Bayesian Regression

MLAI: Week 6

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Outline

Quick Review: Overdetermined Systems

Underdetermined Systems

Bayesian Regression

Univariate Bayesian Linear Regression

Bayesian Polynomials

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$
$$y_2 = mx_2 + c$$



$$y_1 - y_2 = m(x_1 - x_2)$$



$$\frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2} = m$$



$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

$$c = y_1 - mx_1$$



How do we deal with three simultaneous equations with only two unknowns?

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$

$$y_2 = mx_2 + c$$

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c$$



Overdetermined System

• With two unknowns and two observations:

 $y_1 = mx_1 + c$ $y_2 = mx_2 + c$

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Additional observation leads to overdetermined system.

 $y_3 = mx_3 + c$

Overdetermined System

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 $y_1 = mx_1 + c$ $y_2 = mx_2 + c$

Additional observation leads to *overdetermined* system.

 $y_3 = mx_3 + c$

• This problem is solved through a noise model $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c + \epsilon_1$$

$$y_2 = mx_2 + c + \epsilon_2$$

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c + \epsilon_3$$

- We aren't modeling entire system.
- Noise model gives mismatch between model and data.
- Gaussian model justified by appeal to central limit theorem.
- Other models also possible (Student-*t* for heavy tails).
- Maximum likelihood with Gaussian noise leads to *least* squares.

y = mx + c















y = mx + c

point 1:
$$x = 1, y = 3$$

 $3 = m + c$
point 2: $x = 3, y = 1$
 $1 = 3m + c$
point 3: $x = 2, y = 2.5$
 $2.5 = 2m + c$



riens. L'opinion contraire est une illusion de l'esprit qui, perdant de vue les raisons fugitives du choix de la volonté dans les choses indifférentes, se persuade qu'elle s'est déterminée d'ellemême et sans motifs.

Nous devons donc envisager l'état présent de l'univers, comme l'effet de son état antérieur, et comme la cause de celui qui va suivre. Une intelligence qui, pour un instant donné, connaîtrait toutes les forces dont la nature est animée, et la situation respective des êtres qui la composent, si d'ailleurs elle était assez vaste pour soumettre ces données à l'analyse, embrasserait dans la même formule les mouvemens des plus grands corps de l'univers et ceux du plus léger atome : rien ne serait incertain pour elle, et l'avenir comme le passé, serait présent à ses yeux. L'esprit humain offre, dans la perfection qu'il a su donner à l'Astronomie, une faible esquisse de cette intelligence. Ses découvertes en Mécanique et en Géométrie, jointes à celle de la pesanteur universelle, l'ont mis à portée de comprendre dans les mêmes expressions analytiques , les états passés et futurs du système du monde. En appliquant la même méthode à quelques autres objets de ses connaissances , il est parvetiu à ramener à des lois générales, les phénomènes observés, et à prévoir ceux que des circonstances données doivent faire éclore. Tous ces efforts dans la recherche de la vérité, tendent à le rapprocher sans cesse de l'intelligence que nous venons de concevoir, mais dont il restera toujours infiniment éloigné. Cette tendance propre à l'espèce humaine, est ce qui la rend supérieure aux animaux; et ses progrès en ce genre, distinguent les nations et les siècles, et font leur véritable gloire.

Rappelons-nous qu'autrefois, et à une époque qui

4 A PHILOSOPHICAL ESSAY ON PROBABILITIES.

other, we say that its choice is an effect without a cause. It is then, says Leibnitz, the blind chance of the Epicureans. The contrary opinion is an illusion of the mind, which, losing sight of the evasive reasons of the choice of the will in indifferent things, believes that choice is determined of itself and without motives.

We ought then to regard the present state of the universe as the effect of its anterior state and as the cause of the one which is to follow. Given for one instant an intelligence which could comprehend all the forces by which nature is animated and the respective situation of the beings who compose it-an intelligence sufficiently vast to submit these data to analysis-it would embrace in the same formula the movements of the greatest bodies of the universe and those of the lightest atom; for it, nothing would be uncertain and the future, as the past, would be present to its eyes. The human mind offers, in the perfection which it has been able to give to astronomy, a feeble idea of this intelligence. Its discoveries in mechanics and geometry, added to that of universal gravity, have enabled it to comprehend in the same analytical expressions the past and future states of the system of the world. Applying the same method to some other objects of its knowledge, it has succeeded in referring to general laws observed phenomena and in foreseeing those which given circumstances ought to produce. All these efforts in the search for truth tend to lead it back continually to the vast intelligence which we have just mentioned. but from which it will always remain infinitely removed. This tendency, peculiar to the human race, is that which renders it superior to animals; and their progress

6 A PHILOSOPHICAL ESSAY ON PROBABILITIES.

height: "The day will come when, by study pursued through several ages, the things now concealed will appear with evidence; and posterity will be astonished that truths so clear had escaped us." Clairaut then undertook to submit to analysis the perturbations which the comet had experienced by the action of the two great planets, Jupiter and Saturn; after immense calculations he fixed its next passage at the perihelion toward the beginning of April, 1759, which was actually verified by observation. The regularity which astronomy shows us in the movements of the comets doubtless exists also in all phenomena.

The curve described by a simple molecule of air or vapor is regulated in a manner just as certain as the planetary orbits; the only difference between them is that which comes from our ignorance.

Probability is relative, in part to this ignorance, in part to our knowledge. We know that of three or a greater number of events a single one ought to occur; but nothing induces us to believe that one of them will occur rather than the others. In this state of indecision it is impossible for us to announce their occurrence with certainty. It is, however, probable that one of these events, chosen at will, will not occur because we see several cases equally possible which exclude its occurrence, while only a single one favors it.

The theory of chance consists in reducing all the events of the same kind to a certain number of cases equally possible, that is to say, to such as we may be equally undecided about in regard to their existence, and in determining the number of cases favorable to the event whose probability is sought. The ratio of $y = mx + c + \epsilon$

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 $3 = m + c + \epsilon_1$
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 $2.5 = 2m + c + \epsilon_3$

Perhaps the most common probability density.

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

The Gaussian density.

Gaussian Density



The Gaussian PDF with $\mu = 1.7$ and variance $\sigma^2 = 0.0225$. Mean shown as red line. It could represent the heights of a population of students.

Gaussian Density

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

 σ^2 is the variance of the density and μ is the mean.

Sum of Gaussians

• Sum of Gaussian variables is also Gaussian.

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2\right)$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i^2\right)$$

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Scaling a Gaussian

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Scaling a Gaussian

• Scaling a Gaussian leads to a Gaussian.

$$y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \sigma^2\right)$$

And the scaled density is distributed as

$$wy \sim \mathcal{N}\left(w\mu, w^2\sigma^2\right)$$

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Bayesian Polynomials
What about two unknowns and *one* observation?

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$





Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = 1.75 \Longrightarrow m = 1.25$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

$$c = -0.777 \Longrightarrow m = 3.78$$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -4.01 \Longrightarrow m = 7.01$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -0.718 \Longrightarrow m = 3.72$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = 2.45 \Longrightarrow m = 0.545$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -0.657 \Longrightarrow m = 3.66$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -3.13 \Longrightarrow m = 6.13$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

$$c = -1.47 \Longrightarrow m = 4.47$$



Can compute *m* given *c*. Assume

$$c \sim \mathcal{N}(0,4)$$
,

we find a distribution of solutions.



- The first type of uncertainty we are assuming is *aleatoric* uncertainty.
- The second type of uncertainty we are assuming is *epistemic* uncertainty.

Aleatoric Uncertainty

- This is uncertainty we couldn't know even if we wanted to. e.g. the result of a football match before it's played.
- Where a sheet of paper might land on the floor.

Quick Review: Overdetermined Systems

Underdetermined Systems

Bayesian Regression

Univariate Bayesian Linear Regression

Bayesian Polynomials

- Bayesian inference requires a prior on the parameters.
- The prior represents your belief *before* you see the data of the likely value of the parameters.
- For linear regression, consider a Gaussian prior on the intercept:

 $c \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha_1)$

- Posterior distribution is found by combining the prior with the likelihood.
- Posterior distribution is your belief *after* you see the data of the likely value of the parameters.
- ► The posterior is found through **Bayes' Rule**

$$p(c|y) = \frac{p(y|c)p(c)}{p(y)}$$



Figure: A Gaussian prior combines with a Gaussian likelihood for a Gaussian posterior.



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Stages to Derivation of the Posterior

- Multiply likelihood by prior
 - ► they are "exponentiated quadratics", the answer is always also an exponentiated quadratic because exp(a²) exp(b²) = exp(a² + b²).
- Complete the square to get the resulting density in the form of a Gaussian.
- Recognise the mean and (co)variance of the Gaussian. This is the estimate of the posterior.

Main Trick

$$p(c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\alpha_1}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\alpha_1}c^2\right)$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, c, m, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - mx_i - c)^2\right)$$

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$$p(c|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, m, \sigma^2) \propto p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, c, m, \sigma^2)p(c)$$

$$\log p(c|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, m, \sigma^2) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - c - mx_i)^2 - \frac{1}{2\alpha_1} c^2 + \text{const}$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - mx_i)^2 - \left(\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\alpha_1}\right) c^2$$
$$+ c \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - mx_i)}{\sigma^2},$$

complete the square of the quadratic form to obtain

$$\log p(c|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, m, \sigma^{2}) = -\frac{1}{2\tau^{2}}(c - \mu)^{2} + \text{const},$$

where $\tau^{2} = (n\sigma^{-2} + \alpha_{1}^{-1})^{-1}$ and $\mu = \frac{\tau^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_{i} - mx_{i}).$

- Really want to know the *joint* posterior density over the parameters *c* and *m*.
- Could now integrate out over *m*, but it's easier to consider the multivariate case.

Aleatoric Uncertainty

- This is uncertainty we couldn't know even if we wanted to. e.g. the result of a football match before it's played.
- Where a sheet of paper might land on the floor.

- This is uncertainty we could in principal know the answer too. We just haven't observed enough yet, e.g. the result of a football match *after* it's played.
- What colour socks your lecturer is wearing.

- ▶ Bishop Section 1.2.3 (pg 21–24).
- ▶ Bishop Section 1.2.6 (start from just past eq 1.64 pg 30-32).
- Rogers and Girolami use an example of a coin toss for introducing Bayesian inference Chapter 3, Sections 3.1-3.4 (pg 95-117). Although you also need the beta density which we haven't yet discussed. This is also the example that Laplace used.

- Bayesian Inference
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- Really want to know the *joint* posterior density over the parameters *c* and *m*.
- Could now integrate out over *m*, but it's easier to consider the multivariate case.

- ► Consider height, *h*/*m* and weight, *w*/*kg*.
- Could sample height from a distribution:

 $p(h) \sim \mathcal{N}(1.7, 0.0225)$

And similarly weight:

 $p(w) \sim N(75, 36)$

Height and Weight Models



Gaussian distributions for height and weight.

Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



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Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



• This assumes height and weight are independent.

p(h,w) = p(h)p(w)

• In reality they are dependent (body mass index) = $\frac{w}{h^2}$.

Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions










































p(w,h) = p(w)p(h)

$$p(w,h) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1^2}\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_2^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(w-\mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(h-\mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right)\right)$$

$$p(w,h) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1^2 2\pi\sigma_2^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{bmatrix}w\\h\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}\mu_1\\\mu_2\end{bmatrix}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \begin{bmatrix}\sigma_1^2 & 0\\0 & \sigma_2^2\end{bmatrix}^{-1}\left(\begin{bmatrix}w\\h\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}\mu_1\\\mu_2\end{bmatrix}\right)\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\mathbf{D}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

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$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\mathbf{D}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{R}^{\top}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{R}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top}\mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{R}^{\top}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{R}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\mathbf{D}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

this gives a covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{R}^{\top}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\mathbf{C}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{C}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

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 $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{R}^{\top}$

- Section 2.3 of Bishop up to top of pg 85 (multivariate Gaussians).
- ► Section 3.3 of Bishop up to 159 (pg 152–159).

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Underdetermined Systems

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Univariate Bayesian Linear Regression

Bayesian Polynomials

- Use Bayesian approach on olympics data with polynomials.
- Choose a prior $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I})$ with $\alpha = 1$.
- Choose noise variance $\sigma^2 = 0.01$

- Always useful to perform a 'sanity check' and sample from the prior before observing the data.
- Since $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ just need to sample

 $w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha)$ $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2)$

with $\alpha = 1$ and $\epsilon = 0.01$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 0, model error 29.757, $\sigma^2 = 0.286$, $\sigma = 0.535$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 1, model error 14.942, $\sigma^2 = 0.0749$, $\sigma = 0.274$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 2, model error 9.7206, $\sigma^2 = 0.0427$, $\sigma = 0.207$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 3, model error 10.416, $\sigma^2 = 0.0402$, $\sigma = 0.200$.
Polynomial Fits to Olympics Data



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 4, model error 11.34, $\sigma^2 = 0.0401$, $\sigma = 0.200$.

Polynomial Fits to Olympics Data



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 5, model error 11.986, $\sigma^2 = 0.0399$, $\sigma = 0.200$.

Polynomial Fits to Olympics Data



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 6, model error 12.369, $\sigma^2 = 0.0384$, $\sigma = 0.196$.

- Marginal likelihood doesn't always increase as model order increases.
- Bayesian model always has 2 parameters, regardless of how many basis functions (and here we didn't even fit them).
- Maximum likelihood model over fits through increasing number of parameters.
- Revisit maximum likelihood solution with validation set.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 0, training error -1.8774, validation error -0.13132, $\sigma^2 = 0.302$, $\sigma = 0.549$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 1, training error -15.325, validation error 2.5863, $\sigma^2 = 0.0733$, $\sigma = 0.271$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 2, training error -17.579, validation error -8.4831, $\sigma^2 = 0.0578$, $\sigma = 0.240$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 3, training error -18.064, validation error 11.27, $\sigma^2 = 0.0549$, $\sigma = 0.234$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 4, training error -18.245, validation error 232.92, $\sigma^2 = 0.0539$, $\sigma = 0.232$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 5, training error -20.471, validation error 9898.1, $\sigma^2 = 0.0426$, $\sigma = 0.207$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 6, training error -22.881, validation error 67775, $\sigma^2 = 0.0331$, $\sigma = 0.182$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 0, training error 29.757, validation error -0.29243, $\sigma^2 = 0.302$, $\sigma = 0.550$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 1, training error 14.942, validation error 4.4027, $\sigma^2 = 0.0762$, $\sigma = 0.276$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 2, training error 9.7206, validation error -8.6623, $\sigma^2 = 0.0580$, $\sigma = 0.241$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 3, training error 10.416, validation error -6.4726, $\sigma^2 = 0.0555$, $\sigma = 0.236$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 4, training error 11.34, validation error -8.431, $\sigma^2 = 0.0555$, $\sigma = 0.236$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 5, training error 11.986, validation error -10.483, $\sigma^2 = 0.0551$, $\sigma = 0.235$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 6, training error 12.369, validation error -3.3823, $\sigma^2 = 0.0537$, $\sigma = 0.232$.

- ► Validation fit here based on mean solution for **w** only.
- For Bayesian solution

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{w} = \left[\sigma^{-2}\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\Phi} + \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}\right]^{-1}\sigma^{-2}\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$$

instead of

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \left[\mathbf{\Phi}^\top \mathbf{\Phi} \right]^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

- Two are equivalent when $\alpha \to \infty$.
- Equivalent to a prior for **w** with infinite variance.
- In other cases αI regularizes the system (keeps parameters smaller).

Sampling the Posterior

- ► Now check samples by extracting **w** from the *posterior*.
- Now for $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ need

$$w \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_w, \mathbf{C}_w)$$

with
$$\mathbf{C}_{w} = \left[\sigma^{-2}\mathbf{\Phi}^{\top}\mathbf{\Phi} + \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}\right]^{-1}$$
 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{w} = \mathbf{C}_{w}\sigma^{-2}\mathbf{\Phi}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$
 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{2}\right)$

with $\alpha = 1$ and $\epsilon = 0.01$.

The marginal likelihood can also be computed, it has the form:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\sigma^{2},\alpha) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |\mathbf{K}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{y}\right)$$

where **K** = $\alpha \Phi \Phi^{\top} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$.

► So it is a zero mean *n*-dimensional Gaussian with covariance matrix **K**.

Computing the Expected Output

- Given the posterior for the parameters, how can we compute the expected output at a given location?
- Output of model at location x_i is given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) = \boldsymbol{\phi}_i^\top \mathbf{w}$$

- We want the expected output under the posterior density, $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \sigma^2, \alpha)$.
- Mean of mapping function will be given by

$$\langle f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) \rangle_{p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \sigma^2, \alpha)} = \boldsymbol{\phi}_i^\top \langle \mathbf{w} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \sigma^2, \alpha)}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\phi}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\mu}_w$$

Variance of model at location x_i is given by

$$\operatorname{var}(f(\mathbf{x}_{i};\mathbf{w})) = \left\langle (f(\mathbf{x}_{i};\mathbf{w}))^{2} \right\rangle - \left\langle f(\mathbf{x}_{i};\mathbf{w}) \right\rangle^{2}$$
$$= \phi_{i}^{\top} \left\langle \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \right\rangle \phi_{i} - \phi_{i}^{\top} \left\langle \mathbf{w} \right\rangle \left\langle \mathbf{w} \right\rangle^{\top} \phi_{i}$$
$$= \phi_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{C}_{i} \phi_{i}$$

where all these expectations are taken under the posterior density, $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}, \sigma^2, \alpha)$.

- ► Section 3.7–3.8 of Rogers and Girolami (pg 122–133).
- Section 3.4 of Bishop (pg 161–165).

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