Probabilistic models

Bayesian Methods

CDS, NYU

March 21, 2023



Contents

Classical Statistics

- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory

Interim summary

- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- 🕜 Gaussian Regression Example
- 8 Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Table of Contents

Classical Statistics

- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- 🕜 Gaussian Regression Example
- (8) Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Parametric Family of Densities

• A parametric family of densities is a set

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

- where $p(y \mid \theta)$ is a density on a **sample space** \mathcal{Y} , and
- θ is a **parameter** in a [finite dimensional] **parameter space** Θ .
- 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." (and replace integrals with sums).

• We're still working with a parametric family of densities:

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

- Assume that $p(y \mid \theta)$ 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.
- But instead of θ , we have data \mathcal{D} : y_1, \ldots, y_n sampled i.i.d. from $p(y \mid \theta)$.
- Statistics is about how to get by with ${\mathcal D}$ in place of $\theta.$

Point Estimation

- One type of statistical problem is **point estimation**.
- A statistic $s = s(\mathcal{D})$ is any function of the data.
- A statistic $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ taking values in Θ is a **point estimator of** θ .
- A good point estimator will have $\hat{\theta} \approx \theta$.
- Desirable statistical properties of point estimators:
 - **Consistency:** As data size $n \to \infty$, we get $\hat{\theta}_n \to \theta$.
 - Efficiency: (Roughly speaking) $\hat{\theta}_n$ is as accurate as we can get from a sample of size n.
- Maximum likelihood estimators are consistent and efficient under reasonable conditions.

Example of Point Estimation: Coin Flipping

• Parametric family of mass functions:

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

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

Coin Flipping: MLE

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

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = \boldsymbol{\rho}(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{n_h} (1 - \theta)^{n_t}$$

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

$$\begin{split} \hat{\theta}_{\mathsf{MLE}} &= \arg\max_{\substack{\theta \in \Theta \\ \theta \in \Theta}} \log \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) \\ &= \arg\max_{\substack{\theta \in \Theta \\ \theta \in \Theta}} [n_h \log \theta + n_t \log(1 - \theta)] \end{split}$$

• First order condition (equating the derivative to zero):

$$\frac{n_h}{\theta} - \frac{n_t}{1 - \theta} = 0 \iff \theta = \frac{n_h}{n_h + n_t} \qquad \hat{\theta}_{\mathsf{MLE}} \text{ is the empirical fraction of heads.}$$

Table of Contents

Classical Statistics

- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- 🕜 Gaussian Regression Example
- (8) Gaussian Regression: Closed form

- Baysian statistics introduces a crucial new ingredient: the prior distribution.
- A prior distribution $p(\theta)$ is a distribution on the parameter space Θ .
- The prior reflects our belief about θ , before seeing any data.

- A [parametric] Bayesian model consists of two pieces:
 - A parametric family of densities

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

2 A **prior distribution** $p(\theta)$ on parameter space Θ .

• Putting the pieces together, we get a joint density on θ and \mathcal{D} :

 $\boldsymbol{p}(\mathcal{D},\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{p}(\mathcal{D} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})\boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$

- The posterior distribution for θ is $p(\theta \mid D)$.
- Whereas the prior represents belief about θ before observing data \mathcal{D} ,
- The posterior represents the rationally updated belief about θ , after seeing \mathcal{D} .

Expressing the Posterior Distribution

• By Bayes rule, can write the posterior distribution as

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

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



 \bullet Where \propto means we've dropped factors that are independent of $\theta.$

• Recall that we have a parametric family of mass functions:

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

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

- We need a prior distribution $p(\theta)$ on $\Theta = (0, 1)$.
- One convenient choice would be a distribution from the Beta family

Coin Flipping: Beta Prior

• Prior:



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.

(CDS, NYU)

Coin Flipping: Beta Prior

• Prior:

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

• Mean of Beta distribution:

$$\mathbb{E}\theta = \frac{h}{h+t}$$

• Mode of Beta distribution:

$$\arg\max_{\theta} p(\theta) = \frac{h-1}{h+t-2}$$

for h, t > 1.

Coin Flipping: Posterior

• Prior:

$$\theta \sim \text{Beta}(h, t)$$

 $p(\theta) \propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1}$

• Likelihood function

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

• Posterior density:

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

The Posterior is in the Beta Family!

• Prior:

$$egin{array}{rcl} \theta &\sim & {\sf Beta}(h,t) \ p(heta) &\propto & heta^{h-1} \left(1\!-\! heta
ight)^{t-1} \end{array}$$

• Posterior density:

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

• 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 .

(CDS, NYU)

- In this case, the posterior is in the same distribution family as the prior.
- Let π be a family of prior distributions on Θ .
- Let P parametric family of distributions with parameter space Θ .

Definition

A family of distributions π is conjugate to parametric model *P* if for any prior in π , the posterior is always in π .

• The beta family is conjugate to the coin-flipping (i.e. Bernoulli) model.

Coin Flipping: Concrete Example

• Suppose we have a coin, possibly biased (parametric probability model):

 $p(\text{Heads} | \theta) = \theta.$

- Parameter space $\theta \in \Theta = [0, 1]$.
- Prior distribution: $\theta \sim Beta(2,2)$.



Example: Coin Flipping

- Next, we gather some data $\mathcal{D} = \{H, H, T, T, T, T, T, H, \dots, T\}$:
- Heads: 75 Tails: 60 • $\hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \frac{75}{75+60} \approx 0.556$
- Posterior distribution: $\theta \mid D \sim \text{Beta}(77, 62)$:



- We have the posterior distribution $\theta \mid \mathcal{D}$.
- What if someone asks us for a point estimate $\hat{\theta}$ for $\theta?$
- Common options:
 - posterior mean $\hat{\theta} = \mathbb{E}\left[\theta \mid \mathcal{D}\right]$
 - maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta \mid D)$
 - Note: this is the mode of the posterior distribution

What else can we do with a posterior?

- Look at it: display uncertainty estimates to our client
- Extract a credible set for θ (a Bayesian confidence interval).
 - e.g. Interval [a, b] is a 95% credible set if

 $\mathbb{P}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta} \in [\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}] \mid \mathcal{D}\right) \geqslant 0.95$

- Select a point estimate using **Bayesian decision theory**:
 - Choose a loss function.
 - Find action minimizing expected risk w.r.t. posterior

Table of Contents

- Classical Statistics
- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- Gaussian Regression Example
- (8) Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Bayesian Decision Theory

- Ingredients:
 - Parameter space Θ .
 - **Prior**: Distribution $p(\theta)$ on Θ .
 - Action space A.
 - Loss function: $\ell : \mathcal{A} \times \Theta \to \mathsf{R}.$
- The **posterior risk** of an action $a \in A$ is

$$r(a) := \mathbb{E} \left[\ell(\theta, a) \mid \mathcal{D} \right]$$
$$= \int \ell(\theta, a) p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta.$$

- It's the expected loss under the posterior.
- A Bayes action a^* is an action that minimizes posterior risk:

$$r(a^*) = \min_{a \in \mathcal{A}} r(a)$$

Bayesian Point Estimation

- General Setup:
 - Data \mathcal{D} generated by $p(y \mid \theta)$, for unknown $\theta \in \Theta$.
 - We want to produce a **point estimate** for θ .
- Choose:
 - **Prior** $p(\theta)$ on $\Theta = R$.
 - Loss $\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta)$
- Find action $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$ that minimizes the $% \hat{\theta} \in \Theta$ posterior risk:

$$r(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta) \mid \mathcal{D}\right]$$
$$= \int \ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta) p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta$$

Important Cases

• Squared Loss :
$$\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta) = \left(\theta - \hat{\theta}\right)^2 \Rightarrow$$
 posterior mean

• Zero-one Loss:
$$\ell(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = 1(\theta \neq \hat{\theta}) \implies \text{posterior mode}$$

• Absolute Loss :
$$\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta) = \left| \theta - \hat{\theta} \right| \Rightarrow$$
 posterior median

Bayesian Point Estimation: Square Loss

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

$$r(\hat{\theta}) = \int \left(\theta - \hat{\theta}\right)^2 p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta.$$

• Differentiate:

$$\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = -\int 2\left(\theta - \hat{\theta}\right) p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta$$
$$= -2\int \theta p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta} \underbrace{\int p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta}_{=1}$$
$$= -2\int \theta p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta}$$

Bayesian Point Estimation: Square Loss

• Derivative of posterior risk is

$$\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = -2\int \theta p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \, d\theta + 2\hat{\theta}.$$

• First order condition $\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = 0$ gives

$$\hat{\theta} = \int \theta p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta$$
$$= \mathbb{E} [\theta \mid \mathcal{D}]$$

• The Bayes action for square loss is the posterior mean.

Table of Contents

- Classical Statistics
- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory

Interim summary

- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- Gaussian Regression Example
- (8) Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Recap and Interpretation

- The prior represents belief about θ before observing data $\mathcal{D}.$
- The posterior represents rationally updated beliefs after seeing \mathcal{D} .
- All inferences and action-taking are based on the posterior distribution.
- In the Bayesian approach,
 - No issue of justifying an estimator.
 - Only choices are
 - family of distributions, indexed by Θ , and
 - prior distribution on Θ
 - For decision making, we need a loss function.

Table of Contents

- Classical Statistics
- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- 🕜 Gaussian Regression Example
- (8) Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Conditional Probability Modeling

- \bullet Input space ${\mathfrak X}$
- Outcome space \mathcal{Y}
- Action space $\mathcal{A} = \{ p(y) \mid p \text{ is a probability distribution on } \mathcal{Y} \}.$
- Hypothesis space \mathcal{F} contains prediction functions $f: \mathfrak{X} \to \mathcal{A}$.
- Prediction function $f \in \mathcal{F}$ takes input $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and produces a distribution on \mathcal{Y}
- 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
- θ is a parameter in a [finite dimensional] parameter space Θ .
- This is the common starting point for either classical or Bayesian regression.

Classical treatment: 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:

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = \boldsymbol{p}(\mathcal{D} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \theta),$$

where $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$.

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

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

• MLE corresponds to ERM, if we set the loss to be the negative log-likelihood.

ł

• The corresponding prediction function is

$$\hat{f}(x) = p(y \mid x, \hat{\theta}_{\mathsf{MLE}}).$$

Table of Contents

- Classical Statistics
- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- 🕖 Gaussian Regression Example
- 8 Gaussian Regression: Closed form

- Input space $\mathfrak{X} = \mathsf{R}^d$ Outcome space $\mathfrak{Y} = \mathsf{R}$
- The Bayesian conditional model has two components:
 - A parametric family of conditional densities:

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

• A prior distribution $p(\theta)$ on $\theta \in \Theta$.

The Posterior Distribution

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

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x) \propto p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta, x) p(\theta)$$
$$= \underbrace{\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta)}_{\text{likelihood prior}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}}$$

- \bullet Posterior represents the rationally updated beliefs after seeing $\mathcal{D}.$
- Each $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ corresponds to a prediction function,
 - i.e. the conditional distribution function $p(y | x, \theta)$.

- What if we want point estimates of $\boldsymbol{\theta}?$
- We can use Bayesian decision theory to derive point estimates.
- We may want to use
 - $\hat{\theta} = \mathbb{E}[\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x]$ (the posterior mean estimate)
 - $\hat{\theta} = \text{median}[\theta \mid \hat{\mathcal{D}}, x]$
 - $\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}, x)$ (the MAP estimate)
- depending on our loss function.

Back to the basic question - Bayesian Prediction Function

- Find a function takes input $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and produces a distribution on \mathcal{Y}
- In the frequentist approach:
 - Choose family of conditional probability densities (hypothesis space).
 - Select one conditional probability from family, e.g. using MLE.
- In the Bayesian setting:
 - We choose a parametric family of conditional densities

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

- and a prior distribution $p(\theta)$ on this set.
- Having set our Bayesian model, how do we predict a distribution on y for input x?
- We don't need to make a discrete selection from the hypothesis space: we maintain uncertainty.

- Suppose we have not yet observed any data.
- In the Bayesian setting, we can still produce a prediction function.
- The prior predictive distribution is given by

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

• This is an average of all conditional densities in our family, weighted by the prior.

The Posterior Predictive Distribution

- Suppose we've already seen data $\ensuremath{\mathcal{D}}.$
- The posterior predictive distribution is given by

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

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

Comparison to Frequentist Approach

- In Bayesian statistics we have two distributions on Θ :
 - the prior distribution $p(\theta)$
 - the posterior distribution $p(\theta \mid D)$.
- These distributions over parameters correspond to distributions on the hypothesis space:

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

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

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

• In the Bayesian approach, we integrate out over Θ w.r.t. $\textit{p}(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$ and predict with

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

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

- Once we have a predictive distribution p(y | x, 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 | x, D).

Table of Contents

- Classical Statistics
- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- 🕜 Gaussian Regression Example
- (8) Gaussian Regression: Closed form

Example in 1-Dimension: Setup

- Input space $\mathfrak{X} = [-1, 1]$ Output space $\mathfrak{Y} = \mathsf{R}$
- 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? 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 cross indicates true parameters
- On right:
 - blue circle indicates the training observation
 - red lines, $y(x) = \mathbb{E}[y | x, w] = w_0 + w_1 x$, for randomly chosen $w \sim p(w | D)$ (posterior)

Bishop's PRML Fig 3.7

(CDS, NYU)

Example in 1-Dimension: 2 and 20 Observations



Bishop's PRML Fig 3.7

(CDS, NYU)

Table of Contents

- Classical Statistics
- 2 Bayesian Statistics: Introduction
- 3 Bayesian Decision Theory
- Interim summary
- 5 Recap: Conditional Probability Models
- 6 Bayesian Conditional Probability Models
- Gaussian Regression Example
- 8 Gaussian Regression: Closed form

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 Σ_P gives us a natural uncertainty measure.

(CDS, NYU)

Closed Form for Posterior

• Posterior distribution is a Gaussian distribution:

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

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

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

• If we want point estimates of w, MAP estimator and the posterior mean are given by

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

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

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

which is of course the ridge regression solution.

(CDS, NYU)