Statistics 225 Bayesian Statistical Analysis (Part 2)

Hal Stern

Department of Statistics University of California, Irvine sternh@uci.edu

March 28, 2019

Hierarchical models – motivation James-Stein inference

- Suppose $X \sim N(\theta, 1)$
 - X is admissible (not dominated) for estimating θ with squared error loss
- Now $X_i \sim N(\theta_i, 1), i = 1, \ldots, r$
 - $X = (X_1, \dots, X_r)$ is admissible if r = 1, 2 but not $r \ge 3$
 - ▶ for r ≥ 3

$$\delta_i = (1 - \frac{r-2}{\sum_i X_i^2})X_i$$

yields better estimates

known as James-Stein estimation

Hierarchical models – motivation James-Stein inference (cont'd)

- The Bayes view: $X_i \sim N(\theta_i, 1)$ and $\theta_i \sim N(0, a)$
 - posterior distn: $\theta_i | X_i \sim N$
 - posterior mean is $(1 \frac{1}{a+1})X_i$
 - need to estimate a; one natural approach yields James-Stein
- Summary
 - estimation results depend on loss function
 - squared-error loss do well on avg but maybe poor for one component

 powerful lesson about combining related problems to get improved inferences

Hierarchical Models

Suppose we have data

$$Y_{ij}$$
 $j = 1, \dots, J$
 $i = 1, \dots, n_j$

such that Y_{ij} $i = 1, ..., n_j$ are independent given θ_j with distribution $p(Y|\theta_j)$. e.g. scores for students in classrooms It Y (i) (j) (j) might be reasonable to expect θ_j 's to be "similar" (but not necessarily identical).

Therefore, we may perhaps try to estimate population distribution of θ_j 's. This is achieved in a natural way if we use a prior distribution in which the θ_j 's are viewed as a sample from a common *population distribution*.

Hierarchical Models

- Key: The observed data, y_{ij}, with units indexed by i within groups indexed by j, can be used to estimate aspects of the population distribution of the θ_j's even though the values of θ_i are not themselves observed.
- How? It is natural to model such a problem hierarchically
 - \blacktriangleright observable outcomes modeled conditionally on parameters θ

 θ given a probabilistic specification in terms of other parameters, φ, known as hyperparameters.

Hierarchical Models

- Nonhierarchical models are usually inappropriate for hierarchical data. Why?
 - a single θ (i.e., θ_j ≡ θ ∀j) may be inadequate to fit a combined data set.
 - separate unrelated θ_j are likely to "overfit" data.
 - information about one θ_j can be obtained from others' data.

 Hierarchical model uses many parameters but population distribution induces enough structure to avoid overfitting.

Setting up hierarchical models Exchangeability

Recall: A set of random variables $(\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k)$ is **exchangeable** if the joint distribution is invariant to permutations of the indexes $(1, \ldots, k)$. The indexes contain no information about the values of the

random variables.

- hierarchical models often use exchangeable models for the prior distribution of model parameters
- iid random variables are one example
- seemingly non-exchangeable r.v.'s may become exchangeable if we condition on all available information (e.g., regression analysis)

Setting up hierarchical models Exchangeable models

- Basic form of exchangeable model
 - θ = (θ₁,...,θ_k) are independent conditional on additional parameters φ (known as hyperparameters)

$$p(heta|\phi) = \prod_{j=1}^k p(heta_j|\phi)$$

- ϕ referred to as hyperparameter(s) with hyperprior distn $p(\phi)$
- implies $p(\theta) = \int p(\theta|\phi)p(\phi)d\phi$
- work with joint posterior distribution, $p(\theta, \phi|y)$
- One objection to exchangeable model is that we may have other information, say (X_i). In that case may take

$$p(\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_J|X_1,\ldots,X_J) = \prod_{i=1}^J p(\theta_i|\phi,X_i)$$

Setting up hierarchical models

- Model is usually specified in nested stages
 - ► sampling distribution of data p(y|θ) (first level of hierarchy)
 - ▶ prior (or population) distribution for θ is $p(\theta|\phi)$ (second level of hierarchy)
 - prior distribution for ϕ (hyperprior) is $p(\phi)$
 - Note: more levels are possible
 - hyperprior at highest level is often diffuse but improper priors must be checked carefully to avoid improper posterior distributions.

Setting up hierarchical models

- Inference
 - Joint distn:

$$p(y,\theta,\phi) = p(y|\theta,\phi)p(\theta|\phi)p(\phi) = p(y|\theta)p(\theta|\phi)p(\phi)$$

Posterior distribution

$$egin{array}{rcl} p(heta, \phi | y) & \propto & p(\phi) p(heta | \phi) p(y | heta) \ &= & p(heta | y, \phi) p(\phi | y) \end{array}$$

- often $p(\theta|\phi)$ is conjugate for $p(y|\theta)$
- if we know (or fix) ϕ : $p(\theta|y, \phi)$ follows from conjugacy
- then need inference for ϕ : $p(\phi|y)$

Computational approaches for hierarchical models

Marginal model

$$p(y|\phi) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|\phi)d\theta$$

do inference only for ϕ (e.g. marginal maximum likelihood)

 this is the approach that is often used in traditional random effects models

 \blacktriangleright no inference for θ

Computational approaches for hierarchical models

Empirical Bayes

$$p(heta|y,\hat{\phi}) \propto p(y| heta) p(heta|\hat{\phi})$$

- estimate ϕ (often using marginal maximum likelihood)
- \blacktriangleright inference for θ conditional on the estimated ϕ
- underestimates the uncertainty about θ

Computational approaches for hierarchical models

Hierarchical Bayes (a.k.a. full Bayes)

 $p(\theta, \phi|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta|\phi)p(\phi)$

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inference for θ and ϕ

- full posterior distribution of θ and ϕ is obtained
- this is the approach we rely on

Hierarchical models and random effects Animal breeding example

Consider the following mixed linear model commonly used in animal breeding studies

$$Y = X\beta + Zu + e$$

X = design matrix for fixed effects Z = design matrix for random effects β = fixed effects parameters u = random effects parameters e = individual variation ~ $N(0, \sigma_e^2 I)$ $Y|\beta, u, \sigma_e^2 ~ N(X\beta + Zu, \sigma_e^2 I)$

$$u|\sigma_a^2 \sim N(0,\sigma_a^2 A)$$

(can also think of β as random with $p(\beta) \propto 1$)

Hierarchical models and random effects Animal breeding example

Marginal model (after integrating out u)

$$Y|\beta, \sigma_a^2, \sigma_e^2 \sim N(X\beta, \sigma_a^2 ZAZ' + \sigma_e^2 I)$$

- Note: the separation of parameters into θ and φ is somewhat ambiguous here:
 - model specification suggests φ = {σ_a²} and θ = {β, u, σ^e}
 - marginal model suggests φ = {β, σ²_a, σ²_e} and θ = {u}

Hierarchical models and random effects Animal breeding example

 Empirical Bayes (known as REML/BLUP)
 We can estimate σ²_a, σ²_e by marginal (restricted?) maximum likelihood (σ²_a, σ²_e). Then

$$p(u,\beta|y,\hat{\sigma}_a^2,\hat{\sigma}_e^2) \propto p(y|\beta,u,\hat{\sigma}_e^2)p(u|\hat{\sigma}_a^2)$$

(a joint normal distn)

Hierarchical Bayes

 $p(\beta, \sigma_a^2, \sigma_e^2, \mu | y) \propto p(y | \beta, u, \sigma_e^2) P(u | \sigma_a^2) p(\beta, \sigma_a^2, \sigma_e^2)$

Computation with hierarchical models

- Two cases
 - conjugate case $(p(\theta|\phi) \text{ conjugate prior for } p(y|\theta))$
 - approach described below
 - non-conjugate case
 - requires more advanced computing
 - problem-specific implementations
- Computational strategy for conjugate case
 - write $p(\theta, \phi|y) = p(\phi|y)p(\theta|\phi, y)$
 - identify conditional posterior density of θ given φ, p(θ|φ, y) (easy for conjugate models)

- obtain marginal posterior distribution of ϕ , $p(\phi|y)$
- simulate from $p(\phi|y)$ and then $p(\theta|\phi, y)$

Computation with hierarchical models

The marginal posterior distribution $p(\phi|y)$

- Approaches for obtaining $p(\phi|y)$
 - integration $p(\phi|y) = \int p(\theta, \phi|y) d\theta$
 - \blacktriangleright algebra for a convenient value of θ

$$p(\phi|y) = rac{p(heta, \phi|y)}{p(heta|\phi, y)}$$

- ► Sampling from p(φ|y)
 - easy if known distribution
 - grid if ϕ is low-dimensional
 - more sophisticated methods (later)

Normal-normal hierarchical model

Data model

- $y_j | \theta_j \sim N(\theta_j, \sigma_j^2), j = 1, \dots, J \text{ (indep)}$
- σ_j²'s are assumed known for now (can release this assumption later)
- motivation: y_j could be a summary statistic with (approx) normal distn from the j-th study (e.g., regression coefficient, sample mean)

Prior distn

- need a prior distn $p(\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J)$
- \blacktriangleright if exchangeable, then model θ 's as iid given parameters ϕ

Normal-normal hierarchical model: motivation

 Can think of this data model as a one-way ANOVA model (especially if y_j is a sample mean of n_j obs in group j). Typical ANOVA analysis begins by testing:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0: & \theta_1 = \ldots = \theta_J \\ H_a: & \text{not } H_0 \end{array}$$

 If we don't reject H₀, we might prefer to estimate each θ_j by the pooled estimate,

$$ar{y}_{..} = rac{\sum_{j=1}^J rac{1}{\sigma_j^2} \, y_j}{\sum_{j=1}^J rac{1}{\sigma_j^2}}$$

- If we reject H₀, we might use separate estimates, θ̂_j = y_j for each j.
- Alternative: compromise between complete pooling and none at all, e.g., a weighted combination,

$$\theta_j = \lambda_j y_j + (1 - \lambda) \overline{y}_{..}$$
 where $\lambda_j \in (0, 1)$

Normal-normal hierarchical model

Constructing a prior distribution

- (a) The pooled estimate $\hat{\theta} = \bar{y}_{..}$ is the posterior mean if the J values θ_j are restricted to be equal, with a uniform prior density on the common θ ; i.e. $p(\theta) \propto 1$.
- (b) The unpooled estimate θ̂_j = y_j is the posterior mean if the J values θ_j have independent uniform prior densities on (-∞,∞); i.e. p(θ₁,...,θ_J) ∝ 1.
- (c) The weighted combination is the posterior mean if the J values θ_j are iid $N(\mu, \tau^2)$.

Note: (a) corresponds to (c) with $\tau^2 = 0$

(b) corresponds to (c) with $au^2 o \infty$

Normal-normal hierarchical model

► Data model
$$p(y_j | \theta_j) \sim N(\theta_j, \sigma_j^2), j = 1, ..., J$$

 σ_j^2 's assumed known

Prior model for θ_j's is normal (conjugate)

$$p(\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_J|\mu,\tau) = \prod_{j=1}^J N(\theta_j|\mu,\tau^2)$$

i.e. $heta_j$'s conditionally independent given (μ, au)

• Hyperprior distribution $p(\mu, \tau)$

 noninformative distribution for μ given τ, i.e., p(μ|τ) ∝ 1 (this won't matter much because the combined data from all J experiments are highly informative about μ)

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- more on $p(\tau)$ later
- $p(\mu, \tau) = p(\tau)p(\mu|\tau) \propto p(\tau)$

Normal-normal model: computation

Joint posterior distribution:

$$p(\theta, \mu, \tau | y) \propto p(\mu, \tau) p(\theta | \mu, \tau) p(y | \theta) \propto p(\tau) \prod_{j=1}^{J} N(\theta_j | \mu, \tau^2) \prod_{j=1}^{J} N(y_j | \theta_j, \sigma_j^2) \propto p(\tau) \frac{1}{\tau^J} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_j \frac{1}{\tau^2} (\theta_j - \mu)^2\right] \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_j \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2} (y_j - \theta_j)^2\right]$$

- ► Factors that depend only on y and {σ_j} are treated as constants because they are known
- Posterior distn is a distn on J + 2 parameters
- Can compute using MCMC (later) or
- Hierarchical computation:

1.
$$p(\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_J|\mu,\tau,y)$$

2.
$$p(\mu|\tau, y)$$

3.
$$p(\tau|y)$$

Normal-normal model: computation Conditional posterior distn of θ given μ, τ, y

- Treat (μ, τ) as fixed in previous expression
- Given (μ, τ), the J separate parameters θ_j are independent in their posterior distribution
- $heta_j | \mathbf{y}, \mu, \tau \sim N(\hat{ heta}_j, V_j)$ with

$$\hat{\theta}_j = rac{rac{1}{\sigma_j^2} \; y_j + rac{1}{ au^2} \; \mu}{rac{1}{\sigma_j^2} + rac{1}{ au^2}} \; \; ext{and} \; \; V_j = rac{1}{rac{1}{\sigma_j^2} + rac{1}{ au^2}}$$

Result from simple normal-normal conjugate analysis

 θ̂_j is weighted average of hyperprior mean and data

Normal-normal model: computation Marginal posterior distribution of μ , τ given y

 We can analytically integrate the full posterior distn p(θ, μ, τ|y) over θ

$$p(\mu, \tau | y) = \int p(\theta, \mu, \tau | y) \, d\theta$$

- An alternative is to use the marginal model $p(\mu, \tau | y) \propto p(y | \mu, \tau) p(\mu, \tau)$
- Marginal model

$$p(y|\mu,\tau) = \prod_{j=1}^{J} \int \underbrace{N(\theta_j|\mu,\tau)N(\bar{y}_j|\theta_j,\sigma_j^2)}_{\text{quadratic in } y_j} d\theta_j$$

$$\Rightarrow y_j|\mu,\tau \sim \text{Normal}$$

$$E(y_j|\mu,\tau) = E(E(y_j|\theta_j,\mu,\tau)) = E(\theta_j) = \mu$$

$$Var(y_j|\mu,\tau) = E(Var(y_j|\mu,\tau,\theta_j)) + Var(E(y_j|\mu,\tau,\theta_j))$$

$$= E(\sigma_j^2) + Var(\theta_j) = \sigma_j^2 + \tau^2$$

Normal-normal model: computation Marginal posterior distribution of μ, τ given y

End result is

$$p(\mu, \tau | y) \propto p(\tau) \prod_{j=1}^{J} N(y_j | \mu, \sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)$$

$$\propto p(\tau) \prod_{j=1}^{J} (\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_j - \mu)^2}{2(\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)}\right)$$

Note: in non-normal models, it is not generally possible to integrate over θ and rely on the marginal model, so that more elaborate computational methods are needed

Normal-normal model: computation Posterior distribution of μ given τ , γ

- ► Instead of sampling (μ, τ) on a grid, factor the distribution: $p(\mu, \tau | y) = p(\tau | y)p(\mu | \tau, y)$
- *p*(μ|τ, y) is obtained by looking at *p*(μ, τ|y) and thinking of τ as known:

$$\Rightarrow p(\mu|\tau, y) \propto \prod_{j=1}^{J} N(y_j|\mu, \sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)$$

- \blacktriangleright This is the posterior distn corresponding to a normal sampling distribution with a noninformative prior density on μ
- Result: $\mu | au, extsf{y} \sim \textit{N}(\hat{\mu}, \textit{V}_{\mu})$ with

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2} y_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2}} \text{ and } V_{\mu} = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2}}$$

Normal-normal model: computation

Posterior distribution of τ given y

- $p(\tau|y)$ can be found in two equivalent ways
 - integrate $p(\mu, \tau | y)$ over μ
 - Is use algebraic form p(τ|y) = p(μ, τ|y)/p(μ|τ, y), which must hold for any μ
- ► Choose the second option, and evaluate at µ = µ̂ (for simplicity):

$$p(\tau|y) \propto \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{J} N(y_j | \hat{\mu}, \sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)}{N(\hat{\mu} | \hat{\mu}, V_{\mu})}$$

$$\propto V_{\mu}^{1/2} \prod_{j=1}^{J} (\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_j - \hat{\mu})^2}{2(\sigma_j^2 + \tau^2)}\right)$$

- Note that V_{μ} and $\hat{\mu}$ are both functions of au
- Compute $p(\tau|y)$ on a grid of values of τ

Normal-normal model: computation Summary

- To simulate from joint posterior distribution $p(\theta, \mu, \tau | y)$:
 - 1. draw τ from $p(\tau|y)$ (grid approximation)
 - 2. draw μ from $p(\mu|\tau, y)$ (normal distribution)
 - 3. draw $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_J)$ from $p(\theta | \tau, y)$ (independent normal distribution for each θ_j)
- Choice of $p(\tau)$
 - $p(au) \propto 1$ proper posterior distribution
 - ▶ $p(\log \tau) \propto 1$ improper posterior distribution (equivalent to $p(\tau^2) \propto 1/\tau^2$ but this common noninformative prior for variances doesn't work in this case

- discuss further on the next slide
- Then illustrate with SAT coaching example (add to slides or do separately)

Normal-normal model: computation

Hyperprior distribution

- \blacktriangleright Non-informative or weakly informative prior distributions for τ
 - p(τ) ∝ 1 yields a proper posterior distribution (J > 2); can be thought of as limit of U(0, A); sometimes useful to use U(0, A) with A determined by context of problem
 - $p(\log \tau) \propto 1$ yields an improper posterior distribution; why??
 - this is a common noninformative prior for variances
 - here 1/τ² assigns infinite mass near τ = 0 and the data can never rule out τ = 0 because the θ_j's are not observable
 - ► can contrast with σ^2 in usual normal model where data (assuming all y's are not equal) rules out $\sigma^2 = 0$
 - p(τ) = inverse-gamma(ε, ε) proper prior distribution; but does not yield a proper posterior in the limit as ε → 0 so choice of ε matters
 - p(τ) ∝ (1 + τ²/A²ν)^{-(ν+1)/2} known as half-t; distn of absolute value of a mean zero t distribution with scale parameter A and degrees of freedom ν (see Gelman 2006)

- Series of toxicology studies
- Study j: n_j exchangeable individuals y_i develop tumors
- Model specification:
 - $y_j | \theta_j \sim Bin(n_j, \theta_j), j = 1, \dots, J \text{ (indep)}$
 - $\theta_j, j = 1, \dots, J \mid \alpha, \beta \sim \mathsf{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ (iid)
 - p(α, β) − to be specified later, hopefully "non" or "weakly" informative
- Marginal model:
 - ▶ can integrate out $\theta_j, j = 1, \dots, J$ in this case

$$\begin{split} p(y|\alpha,\beta) &= \int \cdot \int \prod_{j=1}^{J} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta_{j}^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta_{j})^{\beta-1} {n_{j} \choose y_{j}} \theta_{j}^{y_{j}} (1-\theta_{j})^{n_{j}-y_{j}} d\theta_{1} \cdot d\theta_{J} \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{J} {n_{j} \choose y_{j}} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+y_{j})\Gamma(\beta+n_{j}-y_{j})}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta+n_{j})} \end{split}$$

- $y_j, j = 1, \ldots, J$ are ind
- ► distn of y_j is known as beta-binomial distn

• Conditional distn of θ 's given α, β, y

•
$$p(\theta | \alpha, \beta, y) = \prod_j \text{Beta}(\alpha + y_j, \beta + n_j - y_j)$$

- independent conjugate analyses
- find this by algebra or by inspection of $p(\theta, \alpha, \beta|y)$
- analysis is thus reduced to finding (and simulating from) p(α, β|y)
- Marginal posterior distn of α, β

$$p(\alpha,\beta|y) \propto p(\alpha,\beta) \prod_{j=1}^{J} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+y_j)\Gamma(\beta+n_j-y_j)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta+n_j)}$$

- could derive from marginal distn on previous slide
- could also derive from joint posterior distn
- not a known distn (on α, β) but easy to evaluate

- Hyperprior distn $p(\alpha, \beta)$
 - First try: $p(\alpha, \beta) \propto 1$ (flat, noninformative?)
 - equivalent to p(α/(α + β), α + β) ∝ (α + β) (relevant because α/(α + β) is the mean and 1/(α + β) is roughly proportional to variance)
 - equivalent to $p(\log(\alpha/\beta), \log(\alpha+\beta)) \propto \alpha\beta$
 - check to see if posterior is proper
 - consider diff't cases (e.g., $\alpha \rightarrow 0, \beta$ fixed)
 - if α, β → ∞ with α/(α + β) = c, then p(α, β|y) ∝ constant (not integrable)
 - this is an improper distn
 - contour plot would also show this (lots of probability extending out towards infinity)

- Hyperprior distn $p(\alpha, \beta)$
 - Second try: p(α/(α + β), α + β) ∝ 1 (flat on prior mean and precision)
 - more intuitive, these two params are plausibly independent
 - equivalent to $p(\alpha, \beta) \propto 1/(\alpha + \beta)$
 - still leads to improper posterior distn
 - Third try: p(log(α/β), log(α + β)) ∝ 1 (flat on natural transformation of prior mean and variance)
 - equivalent to $p(lpha,eta) \propto 1/(lphaeta)$
 - still leads to improper posterior distn
 - Fourth try: p(α/(α + β), (α + β)^{-1/2}) ∝ 1 (flat on prior mean and prior s.d.)
 - equivalent to $p(\alpha, \beta) \propto (\alpha + \beta)^{-5/2}$
 - "final answer" proper posterior distn
 - equivalent to p(log(α/β), log(α + β)) ∝ αβ(α + β)^{-5/2} (this will come up later)

- Computing
 - later consider more sophisticated approaches
 - for now, use grid approach
 - \blacktriangleright simulate α,β from grid approx to posterior distn
 - then simulate θ's using conjugate beta posterior distn
 - convenient to use (log(α/β), log(α + β)) scale because contours "look better" and we can get away with smaller grid

Illustrate with rat tumor data (add slides or do separately?)