#### APPLIED BAYESIAN STATISTICS SUMMARY

ANDREW TULLOCH

#### 1. Probability and Bayes theorem for discrete observables

**Definition.** Suppose we want to predict a random quantity X, and we do so by providing a probability distribution P. Suppose we observed a specific value x, then a scoring rule S provides a reward S(P,x). If the true distribution of X is Q, then the expected score is denoted S(P,Q), where S(P,Q) = intSP(x)Q(x)dx. A proper scoring rule has  $S(Q,Q) \ge$ S(P,Q) for all P, and is strictly proper if S(Q,Q) = S(P,Q) if and only if P = Q.

**Theorem.** For a null hypothesis  $H_0, H_1$  as "not  $H_0$ ",

$$\frac{p(H_0|y)}{p(H_1|y)} = \frac{p(y|H_0)}{p(y|H_1)} \times \frac{p(H_0)}{p(H_1)}, \tag{1.1}$$

posterior odds equals the likelihood ratio times prior odds.

**Definition.** We have observed quantities y (the data), have an unknown quantity taking on a set of discrete values  $\theta_i, i \in 1, ..., n$ . We specify a sampling model  $p(y|\theta)$ , a probability distribution  $p(\theta_i)$ , and together define  $p(y, \theta_i) = p(y|\theta_i)p(\theta_i)$  - a "full probability model".

Then, use Bayes theorem to botain the conditional probability distribution for unobserved quanitites given the data,

$$p(\theta_i|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta_i)p(\theta_i)}{\sum_k p(y|\theta_k)p(\theta_k)} \propto p(y|\theta_i)p(\theta_i)$$
 (1.2)

or equivalently, the posterior is proportional to the likelihood times the prior.

**Definition.**  $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$  represents a Beta distribution with properties

$$p(\theta|a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a,b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \theta^{a-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1}), \theta \in (0,1)$$
 (1.3)

$$\mathbb{E}(\theta \ a, b) = \frac{a}{a+b} \tag{1.4}$$

$$\mathbb{V}(\theta|a,b) = \frac{ab}{(a+b)^2(a+b+1)}$$
 (1.5)

$$mode = \frac{a-1}{a+b-2}(a,b>0)$$
 (1.6)

where  $\Gamma(a) = (a-1)!$  is a is an integer.

**Theorem.** Our parametric sampling distribution  $p(y|\theta)$  with uncertainty about  $\theta$  given by a distribution  $p(\theta)$  gives a predictive distribution p(y) = $\int p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$ . The mean and variance of a predictive distribution can be obtained using

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}(\mathbb{E}(Y|\theta)) \tag{1.8}$$

$$\mathbb{V}(Y) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}(\mathbb{V}(Y|\theta)) + \mathbb{V}_{\theta}(\mathbb{E}(Y|\theta)) \tag{1.9}$$

**Theorem.** For two random variables with joint density p(x,y), then  $\mathbb{E}(Y) = \mathbb{E}_X(\mathbb{E}(Y|x))$  and  $\mathbb{V}(Y) = \mathbb{E}_X(\mathbb{V}(Y|x)) + \mathbb{V}_X(\mathbb{E}(Y|x)).$ 

**Definition.** Suppose  $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(a,b)$ ,  $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(\theta,n)$ . The exact predictive distribution for Y is known as the BetaBinomial with

$$p(y) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \binom{n}{y} \frac{\Gamma(a+y)\Gamma(b+n-y)}{\Gamma(a+b+n)}, y = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$
 (1.10)

If a = b = 1 (the prior is uniform on 0,1), then p(y) is uniform on

The mean and variance of the BetaBinomial is given as  $\mathbb{E}(Y) = \frac{na}{a+b}$ and  $\mathbb{V}(Y) = n \frac{ab}{(a+b)^2} \frac{(n+a+b)}{(1+a+b)}$ 

**Definition.** The Gamma distribution is a flexible distribution for positive quantities. If  $Y \sim \text{GAMMA}(a, b)$ , then

$$p(y|a,b) = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} y^{a-1} e^{-by}, y \in (0,\infty)$$
 (1.11)

$$\mathbb{E}(Y|a,b) = \frac{a,b}{den} \tag{1.12}$$

$$V(Y|a,b) = \frac{a}{b^2} \tag{1.13}$$

The Gamma(1, b) distribution is exponential with mean  $\frac{1}{b}$ . The Gamma( $\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$ ) is a chi-squared  $\chi^2_{\nu}$  with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom.

**Theorem.** Suppose  $\theta \sim \text{GAMMA}(a,b)$ ,  $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta)$ , then the exact predictive distribution of Y is **negative-binomial** with

$$p(y) = \frac{\Gamma(a+y)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(y+1)} \frac{b^a}{(b+1)^{a+y}}, y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
 (1.14)

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \frac{a}{b} \tag{1.15}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \frac{a}{b} \tag{1.15}$$

$$\mathbb{V}(Y) = \frac{a}{b} + \frac{a}{b^2} \tag{1.16}$$

Theorem. Consider the general one-parameter exponential family

$$p(y|\theta) = \exp(a(y) + b(\theta) + u(\theta)t(y)) \tag{1.17}$$

where  $u(\theta)$  is a **natural** or canonical parameter, and t(y) is the **natural** sufficient statistic.

Suppose we have a conjugate prior distribution of the form  $p(\theta)$  $\frac{1}{c(n_0,t_0)}\exp(n_0b(\theta)+t_0\mu(0))$  where  $c(n_0,t_0)=\int \exp(n_0b(\theta)+t_0u(\theta))d\theta.$  Then the predictive distribution is

$$p(y) = e^{a(y)} \frac{c(n_0 + 1, t_0 + t(y))}{c(n_0, t_0)}.$$
(1.18)

# 2. Conjugate Analysis

**Theorem.** Suppose we have a independent sample of data  $y_i \sim \text{NORMAL}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,n$ , with  $\sigma^2$  known and  $\mu$  unknown. The conjugate prior for the normal mean is also normal,  $\mu$ ,  $\mu \sim \text{NORMAL}(\gamma, \tau^2)$ , where  $\gamma$  and  $\tau^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{r_0}$ are specified. The posterior distribution is

$$p(\mu \ y) \propto p(\mu) \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|\mu) = \text{NORMAL}(y_n, \tau_n^2)$$
 (2.1)

where  $\gamma_n = \frac{n_0 \gamma + n_{\overline{y}}}{n_0 + n}$  and  $\tau_n^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0 + n}$ . The posterior predictive distribution is thus NORMAL $(\gamma_n, \sigma^2 + \tau_n^2)$ .

**Theorem.** Suppose again  $y_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , but  $\mu$  is known  $\sigma^2$  is unknown. If we use precision  $\omega = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$ , we have the conjugate prior for  $\omega$  as  $\omega \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ , so  $p(\omega) \propto w^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta \omega)$ .  $\sigma^2$  has an **inverse-gamma** distribution.

The posterior distribution has the form  $p(\omega|\mu,y) = \text{GAMMA}(\alpha + \frac{n}{2}, \beta +$  $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i-\mu)^2$ .

**Theorem.** If we have I possible prior distributions  $p_i(\theta)$  with weights  $q_i$ , then the mixture prior is  $p(\theta) = \sum_{i} q_{i} p_{i}(\theta)$ . If we now observe data y, the posterior for  $\theta$  is  $p(\theta|y) = q_i'p(\theta|y, H_i)$ , where  $p(\theta|y, H_i) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta|H_i)$ , where  $q_i' = p(H_i|y) = \frac{q_ip(y|H_i)}{\sum_i q_ip(y|H_i)}$  where  $p(y|H_i) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|H_i)d\theta$  is the predictive probability of the data y assuming  $H_i$ .

**Theorem.** In a general one-parameter exponential family, we have  $p(y|\theta) =$  $\exp(\sum_i a(y_i) + nb(\theta) + u(\theta) \sum_i t(y_i))$  and prior  $p(\theta) \propto \exp(n_0 b(\theta) = t_0 u(\theta))$ so the posterior distribution is

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp((n+n_0)b(\theta) + u(\theta)(\sum_{i} t(y_i) + t_0))$$
 (2.2)

which is in the same family as the prior distribution.  $t_0$  can be thought of as the sum of  $n_0$  imaginary distributions.

## 3. Prior Distributions

**Theorem.** If  $\frac{1}{\sigma^2}|y\sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha,\beta)$ , then  $\frac{2\beta}{\sigma^2}\sim \chi^2_{2\alpha}$ .

If  $Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1), \ X \sim \frac{\chi_{\nu}^2}{\nu} \sim t_{\nu}.$ 

**Definition.** A Jeffreys prior is compatible with a Jeffrey's prior for any 1-1 transformation  $\phi = f(\Theta)$ .

(1.7)

 $p(\theta) \propto I(\theta)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  where  $I(\theta)$  is the Fisher information for  $\theta$ ,

$$I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}_{Y|\theta}(\frac{\partial^2 \log p(Y|\theta)}{\partial \theta^2}) = E_{Y|\theta}((\frac{\partial \log p(Y|\theta)}{\partial \theta})^2) \tag{3.1}$$

This is invariant to re-parameterization

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y|\phi}(\frac{\partial \log p(Y|\phi)}{\partial \phi})^2 = \mathbb{E}_{Y|\theta}(\frac{\partial \log p(Y|\theta)}{\partial \theta})^2 |\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi}|^2 = I(\theta)|\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi}|^2 \qquad (3.2)$$

**Definition.** For location parameters,  $p(y|\theta)$  is a function of  $y - \theta$ , and the distribution of  $y - \theta$  is independent of  $\theta$ , hence  $p_J(\theta) \propto C$  constant. Can us dflat() in winbugs or a proper distribution such as dunif(-100,

**Definition.** For count/rate parameters, the Fisher information for Pois-SON data is  $I(\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}$ , and so the Jeffreys prior is  $p_J(\theta) \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\theta}}$ , which can be approximated by a dgamma (0.5, 0.000001) distribution in BUGS.

This same prior is appropriate if  $\theta$  is a rate parameter per unit time so  $Y \sim Poission(\theta t)$ .

**Definition.**  $\sigma$  is a scale parameter if  $p(y|\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma} f(\frac{y}{\sigma})$  for some function f, so that the distribution of  $\frac{Y}{\sigma}$  does not depend on  $\sigma$ . The Jeffreys prior is  $p_J(\sigma) \propto \sigma^{-1}$ . This implies that  $p_j(\sigma^k) \propto \sigma^{-k}$ , for any choice of k, and thus for the precision of the normal distribution, we should have  $p_J(\omega) \propto \omega^{-1}$ , which can be approximated by dgamma(0.0001, 0.0001) in BUGS (an inverse-gamma distribution on the variance  $\sigma^2$ ).

### 4. Multivariate Distributions

**Definition.** Array of counts  $(n_1, \ldots, n_k)$  in K categories — the multinomial density is  $p(n|q) = \frac{(\sum n_k)!}{\prod n_k!} \prod_{k=1}^K q_k^{n_k}$ , with likelihood propertional to  $\prod_{k=1}^K q_k^{n_k}$ . The conjugate prior is a Dirichlet $(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_k)$  distribution

$$p(q) = \frac{\Gamma(\sum \alpha_k)}{\prod \Gamma(a_k!)} q_k^{a_k - 1}$$
(4.1)

with  $\sum_k q_k = 1$ . The posterior is  $p(q|n = \text{DIRICHLET}(\alpha_1 + n_1, \dots, \alpha_k))$ . The Jeffreys prior is  $p(q) \alpha \prod_k q_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ .

**Definition.** The multivariate normal for a p-dimensional vector  $y \sim$  $Normal_p(\mu, \Sigma)$ , or using  $\Omega = \Sigma^{-1}$ , so  $p(y|\mu, \Omega) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(y-\mu)^T\Omega(y-1))$  $\mu$ )), and conjugate prior for  $\mu$  is also a multivariate normal,

$$p(\mu|\psi_0, \Omega_0) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mu - \gamma_0)^T \Omega_0(\mu - \gamma_0)).$$
 (4.2)

We then have  $\mu \sim Normal_p(\gamma_n, \Omega_n^{-1})$  where  $\Omega_n = \Omega_0 + n\Omega$  and  $\gamma_n =$  $(\Omega_0 + n\Omega)^{-1}(\Omega_0 \gamma_0 + n\Omega \overline{y}).$ 

**Definition.** The conjugate prior on the precision matrix of a multivariate normal is the Wishart distribution (analogous to  $Gamma/\chi^2$ ).

The Wishart distribution  $W_p(k,R)$  for a symmetric positive definite  $p \times p \ matrix \ \Omega \ is \ p(\Omega) \propto |R|^{\frac{k}{2}} |\Omega|^{\frac{k-p-1}{2}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}(R\Omega)).$  The sampling density of a MVN with known mean and unknown matrix

is  $p(y_1, \ldots, y_n | \mu, \Omega) \propto |\Omega|^{\frac{n}{2}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}(S\Omega))$  where  $S = \sum_i (y_i - \mu)(y_i - \mu)$  $\mu)^T$ , and therefore

$$p(\Omega|y) \propto |\Omega|^{\frac{n+k-p-1}{2}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}((S+R)\Omega))$$
 (4.3)

which is a  $W_p(k+n)$ , R+S distribution.

The Jeffreys prior is  $p(\Sigma) \propto |\Sigma|^{-\frac{p+1}{2}}$ , equivalently  $k \to 0$ .

# 5. Regression Models

Assume for a set of covariates  $x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(Y_i) = x_i'\beta$ , and  $Y_i \sim$  $N(\sum \beta_i x_i, \sigma^2)$ . Assuming  $Y_i$  are conditionally independent given  $\beta, \sigma^2$ , we can write  $Y \sim N_n(X\beta, \sigma^2 I_n)$ . The least squares estimate and MLE is

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y \tag{5.1}$$

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N_p(\beta, \sigma^2(X^T X)^{-1}) \tag{5.2}$$

With known variances, assume  $\beta \sim N_p(\gamma_0, \sigma^2 V)$ . Then  $p(\beta|y) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}((\beta-\gamma_n)^T D^{-1}(\beta-\gamma_n)))$  where  $D^{-1}=X^TX+V^{-1},\ \gamma_n=0$  $D(X^{T}y + V^{-1}\gamma_{0}) = D(X^{T}X\hat{\beta} + V^{-1}\gamma_{0}), \text{ so } \beta|y \sim N_{p}(\gamma_{n}, \sigma^{2}D).$  As  $V^{-1} \to 0$ , we have  $B|y \sim N_p(\hat{\beta}, (X^T X)^{-1} \sigma^2)$ .

With  $p(\beta) \propto C$  and  $p(\sigma^2) \propto \sigma^{-2}$ , then conditional on  $\sigma^2$ , from the pre-

Since  $\beta | y, \sigma^2 \sim N_p(\hat{\beta}, (X^T X)^{-1} \sigma^2)$ , a single regression coefficient  $\beta_i$ has posterior  $\beta_i|y,\sigma^2 \sim N(\hat{\beta}_i,s_i^2\sigma^2)$ , where  $s_i^2 = (X^TX)_{ii}^{-1}$ .

# 6. Categorical Data, Prediction, and Ranking

Suppose N individuals are classified according to two binary variables, into a 2 × 2 table. We have three situations — one margin fixed, both margins fixed, and the overall total fixed.

If one margin is fixed, then  $n_i$ , and  $n_2$  are fixed. Then  $y_{i1} \sim \text{BINOMIAL}(n_i, p_i)$ .

If no margins are fixed, we only fix the total  $N = \sum y_{ij}$ . With a full multinomial model  $Y \sim \text{MULTINOMIAL}(q, N)$ . Note if we just take a single row, we have standard BetaBinomial updating, as  $Y_{11}|n_1\sim$ BINOMIAL $(n_1, \frac{q_{11}}{q_1})$  from the properties of the multinomial, and  $\frac{q_{11}}{q_1}$  from the properties of the Dirichlet.

**Definition.** Recall if  $Y_k \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_k)$ , and  $\sum_k Y_k = N$ , then  $Y|N \sim$ Multinomial(q, N). Letting  $Y_k \sim Poission(\mu_k)$  and using log-link function  $\log u_k = \lambda + \alpha_k$ , give a uniform prior to  $\lambda$ . This is equivalent to assuming a multinomial distribution for Y with parameters  $q_k = \frac{e^{\alpha_k}}{sum_k} e^{\alpha_k}$ ,  $N = \sum_{k} Y_{k}$ .

For a 2  $\times$  2 table, we can assume  $Y_{ij} \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_{ij})$  and assume  $\log \mu_{ij} = \phi + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij}$  with the corner constraints  $\alpha_1 = \beta_1 = \gamma_{12} + \gamma_{11} = \gamma_{12} + \gamma_{13}$ 

Assuming we have multinomial observations  $Y_i \sim \text{MULTINOMIAL}(q_i, N_i)$ with covariates  $x_i = x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{iP}$ . Then we can express log odds of a category k relative to a baseline category as  $\phi_{k1} = \log \frac{q_{ik}}{q_{i1}} = \sum_{p=1}^{P} \beta_{kp} x_{ip}$ , with category probabilities  $q_{ik} = \frac{\exp(\sum_{p} \beta_{kp} x_{ip})}{\sum_{k} \exp(\sum_{p} \beta_{kp} x_{ip})}$ .

**Definition.** For ranking, assume  $O_i \sim \text{POISSON}(\lambda_i E_i)$ , with  $\lambda_i$  a standardized mortality rate, with Jeffreys prior  $\propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}}$ .

#### 7. Sampling Properties in Relation to Other Methods

**Definition.** Formally, an exchangeable sequence of random variables is a finite or infinite sequence  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  of random variables such that for any finite permutation  $\sigma$  of the indices  $1, 2, 3, \ldots$ , (the permutation acts on only finitely many indices, with the rest fixed), the joint probability distribution of the permuted sequence

 $X_{\sigma(1)}, X_{\sigma(2)}, X_{\sigma(3)}, \ldots$  is the same as the joint probability distribution of the original sequence.

Theorem. If an infinite sequence of binary variables is exchangeable, then it implies that any finite set  $p(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \int \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta$  for some density  $p(\theta)$  (with regularity conditions)

**Definition.** The likelihood principle: all information about  $\theta$  provided by data y is contained in the likelihood  $\propto p(y|\theta)$ .

**Theorem.** The statistic t(Y) is sufficient for  $\theta$  if and only if we can express the density  $(y|\theta)$  in the form  $p(y|\theta) = h(y)g(t(y)|\theta)$ .

Trivially, the Bayesian posterior distribution only depends on the sufficient statistic.

# 8. Criticism and Comparison

**Definition.** The Bayes factor comparison of models  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  are given

$$\frac{p(M_0|y)}{p(M_1|y)} = \frac{p(M_0)}{p(M_1)} \frac{p(y|M_0)}{p(y|M_1)}$$
(8.1)

or in words — posterior odds of  $M_0$  equals the Bayes factor  $(B_{01})$  times the prior odds of  $M_0$ . This quantifies the weight of evidence in favor of the hypothesis  $H_0: M_0$  is true.

If both models are equally likely a priori, the Bayes factor is the posterior odds in favor of  $M_0$ .

**Definition.** The Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) is

$$BIC = -2\log p(y|\hat{\theta}) + k\log n \tag{8.2}$$

where  $\hat{\theta}$  is the MLE.  $BIC_0 - BIC_1$  is intended to approximate  $-2 \log B_{01}$ 

**Definition.** The deviance of a sampling distribution is defined as  $D(\theta) = \theta$  $2\log p(y|\theta)$ .

**Definition.** The AIC is given as  $-2 \log p(y|\hat{\theta}) + 2k$  where kis the dimensionality of  $\theta$ .

Asmyptitocally, AIC is equivalent to leave-on-out cross-validation.

ceding general model  $\beta|y,\sigma^2 \sim N_n(\hat{\beta},(X^TX)^{-1}\sigma^2)$  where  $\hat{\beta}=(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$  **Definition.** Model dimensionality can be measured as  $p_D=\mathbb{E}_{\theta|y}(-2\log p(y|\theta))+$  $2\log p(y|\tilde{\theta}(y))$ . If we take  $\tilde{\theta} = \mathbb{E}(\theta|y)$ , then  $P_D$  is equal to the posterior mean deviance minus the deviance of the posterior means.

We can approximate  $P_D \approx \operatorname{tr}(-L_{\theta}^{"}C)$ , where  $C = \mathbb{E}\left((\theta - \overline{\theta})(\theta - \overline{\theta})^T\right)$ is the posterior covariance matrix of  $\theta$ .

Thus  $p_D$  can be thought of the ratio of information in the likelihood about the parameters as a fraction of the total information in the posterior. We an also think of  $p_D$  as the franction of total information in the posteriro that is identified for the prior.

For general normal regression models, we have this is exact, and  $p_D =$  $\operatorname{tr}((X^T X)(X^T X + V^{-1})^{-1}).$ 

If there is vague prior information,  $\hat{\theta} \approx \overline{\theta}$  (the MLE), and so  $D(\theta) \approx$  $D(\overline{\theta}) - (\theta - \overline{\theta})^T L''(\hat{\theta})(\theta - \overline{\theta}) = D(\overline{\theta}) + \chi_p^2$ , and so  $p_D = \mathbb{E}(\chi_p^2) = p$ , the true number of parameters.

**Definition.** The DIC is defined as  $DIC = D(\overline{\theta}) + 2p_D = \overline{D} + p_D$ .

## 9. Heirachcial Models

**Definition.** Suppose  $y_{ij}$  is outcome for individual j, unit i, with unitspecific parameter  $\theta_i$ . The assumption of partial exchangability of individuals within units can be represented by the following model —  $y_{ij}$  ~  $p(y_{ij}|\theta_i,x_{ij}), \theta_i \sim p(\theta_i).$ 

Assumption of exchangability of units can be represented by the model  $\theta_i \sim p(\theta_i|\phi), \ \phi \sim p(\phi)$  - a common prior for all units (but a prior with unknown parameters.)

Exchangability is a judgement based on our knowledge of the context. Assuming  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_I$  are drawn from some common prior distribution whose parameters are unknown is known as a hierarchical model.

**Definition.** The normal-normal model is givens  $y_{ij} \sim N(\theta_i, \sigma^2)$ , j = $1, \ldots, n_i, i = 1, \ldots, I, \theta_i \sim N(\mu, \tau^2), i = 1, \ldots, I, \mu \sim Uniform.$  Assume  $\sigma, \tau$  known for the moment and express  $\tau^2$  as  $\tau^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0}$ . From standard

$$p(\theta_i|y,\mu,\tau,\sigma) = \text{NORMAL}(\frac{n_0\mu + n_i\overline{y}_i}{n_0 + n_i}, \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0 + n_i})$$
(9.1)

Now the marginal distribution of  $\overline{Y}_i$  is  $\overline{Y}_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2(n_i^{-1} + n_0^{-1}))$ .

Writing  $[\sigma^2(n_i^{-1}+n_0^{-1})]^{-1}$  as  $\pi_i$ , the precision, we have  $\mu|y,\tau \sim N(\hat{\mu},V_{\mu})$ where  $\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum_{i} \pi_{i} \overline{y}_{i}}{\sum_{i} \pi_{i}}$ ,  $V_{\mu} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i} \pi_{i}}$ .

We can then show (reasonably easily) that  $\mathbb{E}(\pi_i|y,\tau,\sigma) = \frac{n_0\hat{\mu} + n_i\overline{y}_i}{n_0+n_1}$ — an appropriate weighted average of the observed individual group mean and estimated population mean.

Definition. For normal hierarchical models the Jeffreys prior can be inconvenient. Assume  $y_i \sim N(\theta_i, \sigma_i^2)$ ,  $\sigma_i^2$  known, and  $\theta_i \sim N(\mu, \tau^2)$ , i = 1, ..., I. Then, integrating out the  $\theta_i$ , we get  $y_i | \mu, \tau^2 \sim N(\mu, \sigma_i^2 + \tau^2)$ which are conditionally independent given  $\mu, \tau^2$ .

The posterior is  $p(\tau^2|y) \propto p(y|\mu, \tau^2)p(\tau^2)$  where  $p(y|\mu, \tau^2) \propto \prod_i (\sigma_i^2 + \sigma_i^2)$  $\begin{array}{l} \tau^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}\exp(-\frac{1}{2}\\ frac(y_i-\mu)^2\sigma_i^2+\tau^2). \\ Letting \ \tau^2 \to 0, \ p(y|\mu,\tau^2) \ tends \ to \ a \ non-zero \ constant \ c, \ so \ p(\tau^2 < 1) \end{array}$ 

 $\epsilon |y) \propto cP(\tau^2 < \epsilon).$ 

Using an improper Jeffreys prior  $p(\tau^2 \propto \tau^{-2})$ ,  $p(\tau^2 < \epsilon)$  is unbounded, and so  $p(\tau^2 < \epsilon | y)$  is unbounded, hence the posterior is improper.

Note that  $\frac{1}{\tau^2} \sim \text{GAMMA}(\epsilon, \epsilon)$  is proper, but inference can be sensitive to the choice of  $\epsilon$ .

**Definition.** Empirical Bayes methods proceed as before  $y_{ij} \sim p(y_{ij}|\theta_i)$ ,  $\theta_i \sim p(\theta_i|\phi)$ , but do not put a prior on  $\phi$ . Estimate  $\phi$  by, for example, maximum marginal likelihood — the value  $\hat{\phi}$  that maximizes the marginal likelihood

$$p(y|\phi) = \prod_{i} \int \prod_{j} p(y_{ij}|\theta_i) p(\theta_i|\phi) d\theta_i, \qquad (9.2)$$

known as the Type II Maximum Likelihood. Then use  $\hat{\phi}$  as a "plug-in" estimate, as if the prior distribution was known.

Can think of it as estimating prior from the data — understates uncertainty since it ignores uncertainty in  $\hat{\phi}$  — for large number of units and observations, have similar results to the "full Bayes" approach.

# 10. Robustness and Outlier Detection

**Definition.** If we assume, say  $Y \sim t_k(\theta, \tau)$ , then estimates will be less influenced by outliers. If we want to simultaneously find outliers, we can fit a t-distribution as a mixture of normals. Recall if  $Y \sim Norm(\theta, \sigma^2)$ , and  $\sigma^2 = \frac{\tau^2 k}{X^2}$ , where  $X^2 \sim \chi_k^2$ , then  $Y \sim t_k(\theta, \tau)$ . So an equivalent model to  $Y \sim t_k(\theta, \tau)$  is to assume  $Y \sim \text{NORMAL}(\theta, \sigma_i^2)$ ,  $\sigma_i^2 = \frac{\tau^2 k}{X_i^2}$ ,  $X_i^2 \sim \chi_k^2$ and monitor  $s_i = \frac{k}{X_i^2}$  — values of  $s_i$  much great than 1 indicate outliers.

#### 11. Miscellaneous

References

Table 1. Conjugate Prior Distributions

L	P	ConjP	Posterior	Predictive	Interpretation
BINOMIAL	θ	Beta(a,b)	a+y, b+n-y	BetaBinomial $(y)$	$\alpha - 1$ successes, $\beta - 1$ failures
Poisson	$\theta$	Gamma(a,b)	a+y, b+n	NegativeBinomial $(y)$	$\alpha$ total occurences in $\beta$ intervals
Normal	$\mu$	$Normal(\gamma, \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0})$	$\frac{n_0\gamma + n\overline{y}}{n_0 + n}, \sigma_n^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n_0 + n}$ $\frac{\tau_0\gamma + n\overline{y}}{\tau_0 + n\tau}, \tau_n = \tau_0 + n\tau$	$Normal(\gamma_n, \sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2)$	$n_0$ observations with sample mean $\gamma$
Normal	$\mu$	NORMAL $(\gamma, \tau_0)$ (precision)	$\frac{\tau_0 \gamma + n \overline{y}}{\tau_0 + n \tau}, \tau_n = \tau_0 + n \tau$	$Normal(\gamma_n, \frac{1}{\tau_n} + \frac{1}{\tau})$	
Normal	$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\omega}$	$\omega \sim \text{Gamma}(\frac{n_0}{2}, \frac{n_0 \sigma_0^2}{2})$	$\frac{n_0+n}{2}, \frac{n_0\sigma_0^2}{2}+\frac{1}{2}\sum(y_i-\mu)^2$		
Multinomial	$p_1,\ldots,p_k$	DIRICHLET $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$	$\alpha_1 + n_1, \dots, \alpha_k + n_k$		$\alpha_i - 1$ occurences of category $i$

Table 2. Distributions

Distribution	Density	Mean	Variance
$Normal(\mu, \sigma^2)$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b^2}} exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})$	$\mu$	$\sigma^2$
$Poisson(\lambda)$	$e^{-\lambda}\lambda^{\kappa}$	$\lambda$	$\lambda$
Gamma(a,b)	$\frac{b^{k!}}{\Gamma(a)}x^{a-1}e^{-bx}$	$\frac{a}{b}$	$\frac{a}{b^2}$
$\mathrm{Beta}(a,b)$	$\frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1}$ $\propto \prod_{i=1}^{K} x_i^{\alpha_i - 1}$	$\frac{a}{a+b}$	$\frac{ab}{(a+b)^2(a+b+1)}$
DIRICHLET $(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_K)$	$\propto \prod_{i=1}^{K} x_i^{\alpha_i - 1}$	$\frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_k \alpha_k}$	