \quad m_n = \left( \frac{m_0}{s_0^2} + \frac{n \cdot \mu_{\text{MLE}}}{\sigma^2} \right).$$

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## Extension: Multivariate Normal

- $D = \{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$

- Generative model:

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|2\pi\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right),$$

with known  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ .

- Prior  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{S}_0)$ , for parameters  $\mathbf{m}_0$  and  $\mathbf{S}_0$ .

- Posterior after  $n$  examples is  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{S}_n)$ , and:

$$\mathbf{S}_n = (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + n\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1})^{-1} \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_n = \mathbf{S}_n (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1}\mathbf{m}_0 + n\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}}) \quad (4)$$

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## Interpretation of MAP estimator

- Posterior  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{S}_n)$ , and:

$$\mathbf{S}_n = (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + n\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{m}_n = \mathbf{S}_n (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1}\mathbf{m}_0 + n\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}})$$

- Prior is overwhelmed as  $n$  gets bigger, with  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}}$  having a larger effect on  $\mathbf{S}_n$  and  $\mathbf{m}_n$ , respectively.
- With a strong prior, then  $\mathbf{S}_0$  has small positive numbers on diagonal and inverse would have large numbers on diagonal, would “compete” with  $n$  to center the posterior mean at  $\mathbf{m}_0$  instead of  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}}$ .
- Posterior cov. depends on data only through amount of data  $n$ . Wouldn't be case if  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  was also unknown. (See Bishop 2.3.6).

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## Figuring out the Posterior (v2)

Posterior  $p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|D) \propto p(\boldsymbol{\mu})P(D|\boldsymbol{\mu})$ . Taking logs, we have  $\ln p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|D) =$

$$\text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \mathbf{m}_0)^\top \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \mathbf{m}_0) + \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right]$$

Expand, folding terms that don't depend on  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  into the constant:

$$= \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \boldsymbol{\mu}^\top \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu} - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i + n\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu} \right]$$

Now collect quadratic and linear terms, and write  $\sum_i \mathbf{x}_i = n\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}}$ .

$$= \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \boldsymbol{\mu}^\top (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + n\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}) \boldsymbol{\mu} - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top (\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 + n\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}}) \right]$$

Complete the square, moving additional terms into the constant

$$= \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \mathbf{m}_n)^\top \mathbf{S}_n^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \mathbf{m}_n),$$

where we can check that we obtain  $\mathbf{S}_n$  as in (3) and  $\mathbf{m}_n$  as in (4).

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# Bayesian Linear Regression

- $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y)\}_{i=1}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ . Generative model:

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i, \beta^{-1}).$$

- Likelihood for data:

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

- Put prior on weights  $\mathbf{w}$ , assume precision  $\beta$  known.

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

- Write posterior after  $n$  examples as  $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{S}_n)$ . We show:

$$\mathbf{S}_n = \left(\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \quad (5)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_n = \mathbf{S}_n \left(\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 + \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}\right) \quad (6)$$

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## Interpretation of Bayesian LR MAP Estimator

Posterior  $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{S}_n)$ , with:

$$\mathbf{S}_n = \left(\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{m}_n = \mathbf{S}_n \left(\mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 + \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}\right)$$

- The MAP estimate is  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \mathbf{m}_n$ .
- With a weak prior, then  $\mathbf{S}_0$  has large entries on the diagonal, and  $\mathbf{S}_0^{-1}$  is close to zero, and we have

$$\mathbf{S}_n \approx \beta^{-1}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

In addition, we have

$$\mathbf{m}_n \approx \beta^{-1}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} = \theta_{\text{MLE}}$$

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## Special case: Simple Prior on Weights

- Suppose  $p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I})$ . Posterior is  $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{S}_n)$ , with

$$\mathbf{S}_n = (\alpha\mathbf{I} + \beta\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{X})^{-1}, \quad \mathbf{m}_n = \beta\mathbf{S}_n\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{y}.$$

- We see that

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{MAP}} = \mathbf{m}_n = \beta(\alpha\mathbf{I} + \beta\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{X} + \frac{\alpha}{\beta}\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{y},$$

and we recover ridge regression!

- Can also check the log posterior, which is  $\ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}) +$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \ln \mathcal{N}(y_i|\mathbf{w}^\top\mathbf{x}_i, \beta^{-1}) = \text{const} - \frac{\alpha}{2}\mathbf{w}^\top\mathbf{w} - \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top\mathbf{x}_i)^2,$$

and takes form of ridge penalty plus sum-of-squares error.

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## Figuring out the Posterior (v3!)

Posterior  $p(\mathbf{w}|D) \propto p(\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})$ . Taking logs, expanding and folding terms that don't depend on  $\mathbf{w}$  into the constant,  $\ln p(\mathbf{w}|D) =$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_0)^\top \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_0) + \beta (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \right] \\ & = \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 - 2\beta \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \beta \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Collecting the quadratic and linear terms:

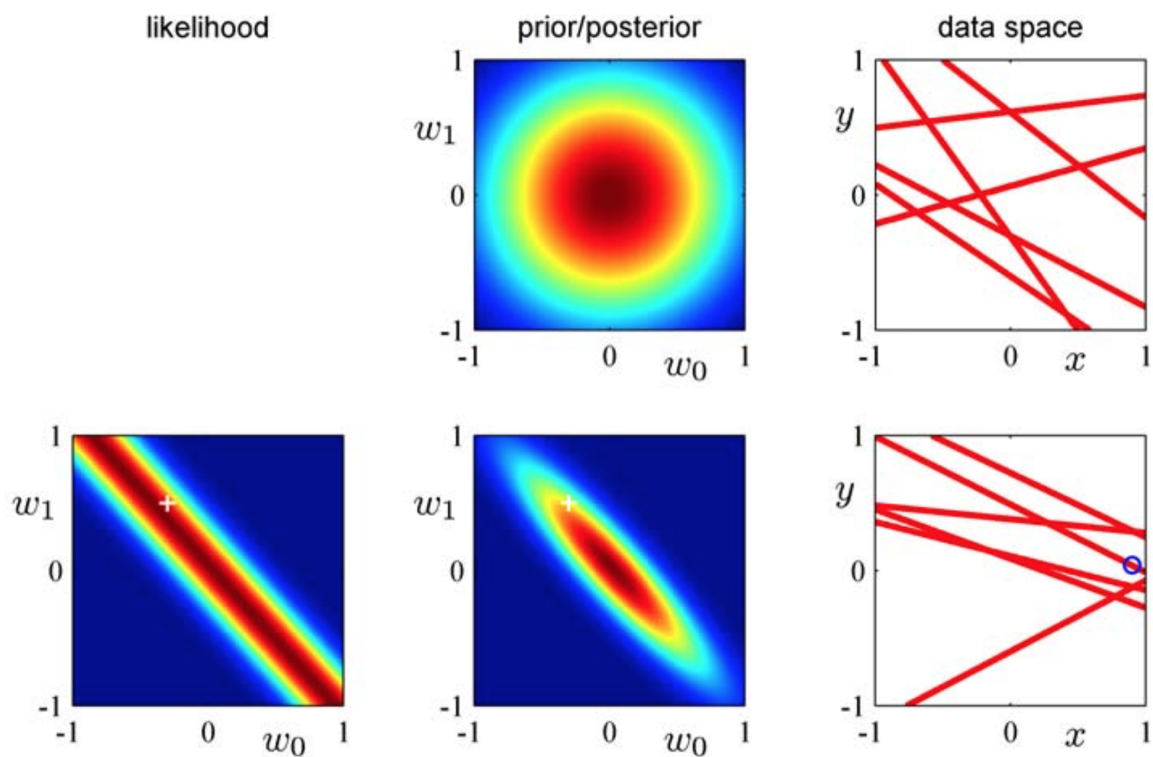
$$= \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \mathbf{w}^\top \left( \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} + \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \right) \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^\top \left( \mathbf{S}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0 + \beta \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} \right) \right]$$

Completing the square, we have:

$$= \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_n)^\top \mathbf{S}_n^{-1} (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_n),$$

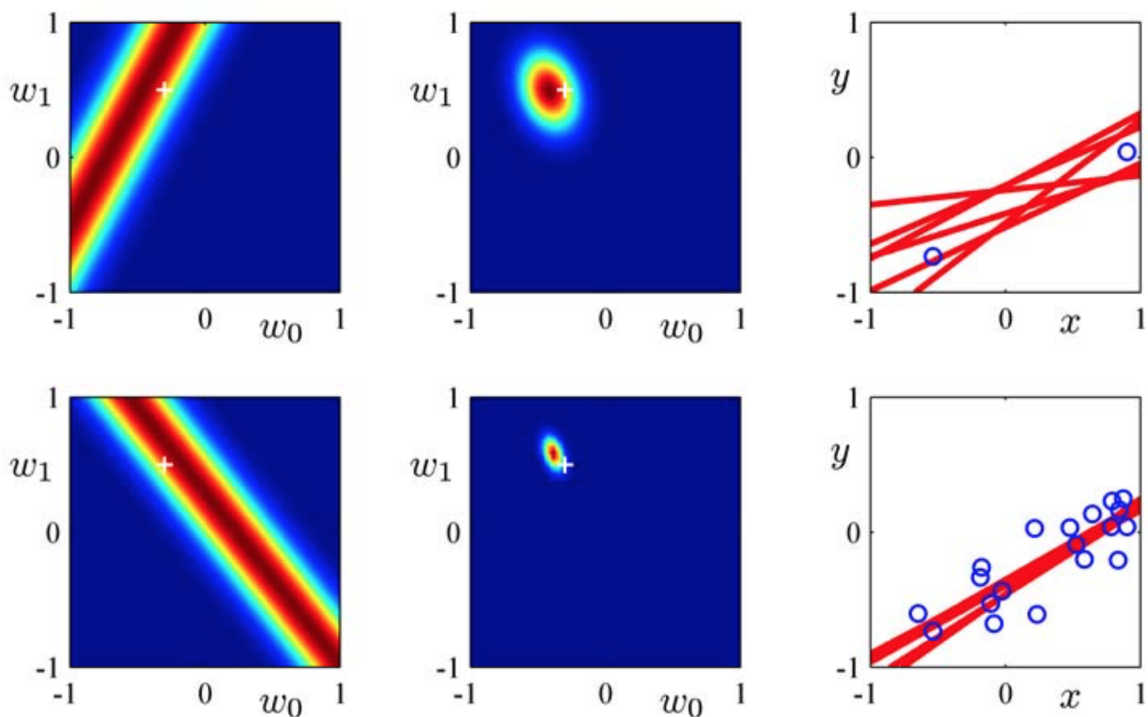
where we can check that we obtain  $\mathbf{S}_n$  as in (5) and  $\mathbf{m}_n$  as in (6).

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(Bishop)  $w_0$  offset. First example, see likelihood, product with prior giving new posterior, and new sample of possible relationships.

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(Bishop) Observe second data point, see likelihood, product with most recent posterior giving new posterior, and new sample of possible relationships. Finally after 20 examples.

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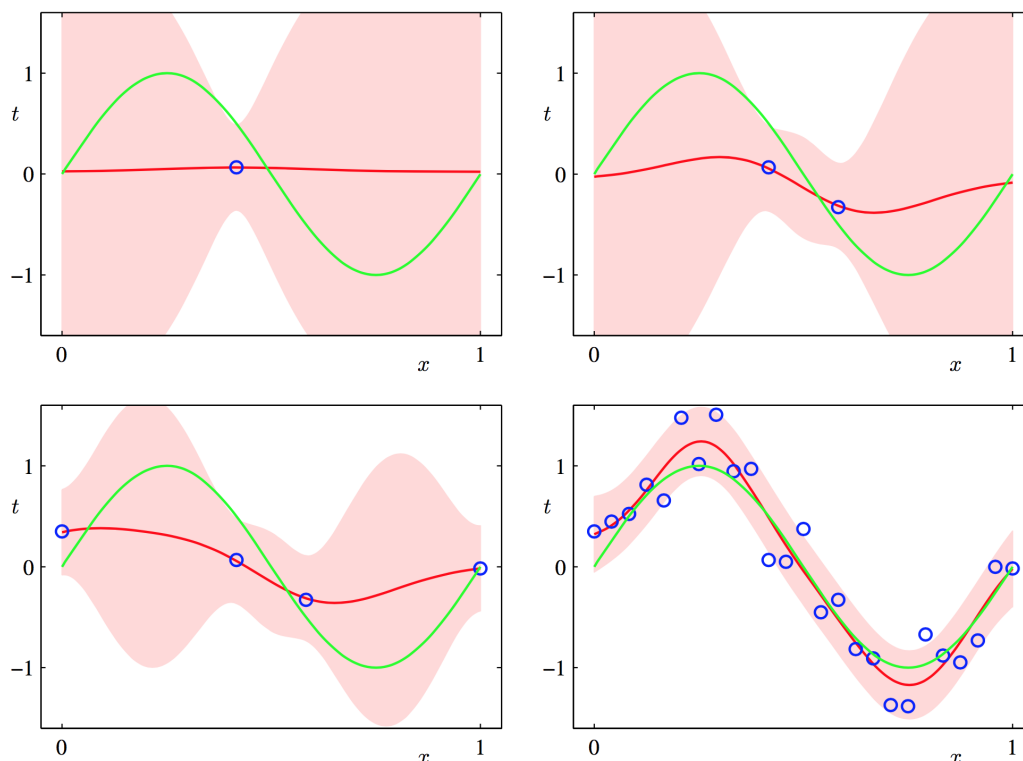
$$\begin{aligned}
 p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, D) &= \int_{\mathbf{w}} p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, D) = \int_{\mathbf{w}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}|D)d\mathbf{w} \\
 &= \int_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}, \beta^{-1})\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{S}_n)d\mathbf{w}
 \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Interpretation:

- For a r.v.  $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ , and transform  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{b}$ , then  $\mathbf{y}$  is distributed  $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}^\top)$
- (7) draws  $\mathbf{w}$  from the posterior, and linearly transforms it with  $\mathbf{x}^\top$  (and adds some noise). Also: when we add two Normal r.v.s, the covariance of sum is some of covariance matrices.
- Predict the target value as follows:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, D) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{m}_n, \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{S}_n \mathbf{x} + \beta^{-1})$$

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(Bishop). Posterior predictive for a model with 9 Gaussian basis functions. Green = true model. 1, 2, 4 then 25 points. Red curve is mean of posterior predictive distribution. Red shaded region =  $\pm 1$  sd of mean.

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## Bayesian Model Selection (1 of 2)

- We have focused on using the Bayesian method to avoid over-fitting when learning parameters.
- Can also be used for model selection. The idea is to also introduce a prior on models, along with a prior on parameters for each model.
- This provides an alternative to using a validation set (or cross-validation) for model selection.

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## Bayesian Model Selection (2 of 2)

- Suppose we have a collection of models,  $\{m_1, \dots, m_\ell\}$ , and we want to use the data to form a posterior on models.

- True model  $M$  is a r.v., and has prior  $p(m_k)$ . We can evaluate

$$p(M = m_k | D) \propto \underbrace{p(D | M = m_k)}_{\text{model evidence}} \underbrace{p(M = m_k)}_{\text{model prior}}$$

- Second term expands as:

$$\begin{aligned} p(D | M = m_k) &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(D, \boldsymbol{\theta} | M = m_k) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \\ &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \underbrace{p(D | \boldsymbol{\theta}, M = m_k)}_{\text{likelihood data}} \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | M = m_k)}_{\text{prior on parameters}} d\boldsymbol{\theta} \end{aligned}$$

- A complex model will tend to increase the first term, but decrease the second term. Also have a lower model prior.

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## Summary

- The Bayesian approach balances old data against new, accumulates information in the posterior.
- We think about the effect of data on a posterior on parameters.
- Given this posterior, we can extract a point estimate or compute the full posterior predictive.
- It is extremely helpful when the prior and likelihood functions form conjugate pairs, so that posterior in same form as prior.
- The MAP estimate in Bayesian LR reduces to MLE (and min-squared-error) when the prior on weights is uninformative, and to ridge regression when the prior on weights is zero mean and isotropic.

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