MVE550 2022 Lecture 2 Compendium Chapter 1: Basics of Bayesian inference. Conjugacy. Prediction. Discretization.

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- Idea of Bayesian inference: Predicting from conditional stochastic models.
- Tossing a coin: The Beta Binomial conjugacy.
- ► The Poisson Gamma conjugacy.
- Computations of predictive distributions.
- Bayesian inference using discretization or numerical integration.

Example: Throwing a dice

- If you are trowing a fair six-sided dice, your stochastic model would be that each outcome has probability 1/6.
- New observations would be independent of old observations: To make predictions, you don't need data.
- Assume instead the dice may be biased in some way, but you don't know exactly how.
- A way to make predictions would be to first acquire data, i.e., record approximately how often each outcome occurs, and use that information when predicting. Outcomes would be *dependent*.
- Thus you use a more complex stochastic model that reasonably models the dependency.
- Given a sequence 1, 5, 6, 1, 3, 1, 1, 2, 1, 5, the probability for 1 in the next throw is then computed as

$$\Pr(1 \mid 1, 5, 6, 1, 3, 1, 1, 2, 1, 5) = \frac{\Pr(1, 5, 6, 1, 3, 1, 1, 2, 1, 5, 1)}{\Pr(1, 5, 6, 1, 3, 1, 1, 2, 1, 5)}$$

Biased coin example



Figure: The probability of heads at each point in a sequence of observations, conditioning on the previous observations of heads and tails. The prior used is that θ , the probability of heads, is either 0.7 or 0.5, with $\Pr(\theta = 0.7) = \Pr(\theta = 0.3) = 0.5$.

Reformulation using the underlying parameter θ

- A more common approach: Define the model in terms of a parameter θ, so that all observations are independent given θ.
- In our case: θ is a discrete random variable, possible values 0.7 and 0.3:

$$\pi(\theta = 0.7) = \pi(\theta = 0.3) = 0.5.$$

- If y is count of heads in n first throws, and y_{new} is count of heads in the next throw:
 - $y \mid \theta \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$ and $y_{new} \mid \theta \sim \text{Binomial}(1, \theta)$

We can use

$$\pi(y_{new} \mid y) = \sum_{\theta} \pi(y_{new} \mid \theta) \pi(\theta \mid y) \text{ and } \pi(\theta \mid y) = \frac{\pi(y \mid \theta) \pi(\theta)}{\pi(y)}$$

► For example, $\pi(\theta = 0.3 \mid y) = \frac{\pi(y|\theta=0.3)\pi(\theta=0.3)}{\pi(y|\theta=0.7)\pi(\theta=0.7)+\pi(y|\theta=0.3)\pi(\theta=0.3)}$. ► We get exactly the same results as above. (Prove!)

- The probability distribution for θ , $\pi(\theta)$, is called the prior.
- ► The probability distribution for the data y given θ , $\pi(y \mid \theta)$ is called the likelihood, when it is viewed as a function of θ .
- The probability distribution for θ given the value of the data *y*, $\pi(\theta \mid y)$ is called the posterior.

The conditional model π(θ | y) (the posterior for θ) can be computed with Bayes formula. We get

$$\pi(\theta \mid y) = \frac{\pi(y \mid \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\pi(y)} = \frac{\pi(y \mid \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\int_0^1 \pi(y \mid \theta)\pi(\theta) \, d\theta}$$
$$= \frac{\text{Binomial}(y; n, \theta)}{\int_0^1 \text{Binomial}(y; n, \theta) \, d\theta} = \frac{\theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n - y}}{\int_0^1 \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n - y} \, d\theta}$$

Before we continue with computing the integral, we review the definition of the Beta distribution.

Review of definition: The Beta distribution

 θ has a Beta distribution on [0, 1], with parameters α and $\beta,$ if its density has the form

$$\pi(heta \mid lpha, eta) = rac{1}{\mathsf{B}(lpha, eta)} heta^{lpha - 1} (1 - heta)^{eta - 1}$$

where $B(\alpha, \beta)$ is the Beta function defined by

$$\mathsf{B}(\alpha,\beta) = \frac{\mathsf{\Gamma}(\alpha)\mathsf{\Gamma}(\beta)}{\mathsf{\Gamma}(\alpha+\beta)}$$

where $\Gamma(t)$ is the Gamma function defined by

$$\Gamma(t)=\int_0^\infty x^{t-1}e^{-x}\,dx.$$

Recall that for positive integers, $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! = 1 \cdots (n-1)$. See for example Wikipedia for more properties of the Beta distribution, and the Beta and Gamma functions. We write $\pi(\theta \mid \alpha, \beta) = \text{Beta}(\theta; \alpha, \beta)$ for the Beta density; we then also write $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$.

Biased coin example



Figure: The probability of heads at each point in a sequence of observations, or the probability of "success", conditioning on the previous observations. The priors used are $\pi(\theta = 0.7) = \pi(\theta = 0.3) = 0.5$ (left) and $\theta \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$

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Using a Beta distribution as prior

- Assume the prior is $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$.
- The posterior becomes (prove!)

$$\theta \mid y \sim \mathsf{Beta}(\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

The prediction becomes (prove!)

$$\pi(y_{new} = 1 \mid y) = \mathsf{E}(\theta \mid y) = \frac{y + \alpha}{n + \alpha + \beta}.$$

DEFINITION: Given a likelihood model $\pi(x \mid \theta)$. A conjugate family of priors to this likelihood is a parametric family of distributions for θ so that if the prior is in this family, the posterior $\theta \mid x$ is also in the family.

Biased coin example



Figure: Left: The prior Beta(33.4, 33.4) and the posterior Beta(33.4 + 11, 33.4 + 19) for θ . Right: The probability of heads at each point in a sequence of observations, conditioning on the previous observations of 11/18

Example: The Poisson-Gamma conjugacy

Assume
$$\pi(x \mid \theta) = \text{Poisson}(x; \theta)$$
, i.e., that

$$\pi(x \mid \theta) = e^{-\theta} \frac{\theta^x}{x!}$$

Then π(θ | α, β) = Gamma(θ; α, β) where α, β are positive parameters, is a conjugate family. Recall that

$$\mathsf{Gamma}(\theta; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \theta^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta \theta).$$

Specifically, we have the posterior

$$\pi(\theta \mid x) = \text{Gamma}(\theta; \alpha + x, \beta + 1).$$

Poisson-Gamma example

- We make repeated observations of a Poisson(θ) distributed variable for some θ > 0. The observed values are x₁ = 20, x₂ = 24, and x₃ = 23. What is the posterior distribution for θ given this data?
- We first must decide on a prior for θ . In this example we use $\pi(\theta) \propto_{\theta} \frac{1}{\theta}$.
- Note that this is an *improper* prior; it is a "density" that does not integrate to 1! However, using such improper priors is possible in Bayesian statistics.
- ▶ We get the posterior after observing *x*₁:

 $\theta \mid x_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(20, 1)$

Using this as prior, we get after also observing x₂:

 $\theta \mid x_1, x_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(20 + 24, 1 + 1)$

and similar for the last observation x_3 .

Poisson-Gamma example



Figure: The posteriors after one, two, and three observations, where $x_1 = 20, x_2 = 24$, and $x_3 = 23$. Note how increasing amounts of data leads to a narrower posterior density.

Predictive distribution for the Poisson Gamma conjugacy

- We have seen: If k | θ ~ Poisson(θ) and θ ~ Gamma(α, β) then θ | k ~ Gamma(α + k, β + 1).
- Direct computation gives the prior predictive distribution

$$\pi(k) = \frac{\pi(k \mid \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\pi(\theta \mid k)} = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha + k)}{(\beta + 1)^{\alpha + k}\Gamma(\alpha)k!}$$

Note that the positive integer x has a Negative Binomial distribution with parameters r and p if its probability mass function is

$$\pi(x \mid r, p) = \binom{x+r-1}{x} \cdot (1-p)^{x} p^{r} = \frac{\Gamma(x+r)}{\Gamma(x+1)\Gamma(r)} (1-p)^{x} p^{r}$$

- We get that the prior predictive is Negative-Binomial($\alpha, \beta/(1+\beta)$).
- Note that we can get the posterior predictive by simply replacing the α and β of the prior with the corresponding α + k and β + 1 of the posterior.

Poisson-Gamma example



Figure: Two different ways of predicting the values of k_4 , given the observations $k_1 = 20$, $k_2 = 24$, $k_3 = 23$. The pluses represent the Bayesian predictions using the posterior predictive; the circles represent the Frequentist predictions, using the Poisson distribution with parameter (20 + 24 + 23)/3 = 22.33.

If the sample space of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is finite, Bayesian inference is quite easy:

- The prior distribution $\pi(\theta)$ is represented by a vector.
- The posterior distribution π(θ | y) is obtained by termwise multiplication of the vectors π(y | θ) and π(θ) and normalizing so the result sums to 1.
- The prediction $\pi(y_{new} \mid y) = \int_{\theta} \pi(y_{new} \mid \theta) \pi(\theta \mid y) d\theta$ simplifies to taking the sum of the termwise product of the vectors $\pi(y_{new} \mid \theta)$ and $\pi(\theta \mid y)$.
- USAGE: Approximate a 1D (and 2D) prior π(θ) by finding θ₁,..., θ_k equally spaced in the definition area for θ, compute π(θ_i) and normalize these values so that they sum to 1.
- Check out the R code in the example of Section 1.5 of the Compendium!

Bayesian inference using numerical integration

The prediction we want to make can be expressed as a quotient of integrals:

$$\pi(y_{new} \mid y) = \int_{\theta} \pi(y_{new} \mid \theta) \pi(\theta \mid y) d\theta$$

=
$$\int_{\theta} \pi(y_{new} \mid \theta) \frac{\pi(y \mid \theta) \pi(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} \pi(y \mid \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta} d\theta$$

=
$$\frac{\int_{\theta} \pi(y_{new} \mid \theta) \pi(y \mid \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta}{\int_{\theta} \pi(y \mid \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta}$$

- ▶ One idea: Compute these integrals using numerical integration.
- Can work well as long as the dimension of θ is low (max 2 or 3?) and the functions are well-behaved.
- Check out the R code in the example of Section 1.6 of the Compendium!