

01/27/22

- ① HW#2 : due tomorrow (move Q1 to HW#3)
- ② Midterm 1: everything upto today's lecture.

STAT 206B

Chapter 3: From Prior Information to Prior Distributions

Winter 2022

- A fundamental basis of Bayesian decision theory is that statistical inference should start with the rigorous determination of three factors.
 - ★★ the distribution family for the observations (sampling distribution), $f(x | \theta)$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$
 - ★★ the prior distribution for the parameter $\pi(\theta)$, $\theta \in \Theta$
 - ★★ the loss association with the decisions, $L(\theta, \delta) \in [0, +\infty)$.
- In this chapter, we will discuss prior distributions – CR Chapter 3 and JB Chapters 3 & 4.

† Priors!

- Priors are carriers of external knowledge (outside the data being modeled and analyzed) that is coherently incorporated via Bayes theorem to the inference.
- Parameters (θ) are unobservable.
 $x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
 $\begin{cases} p_i \\ NB \end{cases}$
 \Rightarrow Prior specification is subjective in nature.
- There is no unique way of choosing a prior distribution.
 \Rightarrow There is no such a thing as *the* prior distribution.
- The choice of the prior distribution has an influence on the resulting inference.
 \Rightarrow Ungrounded prior distributions produce unjustified posterior inference.

† *Is using a prior a problem?*

- The elicitation of a model (likelihood) and loss function is highly subjective, and Bayesians merely divide the necessary subjectivity to two sources - that from the model and from the prior.
- Vast amount scientific information coming from theoretical and physical models is guiding specification of priors and merging such information with the data for better inference.
- Being subjective \neq Being nonscientific

- If complete information is given, an exact prior can be elicited. **However**, it is very rare!
- How to specify priors?
 - ★★ Subjective determination and approximations (Sec 3.2)
 - ★★ Conjugate priors (Sec 3.3)
 - ★★ Noninformative prior distributions (Sec 3.5): *have little influence on the posterior distribution*
- *criticism*: Bayesian inference is overly sensitive to the choice of a prior.
 - ⇒ the development of **non-informative** and **robust** priors (so change in the prior distribution does not change the posterior inference much)

† Subjective Determination (Sec 3.2) $\theta \in \Theta$

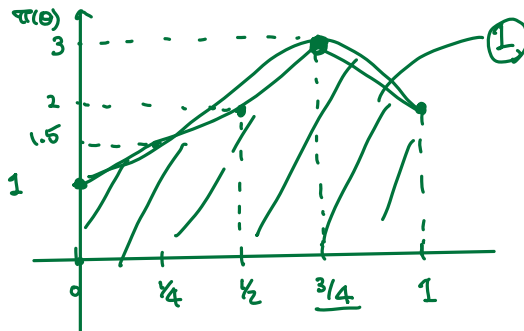


- Subjective prior distributions exist as a consequence of an ordering of relative likelihoods.
- Approximations to the prior distribution. e.g.
 - ★★ When the parameter space Θ is finite, obtain a subjective evaluation of the probabilities of the different values of θ .
 - ★★ When Θ is noncountable (e.g. an interval of the real line), may use the histogram approach.
 - Divide Θ into intervals
 - Determine the subjective probability of each interval
 - Plot a probability histogram
 - If needed, a smooth density $\pi(\theta)$ can be sketched.

- Approximations to the prior distribution. (contd)

JB Example 1 Assume that $\Theta = [0, 1]$. Suppose that

- ★★ the parameter point $\theta = 3/4$ is felt to be the most likely, while $\theta = 0$ is the least likely.
- ★★ $3/4$ is estimated to be three times as likely to be the true value of θ as is 0.
- ★★ $\theta = 1/2$ and $\theta = 1$ are twice as likely as $\theta = 0$ while $\theta = 1/4$ is 1.5 times as likely as $\theta = 0$.



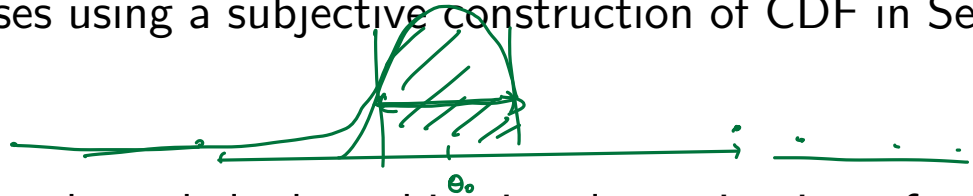
$$\pi(\theta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

α, β

$\alpha,$

- Approximations to the prior distribution. (contd)
 - ★★ So far we have seen “histogram approach” and “relative likelihood approach”.

★★ JB discusses using a subjective construction of CDF in Section 3.2.



- When Θ is not bounded, the subjective determination of π is complicated due to the difficulty of subjectively evaluating the probabilities of the extreme regions of Θ (will see this from Example 3.2.6).
- Using marginal distribution to determine the prior (JB 3.5)

- Parametric Approximations

★★ *How?* Assume that $\pi(\theta)$ is of a given functional form and then choose the density of this given form which most closely matches prior beliefs (through the *moments*, the *quantiles*, etc).

★★ Most used (and misused)

★★ Very useful when a density of a standard functional form gives a good match to the prior information.

★★ Also useful when only vague prior information is available.

★★ Considerably different functional forms can often be chosen for the prior density (as will be seen in Example 3.2.6).

★★ *drawback:* The choice of the parameterized family is often based on ease in the mathematical treatment. The resulting posterior inference is affected by the choice.

- **Ex 3.2.5** Let $X_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, p_i)$ be the number of passing students in a freshman calculus course of n_i students. Over the previous years, the average of the p_i is 0.70, with variance 0.1. If we assume that the p_i 's are all generated according to the same beta distribution, $\text{Be}(\alpha, \beta)$, then we choose the values of α and β which most closely matches the prior beliefs. That is, set

$$\mu = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \stackrel{0.7}{=} \text{and } \tau^2 = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)} \stackrel{0.1}{=}$$

$\alpha = (0.7)(\alpha + \beta)$

and solve for α and β .

$$\alpha = 0.77 \quad \& \quad \beta = 0.33$$

$$\Rightarrow p_i \sim \text{Be}(0.77, 0.33)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)} \\ &= \left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \right) \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{(\alpha + \beta + 1)} \\ &= 0.7 \times (1 - 0.7) \cdot \frac{1}{\left(\frac{0.7}{0.7} + 1 \right)} = 0.1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\theta \in \mathbb{R} = (\mathbb{H})$$



• **Example 3.2.6** Let $x \sim N(\theta, 1)$. Assume that the prior median of θ is 0, the first quartile is -1, and the third quartile is +1. Use the quadratic loss function.

$$m(x) \text{ is } N\left(\begin{matrix} \mu \\ 0 \end{matrix}, \sigma^2 + \tau^2\right) = 1 + 2.19 = 3.19$$

★★ Case 1: Assume $\theta \sim N(\mu, \tau^2)$ and set $\mu = 0$ and $\tau^2 = 2.19$. $\sqrt{3.19} = 1.786$

$$\Rightarrow \delta_1^\pi(x) = x - \frac{x}{3.19}$$

$$\underline{\mu = ?}, \quad \tau^2 = ?$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu = 0$$

$$P_r(\theta < -1) = 0.25$$

$$P_r\left(\underbrace{\frac{\theta - 0}{\tau}}_{\sim N(0, 1)} < \frac{-1 - 0}{\tau}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{-1}{\tau}\right) = 0.25$$

$$\Phi^{-1}(0.25) = -\frac{1}{\tau}$$

↑
inverse of cdf

$$\Rightarrow \tau = -\frac{1}{\Phi^{-1}(0.25)} = \sqrt{2.19}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau^2 = 2.19$$

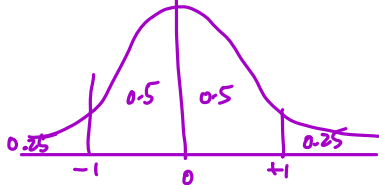
$$\pi(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau^2}} e^{-\frac{(\theta - \mu)^2}{2\tau^2}}$$

$$\theta \sim N(0, 2.19)$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta | x \sim N\left(\left(\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2.19}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{1} + \frac{0}{2.19}\right), \left(\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2.19}\right)^{-1}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta_1^\pi(x) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2.19}\right)^{-1} x$$

- **Example 3.2.6** (contd)



★★ Case 2: Assume θ has a Cauchy distribution and set $\theta \sim \text{Cauchy}(0, 1)$.

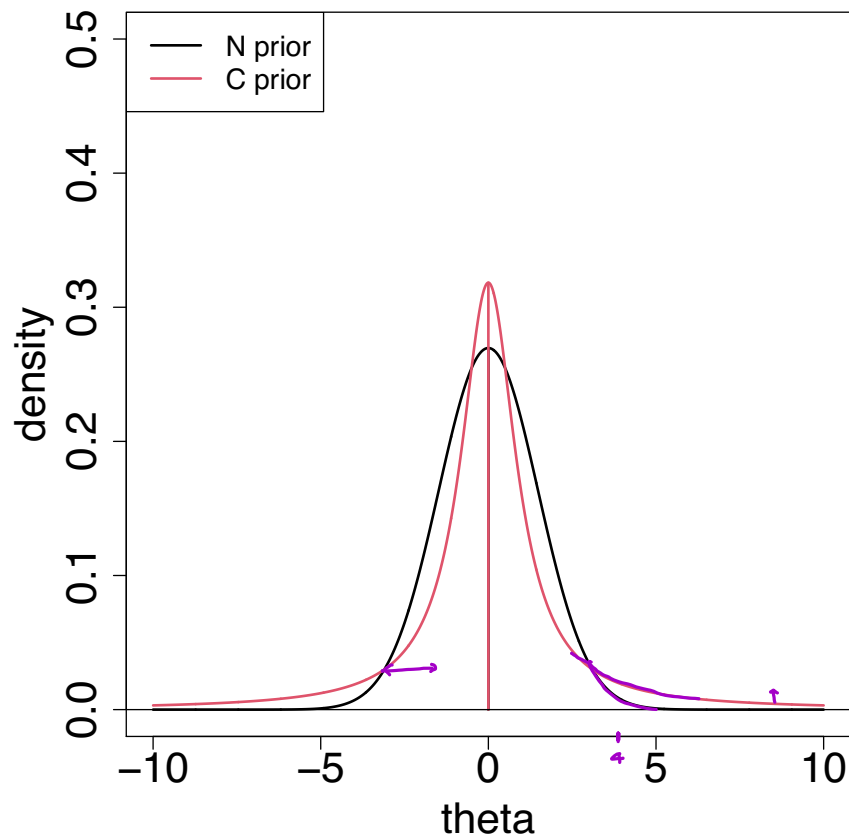
$$\Rightarrow \delta_2^\pi(x) \approx x - \frac{x}{1+x^2} \text{ for } |x| \geq 4$$

$$\pi(\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi \cdot (1+\theta^2)}, \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R} = \textcircled{\mathbb{H}}$$

$$\pi(\theta|x) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi(1+\theta^2)}}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi(1+\theta^2)} d\theta}, \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R} = \textcircled{\mathbb{H}}$$

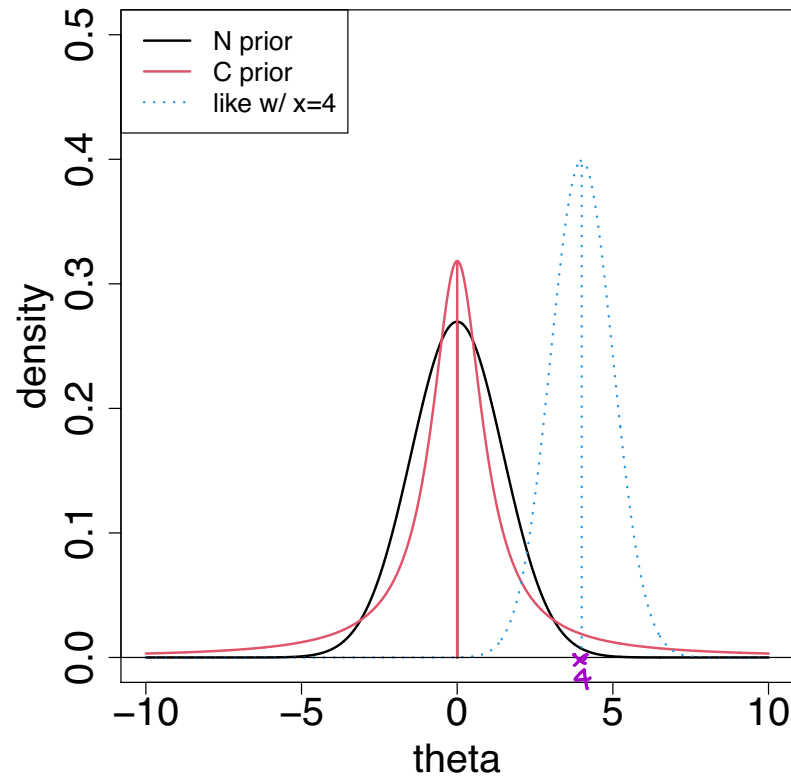
★★ For $x = 4$, we have $\delta_2^\pi(x) = 3.76$.

- **Example 3.2.6** (contd)

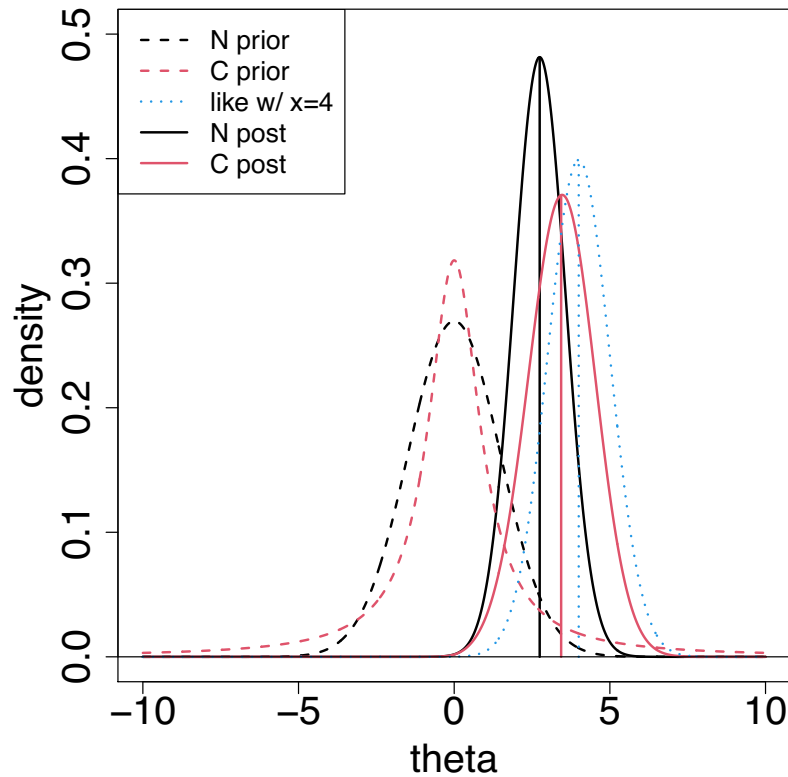


- **Example 3.2.6** (contd) Suppose $x = 4$ is observed.

NL



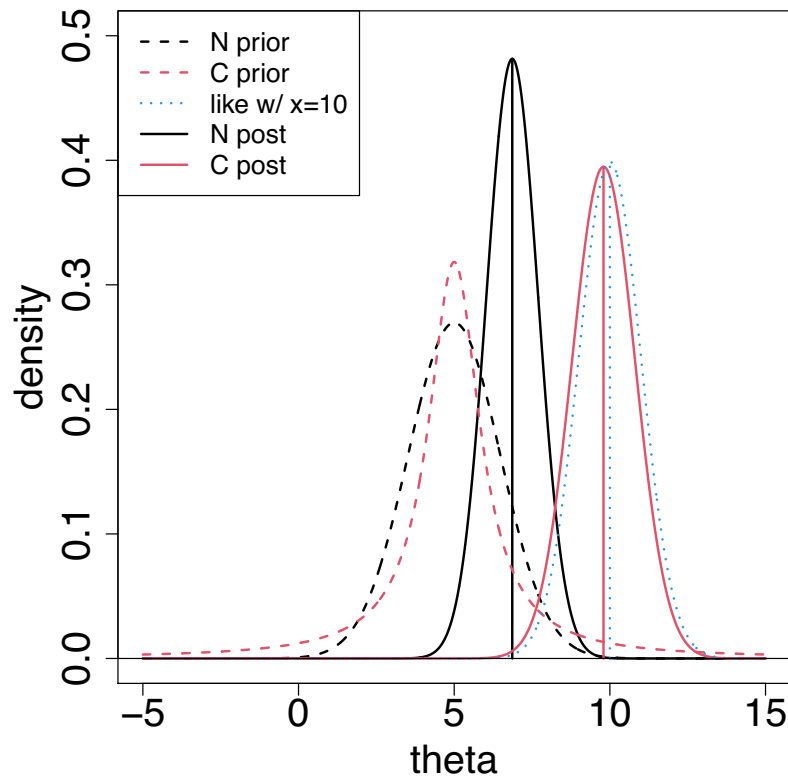
- **Example 3.2.6** (contd) Case 1: $\delta_1^\pi(x) = \underline{2.75}$ vs Case 2: $\delta_2^\pi(x) = \underline{3.76}$.



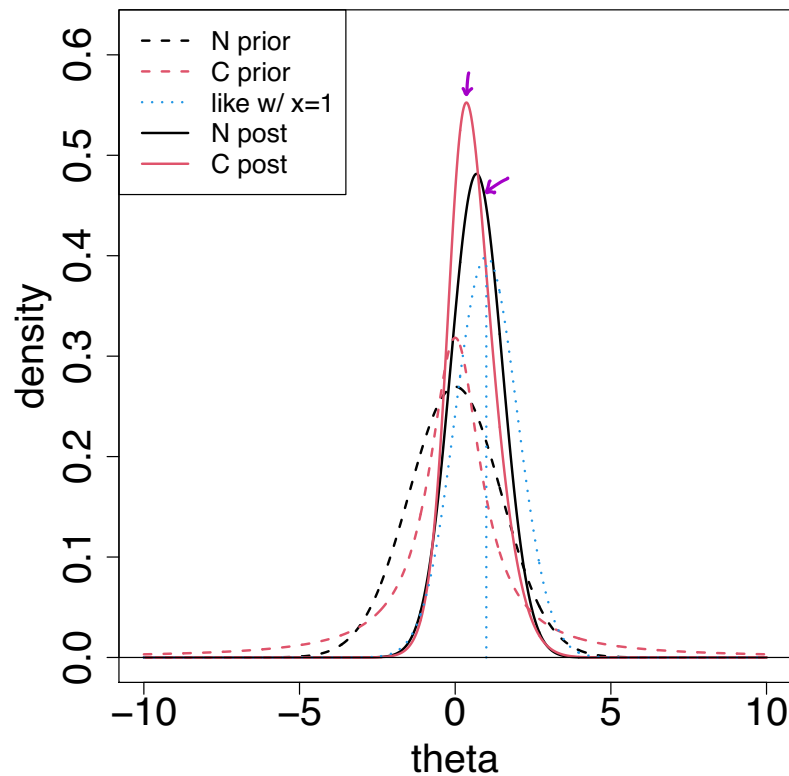
- **Example 3.2.6**(contd) If $x = 10$ is observed,

$$\delta_1^{\pi}(x) = 6.86$$

$$\delta_2^{\pi}(x) = 9.90$$



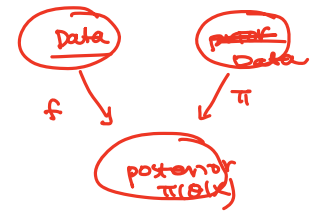
- **Example 3.2.6**(contd) If $x = 1$ is observed,



- **Example 3.2.6** (contd) Take-home message;
 - ★★ The selection of the parameterized family greatly affects the inference about θ , especially due to the tail of the chosen prior where prior information is scarce.
 - ★★ These posterior discrepancies call for some tests on the validity (or robustness) of the selected priors.

$$x_i | \theta_i \sim N(\theta_i, \sigma^2), \quad i=1, \dots, p$$

$$\theta_i \sim N(\mu, \tau^2)$$

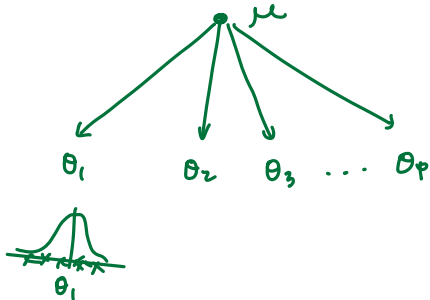


† Empirical Bayes

- Use data to estimate some features of the prior distribution
- Choose a *prior* distribution a posteriori! \Rightarrow It does not belong to the Bayesian paradigm.
- Parametric empirical Bays:
 - ★★ Assume that the prior distribution of θ is in some parametric class with unknown parameters.
 - ★★ Use data to specify the unknown parameters.

JB in Section 4.5.2 Assume that $X_i \mid \theta_i \stackrel{\text{indep}}{\sim} N(\theta_i, \sigma^2)$ with known σ^2 , $i = 1, \dots, p$ and θ_i are from a common prior distribution. Specify the prior distribution for $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)$ using data. Assume $\theta_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(\mu, \tau^2)$. The hyperparameters μ and τ^2 are unknown.

X_i is the test score of individual i , random about his/her true ability θ_i with known “reliability” σ^2 . True abilities θ_i , $i = 1, \dots, p$ are from an unknown normal population.



JB 4.5.2 (contd) How do we specify values for μ and τ^2 ?

- ★★ We use the data to estimate μ and τ^2 .
- ★★ One way is to consider $m(\mathbf{x} \mid \pi)$ as a likelihood function for π as follows;
- ★★ **Intuition** $m(\mathbf{x} \mid \pi)$ is the density according to which X will actually occur.

If X_i is a test score of individual i which was normally distributed about “true ability” θ_i , and the true ability in the population varied according to a normal distribution with mean μ and τ^2 , then $m(x_i)$ would be the actual distribution of observed test scores.

★★ Recall we called $m(x \mid \pi)$ the predictive distribution for x .

$$x_i | \theta_i \stackrel{\text{indep}}{\sim} N(\theta_i, \sigma^2), \quad \sigma^2 \text{ known}, \quad i=1, \dots, p$$

$$\theta_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(\mu, \tau^2)$$

$$m(x | \mu, \tau^2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \dots \int_{\mathbb{R}} \prod_{i=1}^p \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - \theta_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\theta_i - \mu)^2}{2\tau^2}\right) d\theta_1 \dots d\theta_p$$

= marginal distr. of x

or (prior predictive distr. of x)

$$= \prod_{i=1}^p \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)}\right)$$

$$x_i | \mu, \tau^2 \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2 + \tau^2)$$

⇒ Find the values of (μ, τ^2) that maximize

$$m(x | \mu, \tau^2)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial \log m(x | \mu, \tau^2)}{\partial \mu} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \log m(x | \mu, \tau^2)}{\partial \tau^2} = 0 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{solve for } \mu, \tau^2$$

JB 4.5.2 (contd)

- ★★ Seek to maximize $m(\mathbf{x} \mid \pi)$ over the hyperparameters μ and τ^2 by maximum likelihood.

Intuition If $m(x \mid \pi_1) > m(x \mid \pi_2)$, we can conclude that the data provides more support for π_1 than for π_2 .

- ★★ Recall that

$$\begin{aligned} m(\mathbf{x} \mid \mu, \tau^2) &= \prod_{i=1}^p \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)} \right\} \\ &= \{2\pi(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)\}^{-p/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{s^2}{2(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)} \right\} \exp \left\{ -\frac{p(\bar{x} - \mu)^2}{2(\sigma^2 + \tau^2)} \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^p x_i / p$ and $s^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p (x_i - \bar{x})^2$.

JB 4.5.2 (contd)

★★ We find the MLEs

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\tau}^2 = \max \left\{ 0, \frac{1}{p} s^2 - \sigma^2 \right\}.$$

★★ We can pretend that the θ_i are iid from $N(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\tau}^2)$ and proceed with a Bayesian analysis.

★★ **Or** we can use the moment method by matching the first two moments, $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$ and $\hat{\tau}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / (p - 1) - \sigma^2$.