Multiparameter models

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Outline

- Independent beta-binomial
 - Independent posteriors
 - Comparison of parameters
 - JAGS
- Probability theory results
 - Scaled Inv- χ^2 distribution
 - t-distribution
 - Normal-Inv- χ^2 distribution
- Normal model with unknown mean and variance
 - Jeffreys prior
 - Natural conjugate prior

Motivating example

Is Andre Dawkins 3-point percentage higher in 2013-2014 than each of the past years?

Season	Year	Made	Attempts
1	2009-2010	36	95
2	2010-2011	64	150
3	2011-2012	67	171
4	2013-2014	64	152

Binomial model

Assume an independent binomial model,

$$Y_s \stackrel{ind}{\sim} Bin(n_s, \theta_s)$$
, i.e., $p(y|\theta) = \prod_{s=1}^S p(y_s|\theta_s) = \prod_{s=1}^S \binom{n_s}{y_s} \theta_s^{y_s} (1-\theta_s)^{n_s-y_s}$

where

- ullet y_s is the number of 3-pointers made in season s
- ullet n_s is the number of 3-pointers attempted in season s
- ullet $heta_s$ is the unknown 3-pointer success probability in season s
- S is the number of seasons
- $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \theta_4)'$ and $y = (y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4)$

and assume independent beta priors distribution:

$$p(\theta) = \prod_{s=1}^{S} p(\theta_s) = \prod_{s=1}^{S} \frac{\theta_s^{a_s - 1} (1 - \theta_s)^{b_s - 1}}{Beta(a_s, b_s)} I(0 < \theta_s < 1).$$

Joint posterior

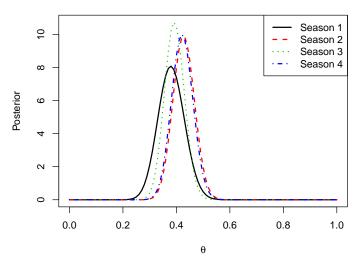
Derive the posterior according to Bayes rule:

$$\begin{array}{ll} p(\theta|y) & \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta) \\ & = \prod_{s=1}^S p(y_s|\theta_s) \prod_{s=1}^S p(\theta_s) \\ & = \prod_{s=1}^S p(y_s|\theta_s)p(\theta_s) \\ & \propto \prod_{s=1}^S \operatorname{Beta}(\theta_s|a_s+y_s,b_s+n_s-y_s) \end{array}$$

So the posterior for each θ_s is exactly the same as if we treated each season independently.

Joint posterior

Andre Dawkins's 3-point percentage



Monte Carlo estimates

Estimated means, medians, and quantiles.

```
sim = ddply(d, .(year),
            function(x) data.frame(theta=rbeta(1e3, x$a, x$b),
                                   a = x$a, b = x$b))
# hpd
hpd = function(theta,a,b,p=.95) {
 h = dbeta((a-1)/(a+b-2),a,b)
 ftheta = dbeta(theta,a,b)
 r = uniroot(function(x) mean(ftheta>x)-p,c(0,h))
 range(theta[which(ftheta>r$root)])
# expectations
ddply(sim, .(year), summarize,
      mean = mean(theta).
      median = median(theta).
      ciL = quantile(theta, c(.025,.975))[1],
      ciU = quantile(theta, c(.025,.975))[2],
      hpdL = hpd(theta,a[1],b[1])[1],
      hpdU = hpd(theta,a[1],b[1])[2])
  year
            mean
                    median
                                 cil.
                                                    hpdL
                                                               hpdU
     1 0.3828454 0.3816672 0.2893217 0.4821211 0.2851402 0.4803823
     2 0.4283304 0.4297132 0.3498912 0.5050538 0.3509289 0.5054018
     3 0.3951943 0.3958465 0.3235839 0.4694850 0.3208512 0.4662410
     4 0 4228666 0 4235223 0 3464835 0 4982144 0 3465337 0 4981711
```

Comparing probabilities across years

The scientific question of interest here is whether Dawkins's 3-point percentage is higher in 2013-2014 than in each of the previous years. Using probability notation, this is

$$P(\theta_4 > \theta_s | y)$$
 for $s = 1, 2, 3$.

which can be approximated via Monte Carlo as

$$P(\theta_4 > \theta_s | y) = E_{\theta|y}[I(\theta_4 > \theta_s)] \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} I\left(\theta_4^{(m)} > \theta_s^{(m)}\right)$$

where

- $\theta_s^{(m)} \stackrel{ind}{\sim} Be(a_s + y_s, b_s + n_s y_s)$
- ullet $\mathrm{I}(A)$ is in indicator function that is 1 if A is true and zero otherwise.

Estimated probabilities

```
# Should be able to use deast
d = data.frame(theta 1 = sim$theta[sim$vear==1].
               theta_2 = sim$theta[sim$year==2],
               theta_3 = sim$theta[sim$year==3],
               theta_4 = sim$theta[sim$year==4])
# Probabilities that season 4 percentage is higher than other seasons
mean(d$theta_4 > d$theta_1)
Γ17 0.758
mean(d$theta_4 > d$theta_2)
Γ17 0.454
mean(d$theta 4 > d$theta 3)
Γ17 0.697
```

Using JAGS

```
library(rjags)
independent_binomials = "
model {
  for (i in 1:N) {
    v[i] ~ dbin(theta[i],n[i])
    theta[i] ~ dbeta(1.1)
d = list(y=c(36,64,67,64), n=c(95,150,171,152), N=4)
m = jags.model(textConnection(independent_binomials), d)
Compiling model graph
   Resolving undeclared variables
   Allocating nodes
Graph information:
   Observed stochastic nodes: 4
   Unobserved stochastic nodes: 4
   Total graph size: 14
Initializing model
res = coda.samples(m, "theta", 1000)
```

```
summary(res)
```

```
Iterations = 1001:2000
Thinning interval = 1
Number of chains = 1
Sample size per chain = 1000
```

 Empirical mean and standard deviation for each variable, plus standard error of the mean:

	Mean	SD	Naive SE	Time-series SE
theta[1]	0.3825	0.05058	0.001600	0.001950
theta[2]	0.4276	0.04020	0.001271	0.001584
theta[3]	0.3932	0.03895	0.001232	0.001830
theta[4]	0.4206	0.03836	0.001213	0.001403

2. Quantiles for each variable:

```
2.5% 25% 50% 75% 97.5% theta[1] 0.2894 0.3495 0.3807 0.4169 0.4889 theta[2] 0.3501 0.3994 0.4289 0.4564 0.4998 theta[3] 0.3183 0.3677 0.3927 0.4182 0.4720 theta[4] 0.3465 0.3937 0.4209 0.4458 0.4945
```

```
# Extract sampled theta values
theta = as.matrix(res[[1]]) # with only 1 chain, all values are in the first list element
# Calculate probabilities that season 4 percentage is higher than other seasons
mean(theta[,4] > theta[,1])
Γ17 0.738
mean(theta[,4] > theta[,2])
[1] 0.435
mean(theta[,4] > theta[,3])
Γ17 0.691
```

JAGS

Background probability theory

- Scaled Inv- χ^2 distribution
- Location-scale t-distribution
- Normal-Inv- χ^2 distribution

Scaled-inverse χ^2 -distribution

If $\sigma^2 \sim IG(a,b)$ with shape a and scale b, then $\sigma^2 \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v,z^2)$ with degrees of freedom v and scale z^2 have the following

- a = v/2 and $b = vz^2/2$, or, equivalently,
- v = 2a and $z^2 = b/a$.

Deriving from the inverse gamma, the scaled-inverse χ^2 has

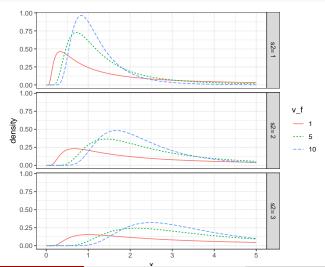
- Mean: $vz^2/(v-2)$ for v>2
- Mode: $vz^2/(v+2)$
- Variance: $2v^2(z^2)^2/[(v-2)^2(v-4)]$ for v>4

So z^2 is a point estimate and $v \to \infty$ means the variance decreases, since, for large v,

$$\frac{2v^2(z^2)^2}{(v-2)^2(v-4)} \approx \frac{2v^2(z^2)^2}{v^3} = \frac{2(z^2)^2}{v}.$$

Scaled-inverse χ^2 -distribution

```
dinvgamma = function(x, shape, scale, ...) dgamma(1/x, shape = shape, rate = scale, ...) / x^2
dsichisq = function(x, dof, scale, ...)dinvgamma( x, shape = dof/2, scale = dof*scale/2, ...)
```



Location-scale *t*-distribution

The t-distribution is a location-scale family (Casella & Berger Thm 3.5.6), i.e. if T_v has a standard t-distribution with v degrees of freedom and pdf

$$f_t(t) = \frac{\Gamma([v+1]/2)}{\Gamma(v/2)\sqrt{v\pi}} (1 + t^2/v)^{-(v+1)/2},$$

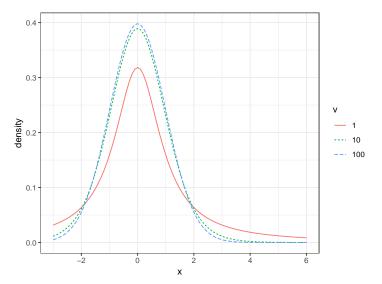
then $X = m + zT_v$ has pdf

$$f_X(x) = f_t([x-m]/z)/z = \frac{\Gamma([v+1]/2)}{\Gamma(v/2)\sqrt{v\pi}z} \left(1 + \frac{1}{v} \left[\frac{x-m}{z}\right]^2\right)^{-(v+1)/2}.$$

This is referred to as a t distribution with v degrees of freedom, location m, and scale z; it is written as $t_v(m,z^2)$. Also,

$$t_v(m, z^2) \stackrel{v \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} N(m, z^2).$$

t distribution as v changes



Normal-Inv- χ^2 distribution

Let $\mu|\sigma^2\sim N(m,\sigma^2/k)$ and $\sigma^2\sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v,z^2)$, then the kernel of this joint density is

$$\begin{array}{ll} p(\mu,\sigma^2) &= p(\mu|\sigma^2)p(\sigma^2) \\ &\propto (\sigma^2)^{-1/2}e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2/k}(\mu-m)^2}(\sigma^2)^{-\frac{v}{2}-1}e^{-\frac{vz^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\ &= (\sigma^2)^{-(v+3)/2}e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\left[k(\mu-m)^2+vz^2\right]} \end{array}$$

In addition, the marginal distribution for μ is

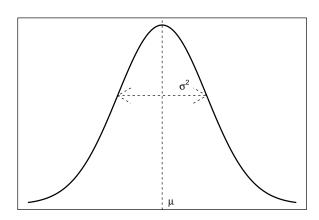
$$\begin{split} p(\mu) &= \int p(\mu|\sigma^2) p(\sigma^2) d\sigma^2 = \cdots \\ &= \frac{\Gamma([v+1]/2)}{\Gamma(v/2)\sqrt{v\pi}z/\sqrt{k}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{v} \left[\frac{\mu-m}{z/\sqrt{k}}\right]^2\right)^{-(v+1)/2}. \end{split}$$

with $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus $\mu \sim t_v(m, z^2/k)$.

Univariate normal model

Suppose $Y_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

Normal model



p(y | μ, σ²)

Confidence interval for μ

Let

$$\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \qquad \text{and} \qquad S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2.$$

Then,

$$T_{n-1} = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

and an equal-tail $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval can be constructed via

$$1 - \alpha = P\left(-t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2} \le T_{n-1} \le t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}\right)$$

= $P\left(\overline{Y} - \frac{t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}S}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \overline{Y} + \frac{t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}S}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$

where $t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}$ is the t-critical value, i.e. $P(T_{n-1} > t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}) = \alpha/2$.

Thus

$$\overline{y} \pm t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2} s / \sqrt{n}$$

is an equal-tail $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval with \overline{y} and s the observed values of \overline{Y} and S.

Default priors

Jeffreys prior can be shown to be $p(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto (1/\sigma^2)^{3/2}$. But alternative methods, e.g. reference prior, find that $p(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$ is a more appropriate prior.

The posterior under the reference prior is

$$p(\mu, \sigma^{2}|y) \propto (\sigma^{2})^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \mu)^{2}\right) \times \frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}$$

$$= (\sigma^{2})^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \overline{y} + \overline{y} - \mu)^{2}\right) \times \frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$= (\sigma^{2})^{-(n-1+3)/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \left[n(\mu - \overline{y})^{2} + (n-1)s^{2}\right]\right)$$

Thus

$$\mu | \sigma^2, y \sim N(\overline{y}, \sigma^2/n)$$
 $\sigma^2 | y \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(n-1, s^2).$

Marginal posterior for μ

The marginal posterior for μ is

$$\mu|y \sim t_{n-1}(\overline{y}, s^2/n).$$

An equal-tailed $100(1-\alpha)\%$ credible interval can be obtained via

$$\overline{y} \pm t_{n-1,1-\alpha/2} s / \sqrt{n}$$
.

This formula is exactly the same as the formula for a $100(1-\alpha/2)\%$ confidence interval. But the interpretation of this credible interval is a statement about your belief when your prior belief is represented by the prior $p(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$.

Predictive distribution

Let $\tilde{y} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. The predictive distribution is

$$\int \int p(\tilde{y}|\mu,\sigma^2) p(\mu|\sigma^2,y) p(\sigma^2|y) d\mu d\sigma^2$$

The easiest way to derive this is to write $\tilde{y} = \mu + \epsilon$ with

$$\mu | \sigma^2, y \sim N(\overline{y}, \sigma^2/n)$$
 $\epsilon | \sigma^2, y \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

independent of each other. Thus

$$\tilde{y}|\sigma^2, y \sim N(\overline{y}, \sigma^2[1+1/n]).$$

with $\sigma^2|y\sim {\rm Inv-}\chi^2(n-1,s^2).$ Now, we can use the Normal-Inv- χ^2 theory, to find that

$$\tilde{y}|y \sim t_{n-1}(\overline{y}, s^2[1+1/n]).$$

Conjugate prior for μ and σ^2

The joint conjugate prior for μ and σ^2 is

$$\mu|\sigma^2 \quad \sim N(m,\sigma^2/k) \qquad \sigma^2 \quad \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v,z^2)$$

where z^2 serves as a prior guess about σ^2 and v controls how certain we are about that guess.

The posterior under this prior is

$$\mu|\sigma^2,y\sim N(m',\sigma^2/k') \qquad \sigma^2|y\sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v',(z')^2)$$

where

$$k' = k + n$$

$$m' = [km + n\overline{y}]/k'$$

$$v' = v + n$$

$$v'(z')^2 = vz^2 + (n-1)S^2 + \frac{kn}{k'}(\overline{y} - m)^2$$

Marginal posterior for μ

The marginal posterior for μ is

$$\mu|y \sim t_{v'}(m',(z')^2/k').$$

An equal-tailed $100(1-\alpha)\%$ credible inteval can be obtained via

$$m' \pm t_{v',1-\alpha/2} z' / \sqrt{k'}$$
.

Marginal posterior via simulation

An alternative to deriving the closed form posterior for μ is to simulate from the distribution. Recall that

$$\mu|\sigma^2,y\sim N(m',\sigma^2/k') \qquad \sigma^2|y\sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v',(z')^2)$$

To obtain a simulation from the posterior distribution $p(\mu, \sigma^2|y)$, calculate m', k', v', and z' and then

- 1. simulate $\sigma^2 \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v',(z')^2)$ and
- 2. using the simulated σ^2 , simulate $\mu \sim N(m', \sigma^2/k')$.

Not only does this provide a sample from the joint distribution for μ,σ but it also (therefore) provides a sample from the marginal distribution for μ . The integral was suggestive:

$$p(\mu|y) = \int p(\mu|\sigma^2, y) p(\sigma^2|y) d\sigma^2$$

Predictive distribution via simulation

Similarly, we can obtain the predictive distribution via simulation. Recall that

$$p(\tilde{y}|y) = \int \int p(\tilde{y}|\mu, \sigma^2) p(\mu|\sigma^2, y) p(\sigma^2|y) d\mu d\sigma^2$$

To obtain a simulation from the predictive distribution $p(\tilde{y}|y)$, calculate m',k',v', and z'

- 1. simulate $\sigma^2 \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v',(z')^2)$,
- 2. using this σ^2 , simulate $\mu \sim N(m', \sigma^2/k')$, and
- 3. using these μ and σ^2 , simulate $\tilde{y} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

Summary of normal inference

- Default analysis
 - Prior: (think $\mu \sim N(0,\infty)$ and $\sigma^2 \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(0,0)$)

$$p(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$$

• Posterior:

$$\mu|\sigma^2,y\sim N(\overline{y},\sigma^2/n),\,\sigma^2|y\sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(n-1,S^2),\,\mu|y\sim t_{n-1}(\overline{y},S^2/n)$$

- Conjugate analysis
 - Prior:

$$\mu |\sigma^2 \sim N(m,\sigma^2/k), \ \sigma^2 \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v,z^2), \ \mu \sim t_v(m,z^2/k)$$

Posterior:

$$\mu|\sigma^2, y \sim N(m', \sigma^2/k'), \ \sigma^2|y \sim \text{Inv-}\chi^2(v', (z')^2), \ \mu|y \sim t_{v'}(m', (z')^2/k')$$
 with

$$k' = k + n, m' = [km + n\overline{y}]/k', v' = v + n,$$

$$v'(z')^2 = vz^2 + (n - 1)S^2 + \frac{kn}{k'}(\overline{y} - m)^2$$