Lecture Notes 3: Scale Mixture Distribution

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**Notice:** In this lecture note,  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(a, b)$  means that  $\mu = a, \sigma^2 = b$ . Prof.Zhang sometimes means  $\mu = a, \sigma = b$  in the class. So the notation or results may be a little different with your notes.

#### 2.4 Scale Mixture Distribution

We will show several distributions can be seen as the scale mixture of distributions, which is defined as follows,

$$X \sim F(\theta)$$
$$\theta \sim G(\lambda)$$

, So,  $T(x) = \int_{\theta} F(\theta)G(\lambda)d\theta$  can be seen as a scale mixture of F, where the scale has distribution G.

#### 2.4.1 Student's t-distribution

The Student's t-distribution is a scale mixture of Gaussian distribution, where the scale has a Gamma distribution. Let  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{r})$ ,  $r \sim \text{Gamma}(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2})$ , then the integral will be:

$$\begin{split} & \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{r^{1/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{r(x-\mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}} \frac{\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{\frac{\nu}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)} r^{\frac{\nu}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{\nu}{2}r} \mathrm{d}r \\ = & \frac{\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{\frac{\nu}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^{\frac{\nu+1}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{r}{2}\left(\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}+\nu\right)} \mathrm{d}r \\ = & \frac{\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{\frac{\nu}{2}}\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)} \left[\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} + \nu\right]^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}} \\ = & \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{\sigma\sqrt{\nu\pi}\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)} \left[\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{\nu\sigma^{2}} + 1\right]^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}} \\ = & t_{\nu}(\mu, \sigma^{2}) \end{split}$$

Note that during the integral, we use a mathematical trick. Since we have

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\beta x} dx = 1$$

from Gamma distribution, so we can get  $\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1}e^{-\beta x}dx = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\beta^{\alpha}}$ . This trick will be often used in the follows.

#### 2.4.2 Laplace Distribution

Laplace distribution is:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{4\sigma} \exp(-\frac{|x-\mu|}{2\sigma})$$

Let we see  $2\sigma$  as  $\sigma$  for convenience, that is:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\sigma} \exp(-\frac{|x-\mu|}{\sigma})$$

The Laplace distribution is a scale mixture of Gaussian distribution, where the scale has a exponential distribution. Let  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, r)$ ,  $r \sim \text{Exponential}(\frac{1}{2\sigma^2})$ , then we can get the mixture distribution:

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2r}} \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} e^{-\frac{r}{2\sigma^{2}}} dr$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^{\frac{1}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{r} + \frac{r}{\sigma^{2}}\right)} dr$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{2K_{1/2}\left(\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}(x-\mu)^{2}\right)}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}(x-\mu)^{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sigma} e^{\frac{|x-\mu|}{\sigma}}$$

The integral term is a integral of generalized inverse Gaussian distribution,  $GIG(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{\sigma^2}, (x - \mu)^2)$ .

#### 2.4.3 Negative Binomial Distribution

Negative Binomial Distribution is a scale of Poisson distribution, where the scale has a Gamma distribution. Let  $K \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ ,  $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \frac{1-p}{p})$ , then we can get the mixture distribution:

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{r-1} e^{-\frac{1-p}{p}\lambda}}{\Gamma(r)(\frac{p}{1-p})^r} d\lambda$$

$$= \frac{1}{k!\Gamma(r)(\frac{p}{1-p})^r} \int_0^\infty \lambda^{k+r-1} e^{-\frac{\lambda}{p}} d\lambda$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(r+k)p^k(1-p)^r}{\Gamma(k)\Gamma(r)}$$

$$= \binom{k+r-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^r$$

**Homework 1:**  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \text{Gamma}(x|k+\rho+1,\beta) \text{Poisson}(k|\lambda), \rho \text{ is a constant}, \rho > -1.$ 

# 3 Statistical Inference (I)

### 3.1 Jeffreys Prior

In order to show Jeffrey prior, we first introduce **Fisher information**. In mathematical statistics, the Fisher information is a way of measuring the amount of information that an observable random variable X carries about an unknown parameter  $\theta$  upon which the probability of X depends.

The probability function for X, which is also the likelihood function for  $\theta$ , is a function  $f(X;\theta)$ ; it is the probability mass (or probability density) of the random variable X conditional on the value of  $\theta$ . Then we define Fisher information:

**Definition 3.1.** Fisher Information:

$$I(\theta) = \mathbb{E}((\frac{\partial \log f(x; \theta)}{\partial \theta})^2)$$

**Lemma 3.1.** If  $\log f(x;\theta)$  is twice differentiable with respect to  $\theta$  and under certain regularity conditions, then

$$I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}(\frac{\partial^2 \log f}{\partial \theta^2})$$

Proof. first

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log f}{\partial \theta^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta}}{f}\right)$$

$$= \frac{\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2}}{f} - \frac{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta}\right)^2}{f^2}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2}}{f} - \left(\frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \theta}\right)^2$$

then

$$\mathbb{E}(\frac{\partial^2 \log f}{\partial \theta^2}) = \int \frac{\partial^2 \log f}{\partial \theta^2} f dx$$
$$= \int \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2} dx - I(\theta)$$

if  $\int \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2} dx = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \int f dx = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta} 1 = 0$  (the certain condition), then we had proved the lemma.

**Definition 3.2.** Jeffreys prior is defined in terms of Fisher information

$$p(\theta) \propto \sqrt{I(\theta)}$$

Remark: It has the key feature that it is invariant under reparametrization of parameter  $\theta$ . For an alternate parametrization  $\varphi$  we can derive

$$p(\varphi) \propto \sqrt{I(\varphi)}$$

from

$$p(\theta) \propto \sqrt{I(\theta)}$$

where  $\theta$  and  $\varphi$  exist a one-to-one mapping.

Proof.

$$\begin{split} p(\varphi) &= p(\theta) |\frac{d\theta}{d\varphi}| \propto \sqrt{I(\theta) (\frac{d\theta}{d\varphi})^2} \propto \sqrt{\mathbb{E}((\frac{d\log f}{d\theta})^2) (\frac{d\theta}{d\varphi})^2} \\ &\propto \sqrt{\mathbb{E}((\frac{d\log f}{d\theta} \frac{d\theta}{d\varphi})^2)} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}((\frac{d\log f}{d\varphi})^2)} \propto \sqrt{I(\varphi)} \end{split}$$

Example 3.1.  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

Case 1: Fix  $\sigma$ , the only parameter is  $\mu$ . The likelihood is:

$$f(X|\mu) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2)$$

SO

$$\log f \propto -(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2$$

So we can get:

$$I(\mu) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)^2\right]$$
$$= \frac{\mathbb{E}(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^4}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

Thus the Jeffreys prior  $p(\mu) \propto \sqrt{I(\mu)} = \frac{1}{\sigma}$ . As  $\sigma$  is fixed, so  $p(\mu) \propto 1$ .

**Remark:** Although  $p(\mu) = 1$  is a improper prior, as  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1 dx = \infty$ , the posterior is proper. The prior is also called **uninformative prior**.

Case 2: Fix  $\mu$ , the only parameter is  $\sigma$ . For convenience, let  $\tau = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$ . So  $f(x) = \frac{\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{\tau(x-\mu)^2}{2}}$ . The likelihood is denoted by  $f(\tau)$ :

$$f(\tau) = \frac{\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{\tau(x-\mu)^2}{2}\right)$$

$$\implies \log f \propto \frac{1}{2} \log \tau - \frac{\tau}{2}(x-\mu)^2$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \tau} \propto \frac{1}{2\tau} - \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2}$$

Hence,

$$I(\tau) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \tau}\right)^{2}\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{1}{\tau} - (x - \mu)^{2}\right)^{2}\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} - \frac{(x - \mu)^{2}}{2\tau} + \frac{(x - \mu)^{4}}{4}\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} - \frac{1}{2\tau^{2}} + \frac{1}{4}\mathbb{E}(x - \mu)^{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\tau^{2}} - \frac{1}{2\tau^{2}} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4}(x - \mu)^{4} \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \tau^{-1}) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\tau^{2}}$$

where the integral can be computed from variance:

$$\int (x-\mu)^2 \frac{\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{\tau(x-\mu)^2}{2}) dx = \tau^{-1}$$

$$\implies \int (x-\mu)^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{\tau(x-\mu)^2}{2}) dx = \tau^{-\frac{3}{2}}$$
(taking the derivate of both side)
$$\implies \int (x-\mu)^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{\tau(x-\mu)^2}{2}) dx = 3\tau^{-\frac{5}{2}}$$

$$\implies \int (x-\mu)^4 \frac{\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{\tau(x-\mu)^2}{2}) dx = 3\tau^{-2}$$

$$\implies \mathcal{E}\left((x-\mu)^4\right) = \frac{3}{4\tau^2}$$

So Jeffreys prior is  $\pi(\tau) \propto \frac{1}{\tau}$ . Note that  $p(\sigma) = \pi(\tau)|d\tau/d\theta|$ , hence,

$$p(\sigma) \propto \frac{1}{\tau} |-2\sigma^{-3}|$$

$$\propto \sigma^{2} |-2\sigma^{-3}|$$

$$\propto \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

**Homework 2:** Compute the following integrals:

1. 
$$u_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x) \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) dx$$

2. 
$$u_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x) \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) x dx$$

3. 
$$u_2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x) \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) (x - m_1)^2 dx$$
  
where  $\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$ 

Example 3.2.  $X \sim Poisson(n; \lambda)$ 

$$\log f = -\lambda + n \log \lambda$$

Fisher information is:

$$I(\lambda) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{n}{\lambda} - 1\right)^2\right]$$
$$= 1 + \frac{\mathbb{E}(n^2)}{\lambda^2} - 2$$
$$= \frac{\lambda + 1}{\lambda} - 1$$
$$= \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

So Jeffreys prior is:

$$p(\lambda) \propto \sqrt{\frac{1}{\lambda}}.$$

**Homework 3:**  $f(x;\theta) = \theta^x (1-\theta)^{1-x}, \ 0 < \theta < 1.$ 

- 1. Compute Jeffreys prior about  $\theta$ .
- 2. If  $\theta = \sin^2 \alpha$ , compute Jeffreys prior about  $\alpha$ .

## 3.2 Compute Posterior Probability

Assume we have a model  $x = \theta + \epsilon$ , where x is data which we observed or predict,  $\theta$  is the parameters,  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\tau)$  is the error term. So given  $\theta$ ,  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta,\tau)$ . When we use MAP(maximum a posteriori) to estimate parameter  $\theta$ , we will get  $p(\theta|x) \propto p(x|\theta)p(\theta)$ . We will discuss this problem under several different conditions in the following.

Case 1 Fix  $\tau$ . The only parameter is  $\theta$ . And we set the prior about  $\theta$  is  $\mathcal{N}(\theta|0,\lambda)$ . So

$$\begin{split} p(\theta|x) &\propto p(x|\theta)p(\theta) \\ &\propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau}}e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\tau}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda}}e^{-\frac{\theta^2}{2\lambda}} \\ &\propto \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\tau\lambda}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}[(\frac{1}{\tau}+\frac{1}{\lambda})(\theta-\frac{\lambda x}{\tau+\lambda})^2+\frac{x^2}{\tau+\lambda}]} \\ &\propto \mathcal{N}(\frac{\lambda x}{\lambda+\tau},\frac{\lambda \tau}{\lambda+\tau}) \end{split}$$

Then we can get the estimation about  $\theta$  from MAP,  $\hat{\theta} = \frac{\lambda x}{\lambda + \tau}$ .

Case 2 Let  $\theta$  and  $\tau$  both be parameters. In order to get MAP, we may make three solutions.

**Solution 1** Assume that  $\tau$ ,  $\lambda$  are independent.  $p(\theta, \tau) = p(\theta)p(\tau)$  and we use a new  $\tau$  here,  $\tau = \tau_{old}^{-1}$  for convenience of computing(It is different with the  $\tau$  used in case 1). Suppose  $\tau \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha/2, \beta/2)$ 

$$p(\theta, \tau | x) \qquad \propto p(x | \theta, \tau) p(\theta, \tau) = p(x | \theta, \tau) p(\theta) p(\tau)$$

$$\propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \tau^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp(-\frac{\tau(x - \theta)^{2}}{2}) \frac{\lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{\lambda \theta^{2}}{2}) (\frac{\beta}{2})^{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \exp(-\frac{\beta \tau}{2}) \frac{\tau^{\frac{\alpha}{2} - 1}}{\Gamma(\alpha/2)}$$

To get maximum posterior, let

$$L = \tau^{\frac{\alpha+1}{2}-1} \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp(-\frac{\tau}{2}((x-\theta)^2 + \beta) - \frac{\lambda \theta^2}{2})$$

then

$$\ln L = (\frac{\alpha + 1}{2} - 1) \ln \tau - \frac{\tau}{2} ((x - \theta)^2 + \beta) + \frac{1}{2} \ln \lambda - \frac{\lambda \theta^2}{2}$$

Let

$$Q = -2 \ln L = -(\alpha - 1) \ln \tau + \tau ((x - \theta)^2 + \beta) - \ln \lambda + \lambda \theta^2$$

We need to solve equations:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \theta} &= -2\tau(x-\theta) + 2\lambda\theta = 0\\ \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \tau} &= \frac{1-\alpha}{\tau} + (x-\theta)^2 + \beta = 0 \end{cases}$$

It is a difficult problem to solve, especially when  $\theta$  is a vector.

**Remark :** One way to solve the problem above is to compute one parameter, for example  $\theta$ , while fixing the other parameter, i.e.  $\tau$ . Then fix  $\theta$ , compute  $\theta$ . Hold on until they get convergent. Well, then we need to think about the convergence problem.

**Solution 2** Assume  $p(\theta, \tau) = p(\theta|\tau)p(\tau)$ , and  $p(\theta|\tau) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, (\lambda \tau)^{-1})$ , suppose  $\tau \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha/2, \beta/2)$ , follow the same steps in solution 1, we get:

$$p(\theta,\tau|x) \propto p(x|\theta,\tau)p(\theta|\tau)p(\tau)$$

$$\propto \frac{\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{\tau(x-\theta)^2}{2}}\frac{(\lambda\tau)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{\lambda\tau\theta^2}{2}}(\frac{\beta}{2})^{\frac{\alpha}{2}}e^{(-\frac{\beta\tau}{2})}\frac{\tau^{\frac{\alpha}{2}-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha/2)}$$

Then the corresponding L is given by:

$$L = \tau^{\frac{\alpha+1}{2} - 1} (\lambda \tau)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp(-\frac{\tau}{2} ((x - \theta)^2 + \beta) - \frac{\lambda \tau \theta^2}{2}).$$

Then the Q is

$$Q = -2\ln L = -(\alpha - 1)\ln \tau + \tau((x - \theta)^2 + \beta) - \ln(\lambda \tau) + \lambda \tau \theta^2$$

To get the estimation of  $\theta$  and  $\tau$ , we need to solve:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \theta} = 0\\ \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \tau} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then we will get:

$$\begin{cases} -\tau(x-\theta) + \tau\lambda = 0\\ \beta - \frac{\alpha-1}{\tau} - \frac{1}{\tau} + (x-\theta)^2 + \lambda\theta^2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

We can easily solve  $\theta$  and  $\tau$ . It is called **decouple**.

**Solution 3** From the two sub-cases above, we can find the major problem is computing complexity. Another problem will occurs if there are too many hyperparameters. As we need to search the best hyper-parameters by grid search. So if there are 2 hyper-parameters, the search space is 2-dimensional. If there are 3 hyper-parameters, the search space is 3-dimensional... It will cost too much time when the search space is high dimensional.

Simply, we can give an uninformative prior to  $\tau$ ,  $p(\tau) \propto 1$ . Or we can consider Jeffreys prior for  $\tau$ . According to Example 3.1, case 2,we get  $p(\tau) \propto \frac{1}{\tau}$ . So we will have:

$$p(\theta, \tau | x) \propto p(x | \theta, \tau) p(\theta | \tau) p(\tau)$$

$$\propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\tau}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda\tau}} e^{-\frac{\theta^2}{2\lambda\tau}} \frac{1}{\tau} = L$$

Removing constants, we will get:

$$Q = -2\ln L = 3\ln \tau + \ln(\lambda \tau) + \frac{(x-\theta)^2}{\tau} + \frac{\theta^2}{\lambda \tau}$$

Then according to  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \theta}=0$  and  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \tau}=0$ , we will get the followings:

$$\begin{cases} -2(x-\theta) + \frac{2\theta}{\lambda} = 0\\ \frac{3}{\tau} + \frac{1}{\tau} - \frac{1}{\tau^2} \left( \frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2} + \frac{\theta^2}{\lambda} \right) = 0 \end{cases}$$

We can see it is easy to solve and there is no extra parameter. (Solution 2 has two new parameters,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ )