STAT 431 — Applied Bayesian Analysis — Course Notes

Bayesian Computation: Monte Carlo

Fall 2022

Numerical integration works well for low-dimensional problems (few parameters).

For high-dimensional problems, simulation is often better ...

Any method using randomized simulation (sampling) for approximation is called a **Monte Carlo** method.

1

Independent Sampling

Idea: Randomly generate samples from the posterior.

Then use the **empirical distribution** of the samples to estimate aspects of the actual posterior.

Let data be ${m y}$, and let the sample from the posterior for parameter ${m heta}$ be

$$\theta^{(1)}, \cdots, \theta^{(S)}$$

1

A posterior sample may be used to approximate many things —

a mean:

$$\mathrm{E}(\theta \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \ \approx \ \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \theta^{(s)} = \mathrm{sample \ mean \ of} \ \theta^{(s)} \mathrm{s}$$

a variance:

$$Var(\theta \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \approx sample variance of \theta^{(s)}s$$

ightharpoonup a (lower) quantile $Q_{\theta}(\tau)$:

[Draw quantile ...]

Round τS to the nearest integer: $[\tau S]$

Then use the $[\tau S]$ th order statistic from the sample.

(The order statistics are the $\theta^{(s)}$ s re-ordered from least to greatest.)

➤ a 95% equal-tailed credible interval: form an estimated version of

$$(Q_{\theta}(0.025), Q_{\theta}(0.975))$$

▶ probability of $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$

fraction of
$$\theta^{(s)}$$
s in $\Theta_0 = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} I(\theta^{(s)} \in \Theta_0)$

where I represents the indicator function:

$$I(\theta \in \Theta_0) = \begin{cases} 1 & \theta \in \Theta_0 \\ 0 & \theta \notin \Theta_0 \end{cases}$$

 \triangleright a mean of a function of θ :

$$\mathrm{E}\big(g(\theta) \mid \boldsymbol{y}\big) \quad \approx \quad \frac{1}{S} \sum_{i=1}^{S} g\big(\theta^{(s)}\big)$$

This is valid because

$$g(\theta^{(1)}), \ldots, g(\theta^{(S)})$$

is a random sample from the posterior of $g(\theta)$.

Since these approximations are subject to random sampling variability, we need an assessment of their accuracy.

For example, the approximation

$$\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} g(\theta^{(s)})$$
 of $E(g(\theta) \mid \boldsymbol{y})$

has an approximate standard error of

$$\dfrac{sd_g}{\sqrt{S}}$$
 where $sd_g=\sqrt{ ext{sample var. of }gig(heta^{(s)}ig)} ext{s}$ (why?)

This is the **Monte Carlo error** for the mean approximation.

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Example: Jevons's Coins Comparison

For $n_1 = 24$ coins minted before 1830:

$$\bar{y}_1 = 7.8730$$
 $s_1 = \text{sample s.d.} = 0.05353$

For $n_2 = 123$ newer coins (1860's):

$$\bar{y}_2 \ = \ 7.9725 \qquad s_2 \ = \ {\sf sample \ s.d.} \ = \ 0.01409$$

Assume independent samples from $Normal(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and $Normal(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$.

We want inference about $\mu_1 - \mu_2$.

Take "independent" "standard" (product-Jeffreys) priors:

$$\mu_1, \, \sigma_1^2, \, \mu_2, \, \sigma_2^2 \quad \sim \quad \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} \, d\mu_1 \, d\sigma_1^2 \, d\mu_2 \, d\sigma_2^2$$

Then it turns out that (later?)

$$(\mu_1,\sigma_1^2)$$
 and (μ_2,σ_2^2) are posterior-independent with posterior distributions $(i=1,2)$

$$\mu_i \mid \sigma_i^2, \boldsymbol{y} \sim \operatorname{Normal}(\bar{y}_i, \sigma_i^2/n_i)$$

$$\sigma_i^2 \mid \boldsymbol{y} \sim \operatorname{InvGamma}\left(\frac{n_i - 1}{2}, \frac{n_i - 1}{2}s_i^2\right)$$

where y represents both samples together.

As it turns out, under the posterior, μ_1 and μ_2 have independent (location-scale) t distributions. (Later?)

Nonetheless, $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ has no simple-form posterior density.

We can easily randomly sample from the posterior distribution of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ using R ...

R Example 3.3:

Comparing Normal Means: Independent Sampling

The 95% Welch interval is an approximate frequentist confidence interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$, used here for comparison:

$$\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2 \pm t_{0.025, \text{df}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$$

where

$$df = \frac{(s_1^2/n_1 + s_2^2/n_2)^2}{(s_1^2/n_1)^2/(n_1 - 1) + (s_2^2/n_2)^2/(n_2 - 1)}$$