02/01/22		Happy	new	year!		
1	E <sub>θ</sub> ( L	( e , s(x) ) )	=	∫ L(θ, δ(x)	)) tcx10) 9x	= R (0, 8(x))
	E <sub>ω</sub> ( Γ	(0, d) (x)	) =	J L(0, d)	) π(Θι×) δ	= ρ(π, d(x)
<b>Ø</b>	Midterm	1				
3	HW#2	solution :	w+100	cted		

#### † Hierarchical Bayes

• A hierarchical model is simply a special case of Bayesian model.

$$\underbrace{x \sim f(x \mid \underline{\theta})}_{\text{sampling model}}, \quad \underbrace{\underline{\theta} \sim \pi_1(\theta \mid \theta_1)}_{\text{stage 1 prior}}, \dots, \quad \underbrace{\underline{\theta}_n \sim \pi_{n+1}(\theta_n)}_{\text{stage } n+1 \text{ prior}}.$$

$$x \sim f(x \mid \theta), \theta \sim \pi(\theta),$$

for the prior

$$\pi(\theta) = \int_{\Theta_1 \times \ldots \times \Theta_n} \pi_1(\theta \mid \theta_1) \pi_2(\theta_1 \mid \theta_2) \ldots \pi_{n+1}(\theta_n) d\theta_1 \ldots d\theta_n.$$

\*\* Most of time  $\theta$  is of the primary interest, less interest for hyperparameters,  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n$ .

• 
$$f(x_1,...,x_p \mid \mu, x_s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{\pi} f(x_1 \mid \theta_1, \sigma_s) \cdot \pi^{\sigma}(\theta_1 \mid \mu, x_s) d\theta_1 \cdots d\theta_p$$

- · Unknown parameters:
  - ( ) Random : θ,..., Θρ , μ, τ2
  - The specify their values.
- 1) joint posterror distr.

· T21 ( M | Mo, KC2) Tez ( 22 ( a, b)

$$=\frac{P}{\Pi}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi r^2}}\exp\left(-\frac{(\kappa r-\theta r)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\cdot\frac{P}{\Pi}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi r^2}}\exp\left(-\frac{(\theta r-\mu)^2}{2r^2}\right)$$

$$\times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \kappa^{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\mu - \mu_{0})^{2}}{2\kappa \tau^{2}}\right) \cdot \left(\tau^{2}\right)^{-\alpha - 1} \exp\left(-\frac{\tau^{2}}{b}\right)$$

$$\underbrace{\text{ex1}} \qquad \pi \left( \text{ } \text{ } \text{ } \text{ } \text{ } \theta_{1}, \dots, \theta_{P}, \text{ } \text{ } \tau^{2}, \text{ } \textbf{ } \right) \quad } \quad \text{exp} \left( - \frac{P}{74} \frac{\left(\theta_{1} - \mu_{1}\right)^{2}}{2\mathcal{C}^{2}} - \frac{\left(\mu - \mu_{0}\right)^{2}}{2\mathcal{K}\mathcal{C}^{2}} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \mu \mid \theta_1, \dots, \theta_p, \, \mathcal{C}^2, \, \times \quad \sim \quad \mathcal{V} \left( \left( \frac{p}{\mathcal{C}^2} + \frac{1}{K\mathcal{C}^2} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{\xi \theta_i}{\mathcal{C}^2} + \frac{\mu \sigma}{K\mathcal{C}^2} \right) \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{\mathcal{L}_2}{b} + \frac{\kappa \mathcal{L}_3}{1} \end{array}\right)_{-1}$$

 BJ Result 7, p180 Supposing all densities below exist and are nonzero, we have

$$\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) = \int_{\Theta_1 \times ... \times \Theta_n} \pi(\theta, \theta_1, ..., \theta_n \mid \mathbf{x}) d\theta_1 ... d\theta_n.$$

- \*\* Implication? Recall the posterior of  $\theta$  is of main interest. Our strategy is
- \*\* Find the joint posterior of  $\theta, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n$ .
- \*\* Then integrate out  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n$  to obtain the marginal posterior of  $\theta$ .
- \*\* Analytically impossible most of time, so numerically evaluate using posterior simulation.
- \*\* See CR Chapter 10 for more on Empirical Bayes and Hierarchical Bayes.

• A simple example of *Hierarchical Bayes* with two levels:

JB 4.5.2 (contd) Recall that we have  $X_i \mid \theta_i \stackrel{indep}{\sim} N(\theta_i, \sigma^2)$  with known  $\sigma^2$ , i = 1, ..., p and  $\theta_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \tau^2)$ , where hyperparameters  $(\mu, \tau^2) \in \Theta_2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^+$  are unknown.

- \*\* Sampling model:  $X_i \mid \theta_i \stackrel{indep}{\sim} N(\theta_i, \sigma^2)$ .
- \*\* The first-level prior:  $\theta_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \pi(\theta) = N(\mu, \tau^2)$
- \*\* The second-level prior  $\pi_2(\mu, \tau^2)$ :

$$\pi_2(\mu, \tau^2) = \pi_{21}(\mu \mid \tau^2) \ \pi_{22}(\tau^2).$$

- $\star\star$   $\pi_2$  is called a *hyperprior*.
- \*\* The parameters of  $\pi_2$  are called *hyperparameters*.

## JB 4.5.2 (contd)

- Let  $\pi_2(\mu, \tau^2) = N(\mu_0, \kappa \tau^2) IG(a_{\overline{\tau}}, b_{\tau})$ . Now we need to specify values of  $\mu_0$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $a_{\tau}$  and  $b_{\tau}$ .
- \*\* May use subjective beliefs to choose the values.

- \*\* "mean true ability" is near  $\underline{100}$  with a "standard error" of  $\pm 20$
- \*\* "variance of true abilities",  $\tau^2$  is about 200 with "standard error" of  $\pm$  100.

$$E(x_5) = \frac{p_5}{(0-1)^5} = 500$$

## † Comments on Hierarchical Bayes

- A full Bayesian approach using hierarchical priors
- A hierarchical Bayesian model compares very favorably with empirical Bayes analysis in practical and theoretical senses.
- A hierarchical modeling of the prior information decomposes the prior distribution into several conditional levels of distributions.
- According to the Bayesian paradigm, uncertainty at any of these levels is incorporated into additional prior distributions.
- The hierarchical model improves the robustness of the resulting Bayes estimator: while still incorporating prior information, the estimators are also well performing from a frequentist point of view.

- † Conjugate Priors (Sec 3.3)
  - **Example 3.2.6** Let  $x \sim N(\theta, 1)$ . For Case 2, we considered the prior,  $\theta \sim \text{Cauchy}(0, 1)$ . In the case,  $\pi(\theta \mid x)$  and m(x) are not easily calculable.
  - **Def 3.3.1:** A family  $\mathcal{F}$  of probability distributions on  $\Theta$  is said to be *conjugate* (or closed under sampling) for a likelihood function  $f(x \mid \theta)$  if, for every  $\pi \in \mathcal{F}$ , the posterior distribution  $\pi(\theta \mid x)$  also belong to  $\mathcal{F}$ .
  - The main motivation for using conjugate priors is their tractability
  - Also, when limited prior input is available, they are easy to specify since only the determination of a few parameters are needed.

- † Examples: Conjugate Priors
- e.g1 Assume  $x \mid \theta \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$  and  $\theta \sim N(\mu, \tau^2)$ .

$$\Rightarrow \; \theta \mid \mathbf{x} \sim \mathsf{N} \left( \left( \frac{1}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\sigma^2} + \frac{\mu}{\tau^2} \right), \left( \frac{1}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2} \right)^{-1} \right).$$

- \*\* Normal priors are a conjugate family for normal sampling distributions.
- e.g2 Assume  $X \mid \theta \sim \text{Bin}(n, \theta)$  and  $\theta \sim \text{Be}(\alpha, \beta)$ .

$$\Rightarrow \theta \mid x \sim \text{Be}(\alpha + x, \beta + n - x).$$

\*\* Beta priors are a conjugate family for binomial sampling distributions.

- † Comments on conjugate priors
  - Sometimes called objective because the sampling model entirely determines the class of priors.
  - Can be a reasonable approximation to the true prior
  - Updating parameters provides an easy way of seeing the effect of prior and sample information
    - $\Rightarrow$  easily calculate  $\pi(\theta \mid x)$  (computationally convenient)
  - <u>However</u>, possibly limited modeling capacity since it is not justified for its proper fitting of the available prior information (so, sometimes resulting in unappealing conclusions)

- † Extension: The class of finite mixtures of natural conjugate priors (CR 3.4)
  - Recall: One disadvantage of conjugate priors limiting modeling capacity, but a big advantage – computational convenience.
  - One possible extension to overcome the disadvantage while keeping the advantage is using a mixture model.
  - Mixtures can be used as a basis to approximate any prior distribution.
  - **Example 3.4.1** When a coin is spun on its edge, instead of being thrown in the air, the proportion of *heads* is rarely close to 1/2, but is rather 1/3 and 2/3 because of irregularities in the edge that causes the game to favor one side or the other.

$$\int_{0}^{1} \pi_{2}(0) d0 = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{Be(10, 20)}_{0} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{Be(20, 10)}_{0} d0$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 = 1$$

• **Example 3.4.1** (contd): When spinning, n times, a given coin on its edge, we observe the number of heads,  $x \sim \text{Be}(n, p)$ . The prior distribution on p is then likely to be bimodal.

Let's consider three different priors.

\*\* 
$$\pi_1$$
: Be(1,1)

\*\*  $\pi_2$ : a mixture prior distribution,  $1/2$ Be(10,20) +  $1/2$ Be(20,10)

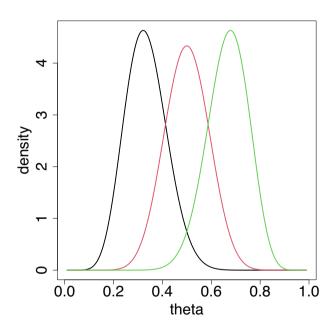
\*\*  $\pi_2$ : a mixture prior distribution,  $1/2$ Be(10,20) +  $1/2$ Be(20,10)

\*\*  $\pi_3$ : previous experiments with the same coin have already hinted at a bias toward *head* and they lead to the following alternative, 0.5Be(10, 20) + 0.2Be(15, 15) + 0.3Be(20, 10).

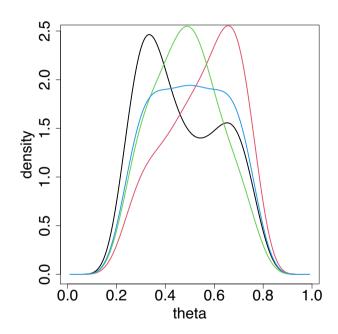
9 ~ 0.5 Be(10,20) + 0.2 Be(15,15) + 0.3 Be(20,10)

$$\begin{cases} \delta = 1 & \Rightarrow & \theta \wedge \text{Be}(10, 20) \\ \delta = 2 & \Rightarrow & \theta \wedge \text{Be}(15, 15) \\ \delta = 3 & \Rightarrow & \theta \wedge \text{Be}(20, 10) \end{cases}$$

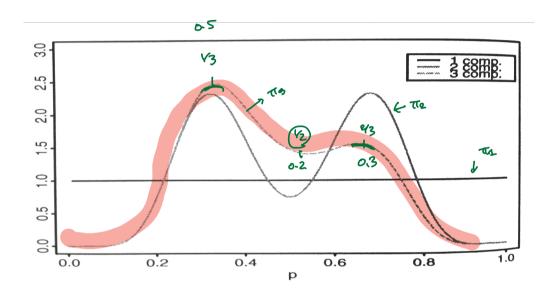
 $\clubsuit$  Densities of Be(10, 20) (black), Be(15, 15) (red), and Be(20, 10) (green).



 $\clubsuit$  The mixture  $w_1$ Be(10, 20) +  $w_2$ Be(15, 15) +  $w_3$ Be(20, 10) with different weights.



# • Example 3.4.1 (contd): Three prior distributions



gure 3.4.1. Three prior distributions for a spinning-coin experiment.

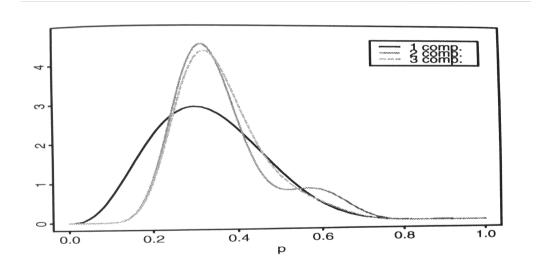
• **Example 3.4.1** (contd): Suppose x = 3 for n = 10 is observed.

The corresponding posterior distributions are

\*\* 
$$\pi_1$$
: Be(4,8)  $= 3$ ,  $= 3$ 

\*\* 
$$\pi_2$$
: 0.84Be(13, 27) + 0.16Be(23, 17)

\*\* 
$$\pi_3$$
: 0.77Be(13, 27) + 0.16Be(18, 22) + 0.07Be(23, 17).



3.4.2. Posterior distributions for the spinning model for 10 observations.

Be ( &, B)

• **Example 3.4.1** (contd): Suppose  $x = \underline{14}$  for  $n = \underline{60}$  is observed.

The corresponding posterior distributions are

\*\*  $\pi_1$ : Be(15, 37)

\*\*  $\pi_2$ : 0.997Be(24, 56) + 0.003Be(34, 46)

\*\*  $\pi_3$ : 0.95Be(24, 56) + 0.047Be(29, 51) + 0.003Be(34, 46).

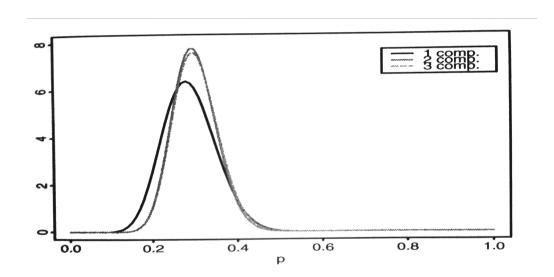
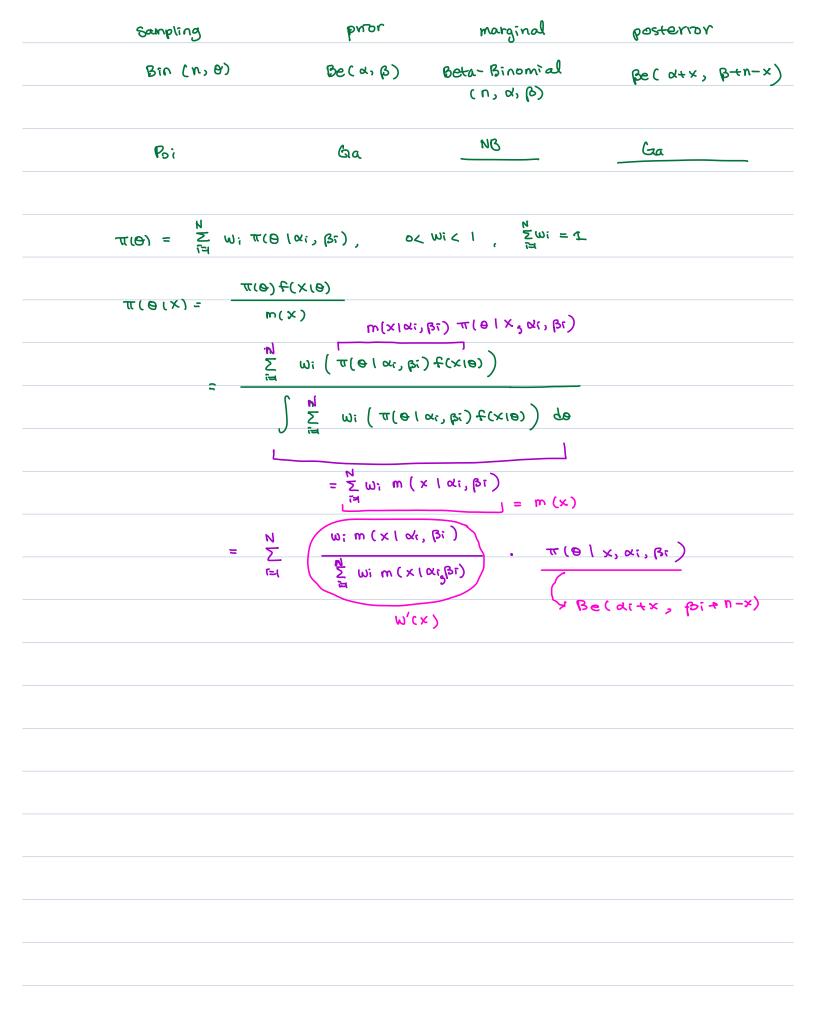


Figure 3.4.3. Posterior distributions for 50 observations.



- Use a mixture of priors and find the posterior distribution
  - $\star\star$  Consider the set of mixtures of N distributions,

$$\pi(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \pi(\theta \mid \mu_i),$$

where  $\mu_i$  is hyperparameters.

\*\* Then the posterior distribution is a mixture

$$\pi(\theta \mid x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i'(x) \pi(\theta \mid \mu_i, x),$$

with

$$w'_{i}(x) = \frac{w_{i}m(x \mid \mu_{i})}{m(x)} = \frac{w_{i}m(x \mid \mu_{i})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i}m(x \mid \mu_{i})}.$$

- Finite mixtures of natural conjugate priors.
  - \*\* See **Lemma 3.4.2** for the case where the prior is the natural conjugate family of an exponential family.
  - $\star\star$  Mixture models approximate bimodal or more complicated subjective prior distributions ( $\Rightarrow$  flexibility); see Theorem 3.4.3.
  - \*\* Also, they preserve much of the calculational simplicity of natural conjugate priors.
  - In general, mixture models can be useful when the population of sampling units consists of a number of subpopulations within each of which a relatively simple model applies.

- Finite mixtures of natural conjugate priors (contd)
  - \*\* Possible extensions.
    - \*\* unknown number of mixture components (random N)
    - \*\* random mixture weights (random  $w_i$ ).
    - e.g.  $(w_1, \ldots, w_N) \mid N \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_N)$ .

- † Noninformative Prior Distributions (CR 3.5 & JB 3.3)
  - When no (or minimal) prior information is available, we may use noninformative prior distributions:
    - \*\* Priors which contain "no" information about  $\theta$  (roughly favor no possible values of  $\theta$  over others!)
    - \*\* A mathematical expression of the state of ignorance about a parameter in a statistical model
  - Noninformative priors cannot be expected to represent exactly total ignorance about the problem at hand. A choice of noninformative priors affects the posterior inference.
  - Noninformative priors: Laplace priors, invariant priors, Jeffreys priors, reference priors...

- † Laplace's Priors (uniform priors or flat priors)
  - The principles of insufficient reason: Assign the equiprobability to elementary events
  - When  $\Theta$  is a finite set, consisting of n elements, the obvious noninformative prior is to give each element of  $\Theta$  probability 1/n.

JB Sec 3.3.1 in testing between two simple hypotheses, the prior gives probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  to each of the hypothesis.

• Improper priors: a prior probability distribution which has infinite mass (i.e.,  $\int_{\Theta} \pi(\theta) d\theta = \infty$ )

JB Ex4, p82 Suppose the parameter of interest is a normal mean  $\theta$ , so  $\Theta = (-\infty, \infty)$ . It seems reasonable that a natural noninformative prior gives equal weight to all possible values of  $\theta$ , uniform density on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Thus,  $\pi(\theta) = c > 0$ . Since a choice of the value of c is not important, typical  $\pi(\theta) = 1$ .

- \*\* Observe  $\pi$  has infinite mass!
- \*\* The posterior distribution  $\pi(\theta \mid x)$  can be given by Bayes formula when the pseudo marginal distribution  $\int_{\Theta} f(x \mid \theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta < \infty$  for every x in the support of  $f(x \mid \theta)$ .
- \*\* Since  $\pi(\theta \mid x)$  is proper,  $\rho(\pi(\theta \mid x), a)$  is finite and so we can find a Bayes action!  $\rho(\pi, a) \times$

$$\theta \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\eta = e^{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\pi_{\eta}(\eta) = e \cdot \frac{1}{\eta}$$

$$\theta = \log \eta$$

- Invariance under Reparameterization
  - \*\* Consider a reparameterization  $\eta = g(\theta)$ , where  $g(\cdot)$  is monotone over the domain of  $\theta$ .
  - **\*\*** Find the induced prior for  $\eta$

$$\pi_{\eta}(\eta) = \pi_{\theta}(g^{-1}(\eta))|dg^{-1}(\eta)/d\theta|.$$

- \*\* A more intrinsic and more acceptable notion of noninformative priors should satisfy *invariance under reparameterization*.
- i.e.,  $\pi_{\eta}(\eta)$  is also a flat prior for  $\eta$ .

- JB Ex4, p82 (contd) Consider  $\eta = \exp(\theta)$  by a one-to-one transformation.
  - \*\* It is reasonable to assume that  $\pi^*(\eta)$  is also a noninformative prior for  $\eta$ .
  - \*\* We can find

$$\pi(\theta) = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \pi^*(\eta) = \left| \frac{d}{d\eta} g^{-1}(\eta) \right| = \eta^{-1}.$$

Observe  $\pi^*(\eta) = \eta^{-1}$  is not constant.  $\Rightarrow$  Not invariant under reparameterization.

\*\* Do Ex 3.5.1 for more example.

#### † Invariant Priors

- priors invariant under transformation of x. Ex 3.5.2 (location parameter) and Ex 3.5.3 (scale parameter)
  - \*\* (intuition) Consider  $x \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\sigma^2$  fixed. Assume instead of observing x, we observe y = x + c with a constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Defining  $\eta = \theta + c$ , the problems of  $(x, \theta)$  and  $(y, \eta)$  are identical so  $\theta$  and  $\eta$  should have the same noninofrmative prior.
- For a location parameter  $\theta$ ,  $\pi(\theta) = c$
- For a scale parameter  $\sigma$ ,  $\pi(\sigma) = c/\sigma$

- † Fisher Information (CB p338 or 203 Textbook §8.8)
  - (Def: Fisher Information in a Random Variable) Let X be a random variable whose distribution depends on a parameter  $\theta$  that takes values in an open interval  $\Theta$  of the real line. Let the pf or pdf of X be  $f(x \mid \theta)$ . Assume that the set of x such that  $f(x \mid \theta) > 0$  is the same for all  $\theta$  and that  $\log(f(x \mid \theta))$  is twice differentiable as a function of  $\theta$ . The Fisher information  $I(\theta)$  in the random variable X is defined as

$$I(\theta) = \mathsf{E}_{\theta} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial \log f(x \mid \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right)^2 \right].$$