ST308 - Lent term Bayesian Inference

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Credible Intervals - Priors - Multiparameter models

Outline

Topics covered: Symmetric Credible Intervals, Highest Region Sets, Prior Elicitation, Jeffreys prior, joint and marginal posteriors

- Credible Intervals (sets)
- Priors
- Multiparameter models

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Credible Intervals (sets)

Priors

Multiparameter models

Interval Estimation problem

- Collect the data $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ from an experiment.
- Assign likelihood (model).
- (In Bayesian Inference) Assign a prior to the unknown parameters θ .
- Based on the above decide on a 'good' interval/set of values for θ .

Confidence vs Credible Intervals

Confidence Interval with level 1- α

If the experiment was repeated many times, the interval would contain the true value of θ in 100(1 $-\alpha$)% of them.

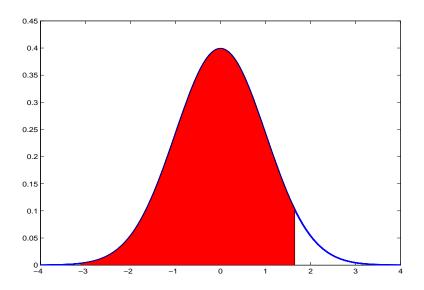
Credible Intervals of 1- α

The parameter θ is in the credible interval with probability $1 - \alpha$.

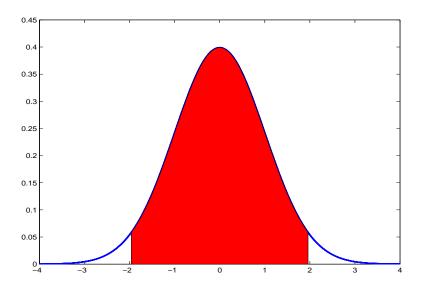
A 100(1 $-\alpha$)% credible set C_{α} for θ satisfies

$$P(\theta \in C_{\alpha}|x) = 1 - \alpha$$

A 95% credible set



A shorter 95% credible set



Highest region sets

Highest (posterior density) region sets

Let $H_{\gamma} = \{\theta : \pi(\theta|x) > \gamma\}$. If we set γ such that

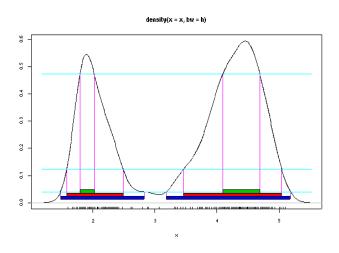
$$P(\theta \in H_{\gamma}|x) = 1 - \alpha,$$

we get the $100(1 - \alpha)$ % highest region credible set.

Notes:

- Highest region sets are the shortest. Also intuitive, as we want to report the most plausible values of θ .
- Not always easy to calculate highest region sets. In most cases symmetric sets just report the $\frac{\alpha}{2}$, $1 \frac{\alpha}{2}$ posterior percentiles.

Highest posterior density region sets



Example: Normal(θ , σ^2) - σ^2 known

Let $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$ be a random sample from the $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$, with σ^2 known and the prior for θ being a $N(\mu, \tau^2)$. The posterior for θ is

$$N\left(\frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}}\tau^2 + \mu\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}{\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \tau^2\right)}, \frac{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}\tau^2}{\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \tau^2\right)}\right).$$

The symmetric and highest region $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ credible set is then

$$\frac{\bar{X}\tau^2 + \mu \frac{\sigma^2}{n}}{\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \tau^2\right)} \pm \mathcal{Z}_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}\tau^2}{\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \tau^2\right)}}.$$

where $\mathcal{Z}_{\alpha/2}$ is the $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ percentile of a N(0,1).

For $\pi(\theta) \propto$ 1, we get $\bar{x} \pm \mathcal{Z}_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}$. Same as in the frequentist case but with different interpretation.

Numerical example: IQ scores

A student uses Bayesian inference in modelling his IQ score $x|\theta$ which is N(θ , 80). His prior is N(110, 120). After a score of x=98 the posterior becomes N(102.8, 48).

The frequentist 95% confidence interval is

$$\left[98 - 1.96\sqrt{80}, \ 98 + 1.96\sqrt{80}\right] = [80.5, \ 115.5]$$

The HPD (and symmetric) 95% credible interval is

$$\left[102.8-1.96\sqrt{48},\ 102.8+1.96\sqrt{48}\right]=\left[89.2,\ 116.4\right]$$

which is shorter as it includes prior information.

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Prior distributions

- The choice of the prior distribution may be very influential.
- In the presence of information, the prior should reflect it appropriately.
- If no information is available a vague, low-informative prior should be chosen.
- Bayes and Laplace used uniform priors Not always possible/sensible.

Conjugate priors

Posterior and prior have the same distribution. Only the parameters are updated. Used primarily for convenience.

- **Binomial-Beta:** The prior is a Beta(α , β), the data consist of the observation x and the posterior is a Beta(α + x, n x + β).
- **Poisson-Gamma:** The prior is a Gamma(α, β), the data consist of the random sample $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and the posterior is a Gamma($\alpha + \sum x_i, n + \beta$).
- **Normal-Normal:** The prior is a $N(\mu, \tau^2)$, the data consist of the random sample $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and the posterior is a

$$N\left(\frac{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}\mu + \tau^2\bar{X}}{\tau^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}}, \frac{\tau^2\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}{\tau^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}}\right).$$

Prior elicitation

- Information may be available prior to the experiment about moments, percentiles, probabilities of certain intervals etc.
- This information can be incorporated in the parameters of the prior distribution (prior elicitation).
- If informagion is not available a vague / low-informative prior should be chosen.

Example: In a Poisson likelihood experiment we know that the mean of λ is around 5 and the variance around 4.

A Gamma(α, β) may be chosen. Since $E(\theta) = \frac{a}{b} = 5$ and $Var(\theta) = \frac{a}{b^2} = 4$, we get that $\alpha = 6.25$ and $\beta = 1.25$

Jeffreys' priors

Consider a sample $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$ with likelihood $f(x|\theta)$. Fisher information for θ is defined as

$$I(\theta) = E_X \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(x|\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right)^2 \right] = -E_X \left(\frac{\partial^2 \log f(x|\theta)}{\partial \theta^2} \right)$$

Jeffreys suggested the following prior

$$\pi(\theta) \propto \det\left(I(\theta)\right)^{1/2}$$

and for the single parameter case

$$\pi(\theta) \propto I(\theta)^{1/2}$$

Invariant to transformations

Jeffreys prior is invariant to transformations.

Lemma

Let $\phi = h(\theta)$ or else $\theta = g(\phi)$. Then if $\theta \sim \pi_{\theta}(\theta)$ the pdf of ϕ is

$$\pi_{\phi}(\phi) = \pi_{ heta}(oldsymbol{g}(\phi)) \left| rac{\partial oldsymbol{g}(\phi)}{\partial \phi}
ight| = \pi_{ heta}(heta) \left| rac{\partial heta}{\partial \phi}
ight|$$

Now take

$$\pi_{\phi}(\phi) = \pi_{\theta}(\theta) \left| \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right| \propto E_{X} \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(x|\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right)^{2} \right]^{1/2} \left(\left| \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right|^{2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= E_{X} \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(x|\theta)}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right)^{2} \right]^{1/2} = E_{X} \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(x|\phi)}{\partial \phi} \right)^{2} \right]^{1/2} = I(\phi)^{1/2}$$

Example 1: Normal likelihood

Let $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)'$ be a random sample from $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$, σ^2 known.

$$\log f(x|\theta) = \log \left[\exp \left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \theta)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right] = -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \theta)^2}{2\sigma^2},$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x|\theta) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \theta)}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i - n\theta}{\sigma^2} = \frac{n(\bar{x} - \theta)}{\sigma^2}.$$

$$\mathcal{I}(\theta|x) = -E_X\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2}\log f(x|\theta)\right) = -E_X\left(-\frac{n}{\sigma^2}\right) = \frac{n}{\sigma^2}$$

Hence the Jeffreys prior is $\pi(\theta) \propto 1$.

The posterior will be

$$\pi(\theta|x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i - \theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\theta^2 - 2\theta\bar{x}}{2\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}\right) \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathsf{N}\left(\bar{x}, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

Example 2: Poisson likelihood

Let $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)'$ be a random sample from Poisson(λ).

$$\log f(x|\lambda) = \log \left[\exp(-n\lambda)\lambda^{\sum x_i} \right] = -n\lambda + \log(\lambda) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i,$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \log f(x|\lambda) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{\lambda} - n.$$

$$\mathcal{I}(\lambda|x) = -E_X\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda^2}\log f(x|\lambda)\right) = -E_X\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\lambda^2}\right) = \frac{n\lambda}{\lambda^2} = \frac{n}{\lambda}$$

Jeffreys prior: $\pi(\theta) \propto 1/\sqrt{\lambda}$. Posterior: Gamma($\frac{1}{2} + \sum x_i, n$).

Pros and Cons

- Jeffreys' prior provides a popular for 'objective' Bayesian inference.
- Usually improper, therefore the propriety of the posterior should also be checked.
- Requires Fisher information that can be very hard to compute, particularly in high dimensions.
- Overall, the problem of prior specification in higher dimensions is quite challenging.

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Multiparameter models

We may have more than one parameters, say $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$. As before assign a prior $\pi(\theta_1, \theta_2)$ and obtain the posterior

$$\pi(\theta_1, \theta_2 | x) = \frac{f(x | \theta_1, \theta_2) \pi(\theta_1, \theta_2)}{\int \int f(x | \theta_1, \theta_2) \pi(\theta_1, \theta_2) d\theta_1 d\theta_2}$$

If interest mainly lies in θ_1 , the marginal posterior of θ_1 may be used by averaging over θ_2 .

$$\pi(\theta_1|x) = \int \pi(\theta_1, \theta_2|x) d\theta_2$$

Example 3: Normal likelihood for μ and σ^2

Let $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$ be a random sample from a $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ with both μ and σ^2 unknown.

Likelihood: The likelihood is (s^2 denotes the sample variance)

$$f(x|\theta) \propto (\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(n-1)s^2 + n(\bar{x}-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Prior: Consider the improper prior is $\pi(\theta, \sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$

Example 3: Normal likelihood for μ and σ^2 (cont'd)

Posterior: factorised as $\pi(\theta|x, \sigma^2)\pi(\sigma^2|x)$

$$\begin{split} \pi(\theta,\sigma^2|x) &\propto (\sigma^2)^{-n/2-1} \exp\left(-\frac{(n-1)s^2 + n(\bar{x}-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\ &= (\sigma^2)^{-n/2-1} \exp\left(-\frac{(n-1)s^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{(\bar{x}-\theta)^2}{2\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}\right) \\ &= \sqrt{2\pi} (\frac{\sigma^2}{n})^{1/2} (\sigma^2)^{-n/2-1} \exp\left(-\frac{\frac{(n-1)s^2}{2}}{\sigma^2}\right) \times \mathsf{N}\left(\bar{x},\frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \\ &= \mathsf{IGamma}\left(\frac{n-1}{2},\frac{(n-1)s^2}{2}\right) \times \mathsf{N}\left(\bar{x},\frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \end{split}$$

(**Note:** The distributions above represent their densities)

Notes on multiparameter models

- Substantial increase in calculations. Inference is feasible only for a few models.
- This can be resolved using MCMC or approximate methods.
- Specification of priors may still be an issue.

Reading

J.O. Berger Sections 3.3, 4.2 and 4.3.2