

# Bayesian Linear Regression

Sudipto Banerjee

<sup>1</sup> Biostatistics, School of Public Health, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, U.S.A.

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- Linear regression is, perhaps, *the* most widely used statistical modelling tool.
- It addresses the following question: How does a quantity of primary interest,  $y$ , vary as (depend upon) another quantity, or set of quantities,  $\mathbf{x}$ ?
- The quantity  $y$  is called the *response* or *outcome variable*. Some people simply refer to it as the *dependent variable*.
- The variable(s)  $\mathbf{x}$  are called *explanatory variables*, *covariates* or simply *independent variables*.
- In general, we are interested in the conditional distribution of  $y$ , given  $\mathbf{x}$ , parametrized as  $p(y \mid \theta, \mathbf{x})$ .

- Typically, we have a set of *units* or *experimental subjects*  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .
- For each of these units we have measured an outcome  $y_i$  and a set of explanatory variables  $\mathbf{x}'_i = (1, x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$ .
- The first element of  $\mathbf{x}'_i$  is often taken as 1 to signify the presence of an “intercept”.
- We collect the outcome and explanatory variables into an  $n \times 1$  vector and an  $n \times (p + 1)$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}; \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}'_1 \\ \mathbf{x}'_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}'_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

- The linear model is the most fundamental of all serious statistical models underpinning:
  - ANOVA:  $y_i$  is continuous,  $x_{ij}$ 's are *all* categorical
  - REGRESSION:  $y_i$  is continuous,  $x_{ij}$ 's are continuous
  - ANCOVA:  $y_i$  is continuous,  $x_{ij}$ 's are continuous for some  $j$  and categorical for others.

- The Bayesian or hierarchical linear model is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_i \mid \mu_i, \sigma^2, \mathbf{X} &\stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_i, \sigma^2); \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \\
 \mu_i &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}; \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p); \\
 \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{X} &\sim p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{X}) .
 \end{aligned}$$

- Unknown parameters include the regression parameters and the variance, i.e.  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\}$ .
- $p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mid \mathbf{X}) \equiv p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{X})$  is the joint *prior* on the parameters.
- We assume  $\mathbf{X}$  is observed without error and all inference is conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$ .
- We suppress dependence on  $\mathbf{X}$  in subsequent notation.

- Specifying  $p(\beta, \sigma^2)$  completes the hierarchical model.
- All inference proceeds from  $p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$
- With no prior information, we specify

$$p(\beta, \sigma^2) \propto \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \text{ or equivalently } p(\beta) \propto 1; p(\log(\sigma^2)) \propto 1 .$$

- The above is **NOT** a probability density (they do not integrate to any finite number). So why is it that we are even discussing them?
- Even if the priors are *improper*, as long as the resulting posterior distributions are valid we can still conduct legitimate statistical inference on them.

## Computing the posterior distribution

- Strategy: Factor the joint posterior distribution for  $\beta$  and  $\sigma^2$  as:

$$p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}) = p(\beta | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y}) \times p(\sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}) .$$

- The *conditional posterior* distribution of  $\beta$ , given  $\sigma^2$ :

$$\beta | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y} \sim N(\hat{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_\beta),$$

where, using some algebra, one finds

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{V}_\beta = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} .$$

- The *marginal posterior* distribution of  $\sigma^2$ : Let  $k = (p + 1)$  be the number of columns of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

$$\sigma^2 | \mathbf{y} \sim IG \left( \frac{n - k}{2}, \frac{(n - k)s^2}{2} \right),$$

where

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n - k} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})' (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$$

is the classical unbiased estimate of  $\sigma^2$  in the linear regression model.

- The *marginal posterior* distribution  $p(\boldsymbol{\beta} | \mathbf{y})$ , averaging over  $\sigma^2$ , is *multivariate t* with  $n - k$  degrees of freedom. But we rarely use this fact in practice.
- Instead, we *sample* from the posterior distribution.



# Algorithm for sampling from the posterior distribution

- We draw samples from  $p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$  by executing the following steps:
- Step 1: Compute  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  and  $\mathbf{V}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ .
- Step 2: Compute  $s^2$ .

- Step 3: Draw  $M$  samples from  $p(\sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$ :

$$\sigma^{2(j)} \sim IG \left( \frac{n-k}{2}, \frac{(n-k)s^2}{2} \right), j = 1, \dots, M$$

- Step 4: For  $j = 1, \dots, M$ , draw  $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(j)}$  from  $p(\boldsymbol{\beta} | \sigma^{2(j)}, \mathbf{y})$ :

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(j)} \sim N \left( \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \sigma^{2(j)} \mathbf{V}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \right)$$

- The marginal distribution of each individual regression parameter  $\beta_j$  is a non-central univariate  $t_{n-p}$  distribution. In fact,

$$\frac{\beta_j - \hat{\beta}_j}{s\sqrt{\mathbf{V}_{\beta;jj}}} \sim t_{n-p}.$$

The 95% credible interval for each  $\beta_j$  is constructed from the quantiles of the  $t$ -distribution. This exactly coincides with the 95% classical confidence intervals, but the interpretation is direct: the probability of  $\beta_j$  falling in that interval, given the observed data, is 0.95.

- Note: an intercept only linear model reduces to the simple univariate  $N(\bar{y} \mid \mu, \sigma^2/n)$  likelihood, for which the marginal posterior of  $\mu$  is:

$$\frac{\mu - \bar{y}}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}.$$

- Suppose we have observed the new predictors  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ , and we wish to predict the outcome  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$ .
- If  $\beta$  and  $\sigma^2$  were known exactly, the random vector  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$  would follow  $N(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}\beta, \sigma^2\mathbf{I})$ .
- But we do not know model parameters, which contribute to the uncertainty in predictions.
- Predictions are carried out by sampling from the *posterior predictive* distribution,  $p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y})$ 
  - ① Draw  $\{\beta^{(j)}, \sigma^{2(j)}\} \sim p(\beta, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y})$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, M$
  - ② Draw  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}^{(j)} \sim N(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}\beta^{(j)}, \sigma^{2(j)}\mathbf{I})$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, M$ .

- Predictive Mean and Variance (conditional upon  $\sigma^2$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}E(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y}) &= \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \\ \text{var}(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \sigma^2, \mathbf{y}) &= (\mathbf{I} + \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{V}_{\beta}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}')\sigma^2.\end{aligned}$$

- The posterior predictive distribution,  $p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y})$ , is a *multivariate  $t$*  distribution,  $t_{n-p}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, s^2(\mathbf{I} + \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{V}_{\beta}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}'))$ .

# Incorporating prior information

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_i | \mu_i, \sigma^2 &\overset{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_i, \sigma^2); \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \\
 \mu_i &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}; \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p); \\
 \boldsymbol{\beta} | \sigma^2 &\sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{R}_\beta); \quad \sigma^2 \sim IG(a_\sigma, b_\sigma),
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{R}_\beta$  is a *fixed* correlation matrix. Alternatively,

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_i | \mu_i, \sigma^2 &\overset{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_i, \sigma^2); \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \\
 \mu_i &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}; \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p); \\
 \boldsymbol{\beta} | \Sigma_\beta &\sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \Sigma_\beta); \quad \Sigma_\beta \sim IW(\nu, \mathbf{S}); \quad \sigma^2 \sim IG(a_\sigma, b_\sigma),
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Sigma_\beta$  is a *random* covariance matrix.

- The Gibbs sampler: If  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)$  are the parameters in our model, we provide a set of initial values  $\theta^{(0)} = (\theta_1^{(0)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(0)})$  and then performs the  $j$ -th iteration, say for  $j = 1, \dots, M$ , by updating successively from the *full conditional* distributions:

$$\theta_1^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_1^{(j)} | \theta_2^{(j-1)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{y})$$

$$\theta_2^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_2^{(j)} | \theta_1^{(j)}, \theta_3^{(j)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{y})$$

$$\vdots$$

(the generic  $k^{th}$  element)

$$\theta_k^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_k^{(j)} | \theta_1^{(j)}, \dots, \theta_{k-1}^{(j)}, \theta_{k+1}^{(j-1)}, \dots, \theta_p^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{y})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\theta_p^{(j)} \sim p(\theta_p^{(j)} | \theta_1^{(j)}, \dots, \theta_{p-1}^{(j)}, \mathbf{y})$$

- In principle, the Gibbs sampler will work for extremely complex hierarchical models. The only issue is sampling from the full conditionals. They may not be amenable to easy sampling – when these are not in closed form. A more general and extremely powerful - and often easier to code - algorithm is the Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm.
- This algorithm also constructs a Markov Chain, but does not necessarily care about full conditionals.
- Popular approach: Embed Metropolis steps within Gibbs to draw from full conditionals that are not accessible to directly generate from.